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Conversations in Male Genderlect in Young Adult Fiction: Their Effect on Reading Motivation

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Abstract—A study was conducted to test the hypothesis that eighth grade young adults would indicate greater motivation to read books with accurate representation of conversations in male genderlect, with genderlect being defined as “a set of linguistic features that characterizes language production of a socially defined gender category (typically woman/girl and man/boy)” (Johnson, 2009). Fifty-six eighth grade volunteers--29 female and 27 male--were presented with five excerpts from young adult novels that contained conversations in male genderlect. These excerpts were paired with the same conversation re-written in Standard English. Subjects were asked to indicate which seemed more like a book they would like to read--the male genderlect version or the Standard English version. The hypothesis was not supported.

Index Terms—literacy, young adult literacy, adolescent literacy, young adult males and literacy, young adult literature, reading motivation, genderlect

I. INTRODUCTION

An ongoing source of concern regarding the preparation of young adults with skills needed for success in college and the workplace has been the disparity in male and female literacy achievement (Brozo, 2010; Cypress, A. & Lee-Anderson, K., 2011; Mitchell, Murphy, & Peters, 2008; Sadowski, 2010; Whitmire, 2006). As examples, both 13-year-old and 17-year old females have out-scored males on the long term National Assessment of Educational Progress with every test administration since its inception in 1971 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2012); females outscore males on the ACT (Conrad-Curry, 2010/2011); and in every state, fewer males score proficient or higher in reading on every state accountability test (Brozo, et al., 2014; Sadowski, 2010).

A variety of explanations exists for this lackluster male performance, but most ascribe the source of the problem to lower male reading motivation and engagement, with motivation defined as the willingness to engage in an activity, and a willingness to persist in that activity even when it becomes difficult (Urduan & Schoenfelder, 2006), and engagement comprising three dimensions: enjoyment of reading, time spent reading for enjoyment, and diversity of texts read (Brozo, et al., 2014).

Some point to biological differences in male and female anatomy as reasons for the lesser male motivation to read. For example, brain research by Harasty, Double, Halliday, Kril, and McRitchie (1997) has found that Broca's area and Wernicke's area, the parts of the brain that govern language, are considerably larger in females than in males. Senn (2012) states that at school entry age in the United States, the language areas of the average boy's brain are developmentally 1.5 years behind the average girl's. Leonard Sax notes that boys' and girls' eyes are structured differently at birth, with boys' eyes built to answer the questions, “Where is it, and where is it going?”, while girls' eyes are constructed to answer the question, “What is it?” Thus, boys' eyes are less well-prepared to focus on static figures on a page (Sax, 2005). Consequently, for these and other reasons, the logic goes, since boys are less well-prepared developmentally for reading instruction, they find it harder and are less successful than girls. People tend to like to engage in those activities at which they experience success and avoid those at which they do not, as indicated by Bandura's self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977). Consequently, males form a negative view of reading as an activity early on in school and become more prone to avoid it.

Others consider socialization into gender roles as a primary factor, suggesting that because children's mothers are the most likely parents to read to them, and elementary teachers and librarians are overwhelmingly female, boys rapidly develop the idea that reading is a feminine activity. Mitchell, Murphy, and Peters (2008) stated that part of some boys' low reading motivation is that they see reading to be in conflict with their sense of masculinity. According to the Canadian Council on Learning (2009, Feb. 18) some boys form the perception that reading is female in nature by the time they start school, with 24 percent of second grade boys stating that reading is a feminine activity and therefore not something that boys should enjoy or engage in voluntarily.

A third view, related to the first two, but different in focus, holds that the types of instructional materials in reading and English classes do not match boys' interests. Research indicates that boys in general are interested in non-fiction and stories with male main characters, strong action and adventure-filled plots, humor, texts that stimulate visual thinking, edgy or slightly subversive texts that offer a divergent angle or are shocking in some way, texts in which they

can see themselves and their concerns, and short chapters that provide feelings of competence and accomplishment (Brozo, 2010; Newkirk, 2002; Parkhurst, 2008; Scieszka, 2002; Serafini, 2013; Smith & Wilhelm, 2002; Tatum, 2005; Zbaracki, 2008).

Thus, the male enjoyment of non-fiction means that the importance that Common Core standards place on non-fiction is overdue. However, it would be a mistake to deduce from this that boys do not like fiction narrative or that fiction narrative holds little value for them. If boys did not like fiction narrative, they would not be avid fans of fiction narrative in movie format like the Transformer series or so fascinated by stories from Greek and Roman mythology like Perseus's rescue of Andromeda from the sea monster. In fact, MRI studies show that the same regions of the brain are activated while reading a fiction story as are activated during a real event. Reading a story lets readers enter vicariously into the thoughts, feelings, and problems of others. It is a form of practice for real life, and evidence indicates that readers of fiction narrative are better able to understand other people, a quality not true of those who read primarily non-fiction (Diakiaw, 2014). As Smith and Wilhelm put it, fiction narrative provides "imaginative rehearsals for living" (Smith & Wilhelm, 2002, p. 164). However, action-oriented stories of the sort likely to motivate boys to read were largely removed from school curricula decades ago in well-intentioned initiatives to remove violence from children's reading (Sadowski, 2010, Nov.) to be replaced by texts used in reading and literature instruction that typically focus on characters' personalities and emotional issues, topics which tend not to match the reading preferences of adolescent males for action and humor (Senn, 2012; Serafini, 2013).

In *Reading Don't Fix No Chevys*, Smith and Wilhelm's 2002 study of the literacy practices and preferences of 49 adolescent boys, they identified an overarching quality they called the "reality principle," the ability for male readers to see themselves and their concerns in the text (Smith & Wilhelm, 2002, p. 123.) Even the boys who were followers of fantasy and science fiction insisted on those books' "reality," because they helped them with real life situations.

One of the characteristics that would seem to be a likely component of a narrative's "reality" would be conversational language used in the way an adolescent male, unaware he is being observed, would use it in a school hallway or locker room. This particular type of language is known as "male genderlect."

A "dialect" is "a regional variety of language distinguished by features of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation from other regional varieties and constituting together with them a single language<the Doric dialect of ancient Greek>" (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015). A "sociolect" is "a variety of a language that is used by a particular social group" (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015). An example would be lower class residents of New York City. An "idiolect" is "the language or speech pattern of one individual at a particular period of life" (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015). Male and female "genderlect" refer to language used in ways peculiar to one gender or the other. The term was first used by Cheris Kramer (later Kramerae) in 1974, who noted that the sex of a speaker can be identified even when there is no difference in articulatory mechanism (Kramer, 1974). It was later popularized and brought into more widespread usage by sociolinguist Deborah Tannen in her best-seller, *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation* (1990). A "genderlect," then, is "a set of linguistic features that characterizes language production of a socially defined gender category (typically woman/girl and man/boy)" (Johnson, 2009).

Though the differences in male and female speech patterns had been explored as early as the 1920's, most notably by Otto Jespersen (1922), the subject was only occasionally explored until the 1970's when Robin Lakoff (1973) sparked a great deal of interest in the topic on the part of feminist researchers. Looking at differences in the ways men and women talk from a feminist perspective, these researchers tended to assume that those differences resulted from men's desire to dominate women or "keep them in their place" (e.g., Edelsky, 1978; Kramerae, 1981), citing as evidence, for example, research that shows that in conversation, men interrupt women more than vice versa (Zimmerman & West, 1978).

More research on male-female conversation patterns has tended to refute this view, demonstrating that men also interrupt other men, and women interrupt other women, but that their reasons for interrupting differ: Men interrupt male speakers as a means of establishing status, while women tend to interrupt other women to show support or agreement (Tannen, 1990; Griffin, Ledbetter, & Sparks, 2015). Males do, in fact, seem far more concerned with asserting dominance when interacting with other males than when interacting with females (Leaper & Ayres, 2007).

Documented differences such as this establish that peculiarly male and female voices, or genderlects, exist. They develop, according to Tannen (1990), because children tend to play in gender-segregated groups, interacting primarily with others of the same sex, consequently growing up in what amount to two different cultures. Each genderlect has its own sociolinguistic rules and is important to a speaker's identity construction, including the construction of gender (Kramerae, 1981; Warfel, 1984; Kehler, Davison, & Frank, 2005). The hierarchical social order views taken by males tend to make male genderlect conversations into negotiations for status, with speakers trying to protect their social rank from others' attempts to diminish it. Conversations in female genderlect, on the other hand, reflect attempts to negotiate connections and degrees of intimacy.

Blair (2000) observed how middle school boys engage in constant competition for status, trying to outdo each other's ability to elicit laughter from classmates. Other attempts to raise speakers' status involve casting aspersions on others' masculinity. For example, in Robert Lipsyte's *Raiders Night* (2006), one of the football team's fullbacks continually refers scornfully to other players as "girls." Women and girls do not generally try to diminish the femininity of other females by referring to them in masculine terms.

Other differences between male and female genderlect include a greater male propensity for slang and non-standard English; a greater tendency to drop the *g* in *-ing* verbs; lesser use of intensifiers like *more*, *most*, and *better*; the use of fewer qualifiers such as *awfully*, *somewhat*, or *rather*; lesser employment of hedges such as *kind of*, *sort of*, *I guess*, et cetera; a greater propensity for swear words and when swearing to use more explosive expletives (Fuck!); use of fewer tag questions such as “College tuition is getting to be awfully expensive, *isn't it?*” or “Community college classes should be free, *don't you think?*”; male avoidance of adjectives and color words considered feminine in nature, such as *lovely*, *charming*, *marvelous*, *lavender*, *ecru*, *mauve*, et cetera. (Kramerae, 1981; Tannen, 1990; Golderg, 1994; Xia, 2013; Griffin, Ledbetter, & Sparks, 2015).

Additionally, male questions, comments, and compliments tend to be one or two words in length or short phrases. The female question, “Are we going now?” becomes in male genderlect, “We goin’?” The female compliment “That coat looks nice on you” becomes “Hey! Nice coat!” (O’Donohue & Crouch, 1996; Wilkinson, 1999). The following example of this abbreviated form of male conversation is taken from Robert Lipsyte’s *Raiders Night* (2006):

Brody asked, “You going to Lexie’s?”

“You?”

Brody shrugged. “Might as well. Last party before hell.”

“Pick me up after the game?”

“I’m driving?”

“Your turn,” said Matt.

“What about Pete?”

“Who knows? Might have to paint Lisa’s toenails tonight.” (p.10)

(Pete is a friend of Matt and Brody’s whom they think spoils his girlfriend and thus would probably be willing to paint her toenails.)

This sort of extended dialogue in male voice or genderlect is rare in young adult literature aimed at a male audience. Parkhurst (2012) examined over 200 young adult novels aimed at adolescent boys and found only 11 that contained more than incidental use of conversation in recognizably realistic male genderlect. However, if, as Kehler, Davison, and Frank (2005) said, language helps constitute gender, then accurate representation of male genderlect could become part of male adolescents’ ability to see themselves and identify with characters in young adult fiction. It would then become part of the fulfillment of Smith and Wilhelm’s “reality principle.”

II. METHOD

Children’s book author Jon Scieszka (2003) noted the importance of accurate representation of nine-year-olds’ dialogue in books aimed at that age level. Logically, adolescent girls would also prefer fiction that depicted male characters speaking in the same manner as men and boys with whom they are familiar. Yet no one seems to have investigated the importance to young adults’ reading motivation of the accurate representation of male or female dialogue in books aimed at teenagers. The study described below was conducted to test the following hypothesis:

Eighth grade young adults will indicate greater motivation to read books with accurate representation of conversations in male genderlect.

The subjects were 56 eighth grade volunteers from a rural Midwestern United States school district, 29 female and 27 male, who were released from class to participate in the study. The district’s population is a mix of middle class and lower socioeconomic status households. All of the subjects were Caucasian of apparent European ancestry, though they were not queried about their ethnic or racial background. The instrument consisted of a packet with five passages from young adult novels that accurately display conversations in male genderlect. These conversational passages were paired with the same conversations re-written in Standard English (neutral genderlect). In three of the paired passages, the male genderlect version was on the left, while in two, the male genderlect version was on the right. This was done to reduce the likelihood that subjects would simply choose all of the left hand passages or all of the right. To the left of each passage was a box. Subjects were asked to indicate, by placing an X in the box next to that passage, which one out of each pair sounded more like a book they would like to read. To decrease the likelihood that subjects would recognize a book as one they had already read or an author with whose works they were familiar, the sources of the passages were not identified in the instrument. They were, however, taken from *Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie* (Lubar, 2005), a book about a young man surviving his freshman year of high school; *Yellow Flag*, (Lipsyte, 2007), a novel about auto racing; *Vision Quest* (Davis, 2002), a coming of age novel about wrestling; *Raiders Night* (Lipsyte, 2006), a story concerning high school hazing and jealousy; and *If You’re Reading This* (Reedy, 2014), a book about a teenage boy grieving his father who died in Afghanistan. (The instrument can be found in the appendix following this article.)

After subjects had assembled in the school cafeteria, the researcher read the directions aloud to them. Though the passages contained very few words that would be likely to cause trouble for an eighth grader, subjects were told that if they found an unfamiliar word, they should raise a hand, and the researcher would provide it. They were cautioned against comparing or discussing answers. As subjects completed the exercise, the researcher picked up their papers which subjects had been directed to place in researcher-supplied plain blank envelopes.

III. RESULTS

Subsequent analysis of the data indicated the hypothesis was not supported. In no case did a majority of the subjects indicate a preference for the passage in male genderlect form. (See Table 1.) The closest subjects came to an even split in their preferences was on the second and third excerpts, from *Yellow Flag* (Lipsyte, 2007) and Terry Davis's *Vision Quest* (2002), for which 21, or 38 per cent, indicated a preference for the male genderlect form. Approximately one-third, 19 subjects, or 34 percent, indicated a preference for the fifth excerpt, from Reedy's *If You're Reading This* (2014). In each of these three cases, while the overwhelming majority of subjects chose the Standard English version, a substantial minority did prefer the male genderlect rendering.

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS PREFERRING MALE GENDERLECT FORMS OF YOUNG ADULT NOVEL CONVERSATIONS (N=56)

Novel Title	Standard English		Male Genderlect	
	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%
<i>Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie</i> (Lubar, 2005), Excerpt 1	44	79%	12	21%
<i>Yellow Flag</i> (Lipsyte, 2007), Excerpt 2	35	63%	21	38%
<i>Vision Quest</i> (Davis, 2002), Excerpt 3	35	63%	21	38%
<i>Raiders Night</i> (Lipsyte, 2006) Excerpt 4	45	80%	11	20%
<i>If You're Reading This</i> (Reedy, 2014), Excerpt 5	37	66%	19	34%

The 29 female subjects overwhelmingly indicated a preference for the Standard English version of the conversations. (See Table 2.) The greatest number who chose the male genderlect version were the eight girls, or 28 percent, who preferred that version of the conversation in the second excerpt, from Robert Lipsyte's *Yellow Flag* (2007). Only four percent indicated a preference for the male genderlect form of the conversation in the first excerpt, from *Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie* (Lubar, 2005), which interestingly enough was about the main character querying his father about how he and the boy's mother became acquainted.

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SUBJECTS PREFERRING MALE GENDERLECT FORMS OF YOUNG ADULT NOVEL CONVERSATIONS (N=29)

Novel Title	Standard English		Male Genderlect	
	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%
<i>Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie</i> (Lubar, 2005), Excerpt 1	25	86%	4	14%
<i>Yellow Flag</i> (Lipsyte, 2007), Excerpt 2	21	72%	8	24%
<i>Vision Quest</i> (Davis, 2002), Excerpt 3	22	76%	7	24%
<i>Raiders Night</i> (Lipsyte, 2006) Excerpt 4	24	83%	5	17%
<i>If You're Reading This</i> (Reedy, 2014), Excerpt 5	22	76%	7	24%

The 27 male subjects took a much more favorable view of the male genderlect forms of the conversations with 15, or 56 percent, choosing the male genderlect version of Terry Davis's *Vision Quest* (2002) and nearly half (13 or 48 percent) choosing the male genderlect form of the dialogue from Robert Lipsyte's *Yellow Flag* (2007). (See Table 3). This was the one male genderlect version that a majority of either boys or girls chose. The fewest boys chose the *Raiders Night* (Lipsyte, 2006) male genderlect rendering-- six, or 22 percent.

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE OF MALE SUBJECTS PREFERRING MALE GENDERLECT FORMS OF YOUNG ADULT NOVEL CONVERSATIONS (N=27)

Novel Title	Standard English		Male Genderlect	
	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%	Number of Subjects Making This Choice	%
<i>Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie</i> (Lubar, 2005), Excerpt 1	19	70%	8	30%
<i>Yellow Flag</i> (Lipsyte, 2007), Excerpt 2	14	52%	13	48%
<i>Vision Quest</i> (Davis, 2002), Excerpt 3	12	44%	15	56%
<i>Raiders Night</i> (Lipsyte, 2006) Excerpt 4	21	78%	6	22%
<i>If You're Reading This</i> (Reedy, 2014), Excerpt 5	15	56%	12	44%

IV. DISCUSSION

Given Smith and Wilhelm's (2002) reality principle, the importance of language to the construction of gender ((Kramerae, 1981; Warfel, 1984; Kehler, Davison, & Frank, 2005), and Jon Scieszka's 2002 comments about the importance of realistic dialogue, the intuitive results would have had subjects overwhelmingly choosing the male genderlect form of each set of dialogues, the boys because that form mirrored the way they talk to each other, and the girls because that is how the males with whom they are familiar speak to each other. So why was this not the case?

First of all, it would clearly be mistaken to suggest that no subjects preferred the male genderlect versions, as over a third of all subjects opted for that style of the second, third, and fifth excerpts, from Robert Lipsyte's *Yellow Flag* (2007), Terry Davis's *Vision Quest* (2002), and Trent Reedy's *If You're Reading This* (2014). This is a minority of subjects, but a substantial minority. And, although the study was not set up or intended to disaggregate data by gender, it is nevertheless true that over half (56 percent) of the male subjects chose the male genderlect version of the third excerpt, from *Vision Quest*, and nearly half (48 percent and 44 percent, respectively) chose the male genderlect form of the excerpts from *Yellow Flag* and *If You're Reading This*.

Why these particular sets of conversation is difficult to surmise. There is nothing about the excerpt from *Vision Quest* to indicate that the book centers around wrestling or even sports, except that Otto saw Loudon Swain's "norms" in the shower. The excerpt from *Yellow Flag* includes the word *race*, and the subject is use of the "sling," a stock car racing maneuver. Would a set of eighth grade boys be familiar enough with NASCAR racing to recognize the topic? It is possible, but seems questionable. And there is nothing in the excerpt from *If You're Reading This* to indicate that the main character's father is dead, even though the boy is receiving letters from him, though it does mention four-wheeling and a pasture, which might be relevant to the habitus of some rural youth. The excerpt from *Raiders Night* also clearly relates to a sport of some kind (though it is not clear that the sport is football), yet that was not popular with the group as a whole or with the boys. The first excerpt, from *Sleeping Freshmen Never Lie*, relates to burgeoning early male-female relationships. Perhaps in that case, it did not meet subjects' tastes, but otherwise, none of the other passages should be more likely than any other to pique the interest of eighth graders. *Vision Quest* is easily the most difficult of the books as far as reading level is concerned—sporting the words *anomie*, *sociology*, and *norms*—yet was one of those books more commonly chosen.

Despite the male genderlect forms of the sets of conversations being what would seem to be their intuitive choice, subjects did, then, in general show a preference for the Standard English versions of the conversations. Although subjects were released from a variety of classes to participate in the study, they were introduced to it in their English classes, and the teacher whose cooperation made the study possible was their English teacher. While school by and large tends to encourage the use of Standard English, the class with which students most associate the use of "correct" grammar and writing in complete sentences is English. It may be that the study's connection with English class led some to feel they "should" choose the Standard English rendition, despite the directions to choose the one they felt sounded most like a book they would like to read. It would be worthwhile to replicate the study in another setting and execute it through the assistance of a teacher in some other discipline, such as mathematics or physical education, or a counselor—or in a setting other than a school.

The girls in particular opted for the Standard English version of each set of conversations. (See Table 2.) Research indicates that female genderlect is marked by a greater emphasis on the use of "correct" grammar (Kramerae, 1981; Tannen, 1990; Golderg, 1994; Xia, 2013; Griffin, Ledbetter, & Sparks, 2015). Perhaps the girls chose the Standard English or neutral genderlect versions because they were closer to their own speaking style.

Greater understanding of subjects' choices could perhaps be obtained by asking them to provide a sentence or two explaining the reasoning behind each choice, although the instructions to choose the passage from each of the pairs that most sounds like a book they would like to read are pretty straightforward and direct.

V. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As indicated earlier, the subjects were 56 eighth grade volunteers out of a total eighth grade population of 129 from a relatively small middle school in the rural Midwest. Since the 56 subjects represent fewer than half of the school's eighth grade, it is possible that their responses are not indicative of the attitudes of other eighth graders at the school. The entire middle school has about 450 students, making it a relatively small school. More research needs to be done to determine if the results of this small study are generalizable to other settings. Additionally, the attitudes of eighth graders may differ from those of older adolescents; very similar studies might yield very different responses from 15- or 17-year-olds.

Further, the study's purpose was to look at the responses of eighth graders in general. Had the purpose been different and the hypothesis worded differently as a consequence, results would have indicated that boys were more likely to choose the male genderlect versions than girls were, though in only one case (Terry Davis's 2002 *Vision Quest* excerpt) did a slim majority of boys do so. This also needs to be examined in further research.

VI. SUMMARY

A study was conducted to test the hypothesis that eighth grade young adults would indicate greater motivation to read books with accurate representation of conversations in male genderlect. The hypothesis was not supported. In each of

five instances of paired conversations from young adult novels, one in male genderlect, the other the Standard English version, the overwhelming majority of subjects chose the Standard English version. Boys were, however, more likely than girls to choose the male genderlect form.

APPENDIX

Please indicate whether you are male or female by circling the appropriate choice:

MALE FEMALE

Below and on the next two pages, you'll find four pairs of conversations taken from novels for young adults. The one on the left and the one on the right are the same conversation, but written a little differently.

Please read through them and put an X in the box next to the one you think sounds more like a book you would enjoy reading.

"So how is school going? Dad asked.
"School's going good."
"I'm glad to hear it."
"Dad?"
"Yeah?"
"Did Mom notice you right away?"
He shook his head.
"So what did you do?"
"I showed up."
"Where did you show up?"
"I showed up wherever she was."
"So you showed up wherever she was?"
"Or wherever she might be."
"That must have taken a lot of time," I said.
Dad shrugged. "She was worth it."

"So how is school going?" Dad asked
"Good."
"Glad to hear it."
"Dad?"
"Yeah?"
"Did Mom notice you right away?"
He shook his head.
"So what did you do?"
"Showed up."
"Where?"
"Wherever."
"So you showed up wherever she was?"
"Or wherever she might be."
"That must have taken a lot of time," I said.
Dad shrugged. "Worth it."

Dad shrugged... "You kind of leave yourself real vulnerable with the sling."
"Wouldn't have won otherwise."
"True. When you boys cook that up?"
Never lie to Dad. "Just before the race."
He nodded. "Kris been practicing it?"
"Not that I know."
"Kale's pretty wound up. If Kris misses any races, he's going to chew your ear."
"He already did."

Dad shrugged... "You kind of leave yourself really vulnerable with the sling."
"We wouldn't have won otherwise."
"That's true. When did you boys cook that up?"
Never lie to Dad. "We decided just before the race."
He nodded. "Has Kris been practicing it?"
"Not that I know of."
"Kale is pretty wound up. If Kris misses any races, he's going to really yell at you."
"He already did."

"What's wrong, Nort?" I ask. You look bad." ...
"I have no norms," Norty whines. "And also I'm hungry."
"What don't you have, Nort?" asks Otto.
"Norms. I have no norms. None of us do. Mr. Bronson says we live in a time of anomie." Mr. Bronson teaches sociology.
"Louden has some norms," replies Otto.
I saw them yesterday in the shower."
(Swain is Louden's last name.)

"What's wrong, Nort?" I ask. You look bad."
"I got no norms," Norty whines. "And also I'm hungry."
"What don't you have, Nort?" asks Otto.
"Norms. I got no norms. None of us do. Mr. Bronson says we live in a time of anomie." Bronson teaches sociology.
"Swain's got some norms," replies Otto.
"I saw 'em yesterday in the shower."

Brody asked, "Are you going to Lexie's?"
"You?"
Brody shrugged. "Might as well. Last party before hell."
"Pick me up after the game?"
"I'm driving?"
"Your turn," said Matt.
"What about Pete?"
"Who knows? Might have to paint Lisa's toe-

Brody asked, "Are you going to Lexie's?"
"Are you going?"
Brody shrugged. "I might as well. It's the last party before hell."
"Will you pick me up after the game?"
"I'm going to drive?"
"It's your turn," said Matt.
"What about Pete?"
"Who knows? He might have to paint

nails tonight.

- “You’re getting letters from your dad?”
Was he playing dumb to throw me off the trail?
But why would anyone do that? “Yes, I am.
Do you know who is sending them?”
“Wow, kid, I wish I did. Sorry. Me and your
dad was great friends. He tell you
about the time we was four-wheeling
in my parents’ pasture, and I
crashed the thing and broke my leg?”
“No, he didn’t,” I said.
Todd laughed. “It was a bad break. Bone
sticking out through the skin and blood
everywhere. No cell phones in them
days, you see. Couldn’t call for help.
Your old man bandaged me up with his
own shirt and then carried me all the way
back to my father’s house ... Great
man, your father. “
own shirt and then carried me all the

Lisa’s toenails tonight.”

- “You’re getting letters from your dad?”
Was he playing dumb to throw me off the
trail? But why would anyone do that?
“Yes, I am. Do you know who is
sending them?”
“Wow, kid, I wish I did. Sorry. Your dad and I
were great friends. Did he tell you
about the time we were four-wheeling
in my parents’ pasture, and I
crashed the thing and broke my
leg?”
“No, he didn’t,” I said
Todd laughed. “It was a bad break. The bone
was sticking out through the skin, and
there was blood everywhere. There
weren’t any cell phones in those days,
you see. We couldn’t call for help.
Your father bandaged me up with his
way back to my father’s house...
Your father was a great man.”

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The Communication Methods in English Classroom for Indonesian Deaf Students

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Abstract—Deaf students can only use their visual to acquire their first language namely sign language. Mostly hearing people do not understand sign language therefore deaf students use lip-reading to communicate with them. However, lip-reading especially in foreign language not always works because some phonemes are not visible in the lips. This study investigates the communication method of deaf students in learning English as foreign language. It observes the classroom interaction in an Indonesian special school for deaf students. The result shows that deaf students use four communication methods such as sign language, lip-reading, finger-spelling, and Tadoma. The result also shows that deaf students understand words or utterances which are familiar for them. However, deaf students find difficulties in pronouncing words or utterances. They tend to pronounce in Bahasa Indonesia. Therefore, it is recommended that teacher and hearing parents of deaf child must update with the latest technology or material for deaf students learning.

Index Terms—deaf students, English as foreign language, lip-reading

I. INTRODUCTION

Deaf students do not learn English or Bahasa Indonesia as their first language. Their first language is sign language (Humphries et al., 2014). It becomes difficult when deaf students are communicating with hearing peers who do not understand about sign language at all. Therefore, deaf students need several communication methods that enable them to communicate with their hearing peers in daily conversation.

Since deaf students have hearing impairment, either deaf or hard-of-hearing (Hernawati, 2007), they have several barriers in acquiring or learning language. The first barrier is late language acquisition. Mostly deaf students were born and raised in hearing family. Their families are less proficient in signing while linguists consider that sign language is the best language for deaf child (Mellon et al., 2015).

The second barrier concerns with the difference between spoken and sign language. Spoken language is arbitrary while sign language is iconic. Yule (2010) stated that arbitrariness is “the relationship between linguistic signs and objects in the world” (p.12). It means how the world looks like does not refer the meaning of the word. This arbitrariness does not belong to sign language. Sign language is iconic. Iconic means that when we are signing, the sign is similar or associated with the meaning. For instance, when a deaf child wants to go to the bathroom, he will directly close his nose to refer the word ‘smell’ and it associate with bathroom (Meier, 1991).

The third barrier is poor in phonological information. Deaf students cannot differentiate phoneme which has the same lip movement such as /f/ and /b/ (Liben, 1978). The last barrier is lack of family and education support. In rural area, many parents cannot afford hearing aid since the price is quite expensive and it makes the deaf child very difficult to learn spoken language (Szymanski et al., 2013). School with less facilities and inappropriate curriculum makes the deaf students difficult to follow the school’s program (UNESCO, 2000).

Teaching spoken language for deaf students can be mediated by several communication methods, one of which is lip-reading. It means understanding what people say by watching the movement of the lips. The term lip-reading is changed with speech-reading. Speech-reading tends to use lips and body movement, while lip-reading only uses the lips movement (Victorian Deaf Society, 2010). Since mostly hearing people do not understand sign language, lip-reading must be taught to deaf students to make them easier in communicating with hearing world.

In general deaf students have different way in learning language compared to hearing students. The first difference is deaf students use sign language as their first language while hearing students use their native language as their first language (Humphries, et al., 2014). The second difference is deaf students have different stages in acquiring language. In babbling stage, deaf infants use gesture and syllabic manual babbling while hearing infants use spoken language like ‘ba-ba-ba’ or ‘ma-ma-ma’ (Carroll, 2008). The last difference is deaf students have different literacy levels. It is because the late language acquisition as the obstacle for deaf student in learning reading. At the age of 13-14 years old, hearing students reach seventh to eighth reading levels while deaf students can only reach third to fourth reading levels (Bowe, 1998).

Dealing with the barriers, Mellon et al. (2015) showed the importance of using and learning sign language for deaf children. There are several advantages and difficulties in using sign language. It helps teacher to communicate effectively in class by using several communication techniques such as emblem, illustrator, affect display, regulator and adaptor (Wulansari, 2012). It also supports the process of language acquisition of deaf children (Humphries et al., 2014). These studies concern with first language acquisition for deaf students. Meanwhile, this research concerns with the communication methods employed in the context of foreign language learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Every deaf person has different type of deafness based on the intensity sounds loudness (decibels-dB). The first is slight or mild (26-40dB) meaning trouble in hearing sounds from certain distance and speech against noisy place. The second is moderate (41-60dB) that is problem in hearing regular speech even in close distance. The third is severe (61-80dB) making the person can only hear loud or very loud sound. The last is profound (over 81dB) that is receiving loud sounds as a vibration (WHO, 2016).

Deafness in children is influenced by several aspects. The first is the age of hearing loss. Children who get their hearing loss many years later will more likely easier to develop their language because, some of them had already know oral communication and have better literacy (UNESCO, 2000). The second is degree of hearing loss. Children with mild or moderate hearing loss can be helped by using hearing aid. However, if the children cannot hear at all (deaf), it will be more difficult to learn oral language (Deaf Children Australia, 2012). The last is parents hearing status. A deaf mother of deaf child will directly communicate with her child using sign language while hearing mother still left behind because she needs to learn sign language first (Marschark, 2001).

Having hearing impairment makes the deaf children use several communication methods. The most common method is sign language. It is based on three components, the place where the sign is made, the shape and angle of the hand(s) and the movement of the hand(s) (Field, 2004, p. 264). Sign language represents each word associated with its meaning. In producing sign language, there are four important keys to make it as understandable sign language. Those are shape, orientation, location, and movement. Shape how the hands form to show a particular word or sentence. For instance flat hand, fist hand, or cupped hand. Orientation refers to how the hand 'palm up' or 'palm down'. Location refers the position of the hand movement, whether it is in front of our chest or upper body. In speech language, this is similar with place of articulation. Movement refers to how the hand changes the position. For instance, the hands move from chest up to head (Yule, 2010).

The origin of the sign language came from French Sign Language (FSL). It was developed by Lauren Clerc. Then FSL came to the United States as American Sign Language (ASL) and it was brought by Thomas Gallaudet, who was well known as the founder Gallaudet University (Bellugi & Klima, 1978). Another sign language is British Sign Language. In Indonesia, there is also sign language called *Bahasa Isyarat* Indonesia (BISINDO).

Similar to sign language, fingerspelling is a signing with one or both hands. Fingerspelling tends to spell a letter by using fingers. It is used to spell a name or country (Steinberg & Sciarini, 2006). The spelled alphabet with conjunction to speech form called *Rochester Method*. It is very useful to young deaf children which will have advantage in better oral skills (Moores, 1997). Usually, deaf children are using both sign language and finger-spelling. For instance, when deaf child try to say 'my name is Anne', she will use sign language in my name is, and Anne with finger-spelling.

Another method is lip-reading. It is originally an ability to 'read' what people says by seeing the movement of the lips, tongue and jaw. However, it is widen with reading of the body and face movement called speech-reading (Victorian Deaf Society, 2010). Lip-reading is mostly used for hearing people who do not understand sign language. Therefore, mostly deaf people will communicate use lip-reading in certain language, Indonesian language for instance. Lip-reading has different rules. In Jena and Kenzie's method, lip-reading also uses facial expression and body movement. However, in Bruhn's method lip-reading theory only involves lips movement of the speaker. In this method, phonemes are categorized into two class of consonants based on the visibility on the lips (Bruhn, 1915). The consonants in Table 1 are more visible than those in Table 2 as shown below:

TABLE 1.
CLASS I OF CONSONANTS

Consonants	Phonetic symbol
f	F
v	V
s	S
z	3
sh	ʃ
m	M
b	B
p	P
w	W
th	θ and ð

TABLE 2.
CLASS II OF CONSONANTS

Consonants	Phonetic symbol
k	K
g	g
ch	ʃ
d	D
t	T
h	H
l	L
n	N
r	R
th	θ and ð

There are several rules regarding each class of consonant. Those are how to pronounce /h/ before a vowel, /r/ before and after a vowel, /r/ after /f/, /b/, /p/, /th/, /r/ after /c/ and /g/ and others. These rules have different shape of the lips to recognize the lip-reader to understand what the speaker said. For instance, the phoneme /w/ or /wh/, has the same way in pronouncing diphthong /ōō/. In this case, the phoneme /r/ is difficult to recognize. In Bruhn's method, there are several rules regards to the pronunciation. The /r/ before a vowel is the forward of the lips, in differentiate those /r/ before a vowel, for example rā, rō, rōō, rā, rē, rōū, rī, rōī, rā (Bruhn, 1915, p.43).

III. METHOD

The goal of this study is to describe the communication method of deaf students during English course. It employs case study approach which focuses on English classroom in a special junior high school for students with deafness in Malang, East Java, Indonesia. It took English class grade 7th and 9th in conducting non-participant observation supported with other instruments such as field note, interview, video recording, and documentation. During the English classroom activities, the observed communication is related to the deaf students' communication method, their ability and difficulty in learning English. The observed communication methods are those involved in students' ability in pronunciation, understanding and answering teacher's questions. The analysis is done to identify the pattern of communication among deaf students and their English teacher. It also covers the identification of the difficulties faced by deaf students based on Bruhn lip-reading theory (1915). This stage analyze several words, phrases, or sentences that pronounced using lip-reading and the reason why the deaf students difficult to pronounce and understand. The last stage is drawing conclusion on how deaf students communicate using several communication methods and their difficulties during English class.

IV. RESULTS

All of the students in the observed special school suffer from hearing problem either moderate or severe because the students cannot hear in noisy place and regular conversation. In communicating and learning English as foreign language (EFL), the deaf students use sign language, lip-reading, fingerspelling and Tadoma. In SMPLB-B YPTB, all of the deaf students use BISINDO (Bahasa Isyarat Indonesia) as the main communication device. This sign language is used for communicating either with the teacher or their peers. However, both lip-reading and fingerspelling become the addition communication device to make the utterances clearer and to avoid misunderstanding. The deaf students have good skill in lip-reading for Bahasa Indonesia. Moreover, the deaf students can communicate with hearing people by only using lip-reading in Bahasa Indonesia. The last communication device is Tadoma. Tadoma is only used when the teacher teaches about how to pronounce certain words. This method is actually used for deaf-blind people. However, it can also be used for deaf students.

In using those communication methods, make the deaf students have several abilities and difficulties in learning English as foreign language. The abilities are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ABILITIES IN COMMUNICATION

Abilities	Code
Pronouncing GOOD MORNING***	A1
Answering WHAT'S YOUR NAME?***	A2
Understanding in using plural or single form***	A3
Pronouncing SHOPPING***	A4
Pronouncing INTERNET***	A5
Pronouncing SOUP***	A6
Pronouncing numbers**	A7
Understanding FRESH MILK, CARROT, EGGS***	A8
Pronouncing ALWAYS***	A9
Pronouncing DO***	A10
Pronouncing FRIEND***	A11
Understanding PEN, PENCIL***	A12

Note: ***all students; **some students

In datum A1, The first letter of the first word [*good*] is /g/ included in class II of consonants (Bruhn, 1915, p. 23). All of the students understand [*good morning*] in lip-reading. The teacher repeats this phrase each meeting. Therefore, the students memorize how to pronounce and write correctly. Another reason is the inter-movement in the word [*morning*] pronunciation is similar to its written form. Inter-movement refers to the movement from one syllable to another such as in /mɔ:r-nɪŋ/. The more the two sounds which are to be connected differ in direction, the plainer this inter-movement will naturally appear (Bruhn, 1915, p. 6). This also happens in datum A2. The deaf students also understand several words that are familiar for them. In datum A4-A12, all of the deaf students understand the meaning of the words and its pronunciation. They understand how to pronounce the word because some of the words have the same pronunciation in Bahasa Indonesia. The words are mostly included in nouns.

TABLE 4.
DIFFICULTIES IN COMMUNICATION

Abilities	Code
Pronouncing STUDY***	D1
Pronouncing EAT**	D2
Pronouncing RICE***	D3
Understanding interrogative sentences***	D4
Pronouncing HOUSE***	D5
Pronouncing SOMETIMES***	D6
Understanding BREAKFAST***	D7
Pronouncing YOU**	D8
Pronouncing USUALLY**	D9
Understanding SEMESTER***	D10
Understanding phrases***	D11
Understanding grammatical order***	D12

Note: ***all students; **some students

However, deaf students have more difficulties than their abilities in case of learning English as foreign language. Most of the deaf students are difficult to pronounce word which has invisible lips movement (datum D1, D3, D5, D6, D10, D14, D17). In addition, the words which have different pronunciation with its written form are also difficult to pronounce (D1, D2, D3, D5, D6, D7, D8, D9, D10, D13, D14, D17). All of the students pronounce the word *STUDY* as /studi/ (D1) as it applies in Bahasa Indonesia. Similarly in pronouncing *EAT* as /ɜt/ (D2) and /rɪʃə/ for *RICE* (D3). The word *HOUSE* is pronounced /hoʊs/ (D5) and /sɒm.tɪmz/ for *SOMETIMES* (D6). Pronouncing diphthong is also difficult in the word *YOU* that is pronounced /jəʊ/ (D8). Based on those findings, sign language is the best option for deaf students as their first language. Moreover, sign language must be taught to deaf children regardless they receive cochlear implants or not (Mellon et al., 2015). However, not all hearing people understand how to sign. This barrier makes the deaf students feel difficult in hearing society. Therefore, lip-reading is used to communicate as the addition communication method instead of sign language. Some deaf students understand what the hearing people say by only watch their lips movement. The speaker must use the language that is understood by the deaf students and avoid similar words.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Deaf Students in Learning English as Foreign Language and Their Abilities

The deaf students and the teacher use several communication methods in teaching and learning in English classroom. Sign language is used the most during teaching and learning in English classroom. The teacher and deaf students use sign language to communicate one another. They also use lip-reading to combine with the sign language for example "what's your name?", sign language in the word your and lip-reading for all words (datum A2). The aim of this combination is to make clear and concise communication among the speakers.

Another communication method used by deaf students and the teacher is Tadoma and finger-spelling. Tadoma is rarely used because it is focused on pronunciation of words. Finger-spelling, as it named, is used to spell particular noun or name. In addition, finger-spelling is also used when there is a word that is difficult to pronounce and the deaf students or the teacher uses the first letter then pronounce the word.

Differ with finger-spelling which is often used by deaf students, Tadoma users are mostly deaf-blind students. The Tadoma user's hand placed over the face and neck to feel the vibration that emerge while producing spoken words or sentences (Reed, n.d). Since deaf-blind students cannot use their visual to communicate with others, they use their tactile sense as their main 'device' to communicate and learn language, for example a student cannot pronounce nine correctly and the teacher uses Tadoma method to correct and show how the right pronunciation (datum A7).

Tadoma method is not easy task for the users. The skilled Tadoma users must receive intensive and long-term training before they become successful users. Another reason is not every child has the same tactile sense. Therefore, they may have different reception in using Tadoma (Reed, n.d).

The result of this communication is many deaf students understand in several words and sentences in English classroom. Based on the findings, the deaf students are able to pronounce words where it has the same pronunciation way in Bahasa Indonesia. For example the words shopping, internet, soup, and pen (datum A4, A5, A6, A12). The deaf students do not find difficult as long as they are familiar with the words. For example, the words good morning, what's your name, numbers, always, do, and friend (datum A1, A2, A7, A9, A10, A11). Regardless the words have one or more syllables. However, mono-syllable is more difficult for lip-reading than many syllables (Bruhn, 1915).

In case of understanding vocabularies, the deaf students understand the words or phrases that are repeated in each meeting. For example, good morning, what's your name, and some numbers (datum A1, A2, A7). They also understand several vocabularies which familiar for them. For example, fresh milk, carrot, eggs and pen, pencil (datum A8, A12). However, these words or phrases have syllables which no more than four syllables.

Not all of these communication methods are used during peers' conversation. The deaf students use Bahasa Isyarat Indonesia (Indonesian Sign Language) or BISINDO and lip-reading to communicate with their peers. Hearing people can speak with only use lip-reading with the deaf students. However, the speaker must speak the language that the deaf students understand. For instance, Bahasa Indonesia.

Based on those findings, sign language is the best option for deaf students as their first language. This language is supposed to be taught to deaf children regardless they receive cochlear implants or not (Mellon et al., 2015). In the early 1990, many researchers suggest that the use of cochlear implants for deaf children should be at the age of two years and in 2000 cochlear implant can be used by deaf children at the age of 12 months old (Humphries, et al., 2014). During the time before the deaf children wear the cochlear implants, this critical age must be filled with sign language as their first language.

However, not all hearing people understand how to sign. This barrier makes the deaf students feel difficult in hearing society. Therefore, lip-reading is used to communicate as the addition communication method instead of sign language. Some deaf students understand what the hearing people say by only watch their lips movement. The speaker must use the language that is understood by the deaf students and avoid similar words.

Even deaf students understand lip-reading in Bahasa Indonesia, in this case, using lip-reading in foreign class is very difficult to be applied. Regardless they use hearing aids or not, English is a new language for them. Using lip-reading in understanding foreign language such English is very difficult for deaf students. They understand half of the speaker's say while the rest is guessing (Doležalova, 2013).

Sign language and lip-reading are not sufficient for deaf students. In foreign class, it is very hard to make the deaf students understand particular material with only using sign language and lip-reading. This problem is not only because the students have hearing problem, but also the teacher takes an important role for students' development. Regular teachers are not sufficient enough to teach deaf students even they are able to sign. They must receive special training in teaching deaf students in order to know what the student needs (Domagała-Zyśk, 2015).

Sending deaf students in mainstream school is not a good choice in case of learning foreign language. Since they have many hearing peers, it is difficult to follow the class' conversation. For deaf students, attending this kind of school in understanding the conversation is too fast for them. The other problem is every student has different pronunciation (Doležalova, 2013).

Learning foreign language for deaf students is not an easy task. They already feel difficult in learning their first and second language, those are sign language and Bahasa Indonesia. Since both languages, Bahasa Indonesia and English are very different in case of modality, the deaf students were confused to pronounce or sign the words. In teaching deaf students, unfamiliar words, words look visually similar in print, and multi-syllabic words must be pronounced. The teacher also shows words which share the same sign such as technique, technology and technical (Gustafson, 2008).

B. Deaf Students' Difficulties in Communicating Using Lip-reading

The result of the language difference, English and Bahasa Indonesia, makes the deaf students have several difficulties in learning English as foreign language. Based on the findings, there are two kinds of difficulties faced by deaf students. Those are pronouncing words. For example pronouncing study, eat, rice, house, sometimes, you, usually, up, and comfortable (datum D1, D2, D3, D5, D6, D8, D9, D13, D14) and understanding the meaning of vocabularies. For example changing positive into interrogative sentences, breakfast, semester, verb phrases such take a bath, grammatical

order such sweep the floor of the class, ruler, adjectives such clean, and sharpener (datum D4, D7, D10, D11, D12, D15, D16, D17). These two difficulties are mostly occurred in English classroom. In learning foreign language, deaf students often face several barriers such as unknown vocabulary, difficulty in pronunciation, oral comprehension, and so on (Moritz, 2016).

In case of understanding vocabularies, the deaf students are mostly found difficult in noun. For example the words eat, rice, house, breakfast, semester, ruler and sharpener (datum D2, D3, D5, D7, D10, D15, D17). They do not understand at all the meaning of those words in Bahasa Indonesia. Those words are not familiar for the deaf students and rarely used in each meeting or rarely used in daily life.

In case of pronouncing words, the deaf students have the same difficulties in mono-syllabic and many syllables words. They cannot lip-read several words that have invisible lips movement. They are difficult to recognize what the teacher's said. Even the teacher writes the words or phrases on the whiteboard, the deaf students still cannot pronounce correctly. For example, study, eat, rice, house, sometimes, you, usually, up, and comfortable (datum D1, D2, D3, D5, D6, D8, D9, D13, D14).

Even the deaf students cannot lip-reading in English, they understand lip-reading in Bahasa Indonesia. However, the speaker cannot speak as they speak with hearing students. The speaker must pay attention at several rules to speak without sign language to deaf students. The first rule is to speak slowly. It is because to make the deaf students can 'catch' each words and sentences that the speaker wants to say. The second rule is open the mouth widely. The speaker does not need to open the mouth too wide or too narrow. It is because the deaf students recognize the lips movement of the speaker. The last rule is avoiding similar words in case of pronunciation. The example of this rule in Bahasa Indonesia is "susah" and "suka". The speaker should avoid these words and change into another word with the same meaning but different pronunciation.

Regardless the deaf students use lip-reading or another communication technique, learning foreign language is a difficult task whether for the deaf students or the teacher. In Czech Republic, deaf students not only learn inside the class. Every year, the deaf students are learning English in The United States for three weeks. The aim of this outdoor class is to make the deaf students understand the native speaker and the origin of English itself (Doležalova, 2013).

Another method that is used in teaching deaf students is class' condition. Since deaf students use their visual as their main communication device, the teacher arranges the desk into circle form so the deaf students are easy to pay attention on the speaker. Both teacher and deaf students must follow the rule in conversation in the class such as speak clearly, face directed to the peers or teacher, and avoid standing behind the window (Domagala-Zyšk, 2015).

Using picture in explaining vocabulary to deaf students is also a good choice since they use their visual as the main communication device. In each meeting, the deaf students must learn new vocabularies. Memorizing vocabularies using picture as the teaching device has better result than not using picture at all. Deaf students who learn vocabularies with picture have better performance than deaf students who do not use picture as learning device (Birinci, 2014).

In Norway, the teacher encourages the deaf students to learn foreign language by using foreign sign language. This method makes the deaf students confidence and believed that they have ability as hearing students do. Similar with studying in Czech Republic, sending the deaf students abroad are also has advantages to boost their language skill (Pritchard, 2013).

However, those methods do not always suitable for some deaf students. Therefore, teacher of deaf students must active and always looking for new material to enhance deaf students' comprehension in the class. Teacher for deaf students also need exchange ideas and guidance from other teacher to enrich their skill in teaching deaf students (Dotter, 2008).

Teaching deaf students using lip-reading is very difficult and not sufficient enough. Since their Bahasa Indonesia and English are very different languages, the deaf students feel difficult in pronouncing and understanding the vocabularies (datum D1-D17). The reason is clear because many words in English are different in pronunciation with the written form. This condition is worse if the teacher is only using lip-reading as the communication method. The deaf students do not understand the unfamiliar words, invisible letters, and the mono-syllabic words (Bruhn, 1915).

VI. CONCLUSION

Deaf students use several communication methods in communicating with the teacher and their peers. Those communication methods are sign language, lip-reading, finger-spelling, and Tadoma. Sign language is mostly used during the class while lip-reading and finger-spelling are used as the addition for sign language. Lip-reading is rarely used because the deaf students are difficult to understand English in lip-reading. However, they can understand lip-reading if the speaker uses Bahasa Indonesia. Tadoma is rarely used and the teacher uses this method only for pronouncing words.

In using those communication methods, makes the deaf students have several abilities and difficulties in learning English as the foreign language. The abilities are deaf students can pronounce familiar words, answering question that is repeated in each meeting, and understand several familiar vocabularies. However, the deaf students have more difficulties in learning English using lip-reading. Those are pronouncing words and understanding vocabularies. Most of the deaf students find difficult in pronouncing words in English. They tend to pronounce the word as in pronouncing word in Bahasa Indonesia. In understanding vocabularies, the deaf students mostly do not understand in noun words.

Based on this research, there are several recommendations which might be applied. For hearing parents of deaf students, choosing school with trained and skilled teacher is very important. If possible, giving the deaf students sufficient technology that can boost their language skill will be very beneficial. For teacher of deaf students who teaches English as foreign language, the deaf students must have contact with native speaker to improve their pronunciation skill and using picture in teaching vocabularies is a good option. The last is for the next researcher, it would be better if the next research analyze the communication of deaf students in inclusion school where hearing students are in the same class with the deaf students.

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The Benefits of Nature-based Writing for English Language Learners

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Abstract—This paper explores the value of ecopedagogies and ecojustice education in an increasingly nature-deficit and attention-directed world, and does so through the lens of place-based education. More specifically, this paper explores the positive impact nature-based writing in the Department of English Language Learning at Utah Valley University (UVU) has on English language learners (ELLs). The ecopedagogical program at UVU includes multiple opportunities for conducting environmental/economic research and writing in several relevant genres, but this paper primarily focuses on qualitative data retrieved from semester-long Nature Journals and a Wilderness Writing Workshop held during a four-day department-sponsored excursion to Capitol Reef National Park in south-central Utah in the United States. The benefits of nature-based writing include greater engagement and increased desire to write, improved vocabulary and language skills, more poetic writing, less reported stress, and a greater sense of connection to all other living beings. As added benefit, English language learners at UVU have also had opportunities to participate in civic-minded conferences, have been interviewed with the author on public radio, and are expected to have work published in an upcoming anthology.

Index Terms—nature-deficit disorder, ecopedagogies, ecojustice, biophilia, place-based education, soft fascination, nature-based writing, ecospirituality

I. INTRODUCTION

When reflecting on his experience in the Wilderness Writing Workshop¹, which the author conducted on a four-day school trip to Capitol Reef National Park, one South Korean student said in all sincerity that he really *wanted* to express himself in writing, specifically about his experience and how spending that time interacting with nature had impacted him personally.

For English language learners, learning to write is a necessity and not often an experience many look forward to, which makes the above story even more remarkable. However, studies show that interacting with and writing about nature have a variety of positive effects on students. Place-based writing and ecopedagogies, or pedagogies that help connect students to the natural world, may help provide additional benefits. In an increasingly nature-deficit world, then, what role does nature-based writing hold for English language learners? What are the benefits for L2 writers?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In his groundbreaking book, *Last child in the woods: Saving our children from nature-deficit disorder*, Richard Louv (2005) explores “the increasing divide between the young and the natural world, and the environmental, social, psychological, and spiritual implications of that change” (p. 2) and argues that in order to be healthy, creative, and in tune with the full use of their senses, children and adults need direct contact with nature. His work pivots around the question, what would it be like if nature permeated our lives in the same way technology does?

Evidence demonstrates a growing disconnect between humans in the technologically driven world and the natural world. Children and adults are increasingly sedentary and “plugged in,” and the natural world is increasingly being exploited for economic profit. Yet studies repeatedly confirm the cognitive and health benefits of interacting with nature for both young and old. These benefits include lower risk of depression (Kaplan & Berman, 2010; Louv, 2011), less stress (Williams, 2016), less fatigue (Louv, 2011), increased soft fascination and reflection (Kaplan & Berman, 2010), increased ability to perceive connections, (Louv, 2011), increased attention and mental acuity (Kaplan, Bardwell, & Slakter, 1993; Louv, 2011; Williams, 2016), restorative cognitive function (Williams, 2016; Louv, 2011; Kaplan & Berman, 2010; Berman, Jonides, & Kaplan, 2008; Kaplan, Bardwell, & Slakter, 1993), and a greater sense of wellbeing and optimism (Marselle, Irvine, and Warber, 2014). Additionally, interacting with nature can also stimulate creativity and offer inspiration, as reported at a Danish outdoor kindergarten, where 58 percent of children created new games, as opposed to only 16 percent of kindergarteners inside (Louv, 2011).

A. *Ecopedagogies and Ecojustice*

¹ Term borrowed from McMurtrey, A. (Presenter). (1995, March). Paper presented at 45th Annual TESOL Convention: *The world as classroom: Using excursions in intensive CBI courses*. New Orleans, LA.

Defined by Misiaszek (2011) as “transformative environmental education which critically and dialectically deconstructs how social conflicts and environmental (socio-environmental) devastation are connected,” ecopedagogies seek to connect students with nature through educational models of “social justice and radical transformation” (abstract, p. 1). Based on the ideas of philosopher Paulo Freire and an education ethic promoting social justice, sustainability, and ecoliteracy, ecopedagogies emerged in the early nineties in Latin America in an attempt to assuage an ever-growing global ecological predicament. While having roots — pun intended — in leftist political movements, ecopedagogies are simply pedagogies that help students connect to the surrounding natural world by experiencing it, thinking about it, and understanding it in ecological ways (Birrell, Gray, & Preece, 2013). They are designed to help transform what students notice and are aware of, and how they view and interact with the natural world.

Ecopedagogies naturally help students develop a sense of ecojustice, which refers to ecology, justice, fairness, the common good, and meeting the needs of all members of society. Ecojustice also recognizes the rights of other creatures and advocates that natural systems be respected and considered in decisions. Concerned with sustainability for all, ecojustice sees humans as an integral part of the “larger living fabric of all that is” (Gibson, 2004, p. 24).

In ecopedagogies or ecojustice education, teachers work to make places, people, living creatures, and ecosystems relevant in order to help students recognize all levels of diversity within living systems and communities, especially within local contexts, and develop a sense of “place consciousness” (Gruenewald & Smith, 2008; Lowenstein, Martusewicz, & Voelker, 2010).

Ecopedagogies are beneficial in several ways. For example, they increase or awaken students’ sense of what E. O. Wilson termed *biophilia* (as reported in Louv, 2011, p. 53), or having a sense of being connected to other living species, and they increase awareness of the connectivity of themselves to nature. Ecopedagogies also enhance students’ creativity, develop a sense of responsibility to the Earth’s environment and peoples, and help students see the direct impact of human interaction in order to take responsibility for their own impact (Birrell, Gray, & Preece, 2012). All of these educational outcomes together have the potential for creating a serious shift in how humans interact with, use, abuse, or manage natural resources.

B. Place-based Education

Place-based, or *place-conscious*, education, purposefully sets teaching and learning in a particular “pedagogically fruitful” location, and acts to connect the global to the local since having a sense of place is so often directly linked to one’s cultural, physical, or emotional identity (Semken & Brandt, 2010). Places, argue Semken and Brandt (2010),

are where we sense and connect to our natural and cultural surroundings, and sense of place is a construct that usefully describes this connection. Place-based education...is highly relevant to environmental ethics, conservation, ecological integrity, and cultural sustainability, because all of these are also situated in places. (p. 289)

Semken and Brandt (2010) also recommend that teachers acknowledge and expertly “leverage” the senses of places students bring with them. This is particularly important for teachers of English Language Learners (ELLs) to do. For example, a student from the jungles of Ecuador, where big oil companies have control over resources and cause devastating ecological and economic damage to the surrounding native communities, and a student from the Arabian peninsula, where oil exportations drive and sustain the economy, may differ in their environmental ethics, their ideas about ecological integrity and cultural sustainability, and their approach to conservation due to their individual identities tied to place (Semken & Brandt, 2010).

Ecological place-based education is characterized in several distinct ways: 1) it emerges from the specific features of a place; 2) it is multidisciplinary; 3) it is inherently based on experience and observation; 4) the motivation for learning goes beyond just “earning”; and 5) it helps connect place, self, and community (Gruenewald, 2003). Pedagogies like this are crucial in order to directly connect education to the health and well being of people and the places where they live. For adult English language learners, this type of education can be especially beneficial because these learners are often coming from one place to another with intact identities tied to both places.

C. Attention

Without interaction with nature, however, people’s abilities can be diminished. Louv (2011) cautions: “We cannot protect something we do not love, we cannot love what we do not know, and we cannot know what we do not see. Or hear. Or sense” (p. 104). Several military studies have demonstrated that soldiers who are far better at being able to notice bombs in the field, or “bomb-spotters,” have grown up “outside the electronic bubble” and in direct rural contact with nature or in urban often-gang-ruled neighborhoods where observing territories is crucial because they have more highly developed powers of observation and discernment (Louv, 2011, p. 17). Soldiers who have grown up playing video games or without much contact with the outside world, “lacked the ability to see nuances...that combination of depth perception, peripheral vision, and instinct, if you will, to see what was out of place,” the kind of observation that might tip one off to a road-side bomb (Louv, 2011, p. 17). These gamers perceived their view through a Humvee windshield like a computer screen, rather than one part of the complete environment.

Likewise, diminished skills due to a lack of interaction with nature may prove to be doubly disadvantageous for the general public: without it, we may *literally* not be able to recognize nature’s wonder or need.

The powers of observation of ELLs may also be somewhat culturally dependent. Depending on where they are coming from, many students may have abundant experience with digital media and very little with the natural world, and their powers of observation in other circumstances may be diminished.

In discussing diminished powers of observation, Kaplan and Berman (2010) report on two types of attention. *Involuntary attention* is a kind of “automatically activated” interest in strange, moving, or bright things — like seeing an animal in the wild. *Voluntary attention*, also referred to as *directed attention*, in contrast, is the kind of goal-oriented attention that requires quite a bit of effort and is not automatic (p. 46). Kaplan and Berman (2010) argue that one’s directed attention is often elicited with far more demand than it is capable of. Some refer to this condition as *directed attention fatigue* (Kaplan, Bardwell, & Slakter, 1993); others refer to the same sort of condition as *continuous partial attention*, or not wanting to miss anything and paying partial attention to many things continuously, which results in a sense of being “always-on, anywhere, anytime...[and experiencing] an artificial sense of constant crisis” (Stone, 2002-2010). While these two conditions may be distinct in a couple of ways, the impact of them is the same: the ability to fully focus is lost, and this diminished attention manifests itself in friendships, relationships, and the relationship to one’s surroundings.

Because the demands on the directed attention of English language learners are, at times, enormous, their ability to focus is often shortened or diminished, and their motivation for learning or practicing language is reduced. As Crossley and McNamara (2011) explain, ELLs experience the frequent challenge of not having automatized lower-level writing skills like L1 writers have, who pay little conscious attention to lexical and syntactic decisions and can therefore allocate far more focus to higher-level skills like organization. Having to pay far more attention to lower-level strategies may influence students’ metacognition and experience with writing in the past, which may, obviously, affect writing quality because of fewer options in language (Crossley and McNamara, 2011).

In the case of directed attention fatigue in English language learners, an intervention must be made in order to help give them a chance to effectively rest their directed attention so they can learn more successfully and enjoyably.

One approach is the Attention Restoration Theory (ART), built on the premise that directed attention needs to be allowed to rest through interaction with nature (Kaplan & Berman, 2010). “The Kaplans [environmental psychologists Rachel and Stephen],” explains Louv (2011),

hypothesize that the best antidote to such fatigue, which is brought on by too much directed attention, is involuntary attention, what they call “fascination,” which occurs when we are in an environment that fulfills certain criteria: the setting must transport the person away from their day-to-day routine, provide a sense of fascination, a feeling of extent (enough available space to allow exploration), and some compatibility with a person’s expectations for the environment being explored. Furthermore, they have found that the natural world is a particularly effective place for the human brain to overcome mental fatigue, to be restored. (p. 28)

This idea of fascination is delineated into two distinguishable types: *soft fascination*, like the kind of attention captured by a garden, landscape, sunset, or painting, and *hard fascination*, the kind of attention captured by watching violence, competitive sports, or sex (Kaplan & Berman, 2010). Soft fascination is the kind of attention that is most restful because it allows for reflective thought in a way that hard fascination does not. Kaplan and Berman (2010) imply a connection between soft fascination and the therapeutic aspects of writing.

III. METHODOLOGY

Blending Content-based Instruction (CBI), Project-based Learning (PBL), and a genre-based approach to writing to explore issues of sustainability, resource management, and ecojustice, the upper-level ecopedagogical English language learning program at Utah Valley University (UVU) gives students from diverse ethnic and linguistic backgrounds an opportunity to engage in identifying serious problems within a variety of ecosystems, analyzing the causes and effects of these problems, and spend time in nature responding through writing. The program includes research projects about environmental/economic issues including a Nature Journal, an oral presentation, a public awareness poster, and a researched civic report. It culminates in a four-day excursion to UVU’s field station in Capitol Reef National Park for intensive language application and a wilderness experience, including a Wilderness Writing Workshop conducted by the author. This combined work comprises significant time writing about students’ observations in and about nature in a synthesis of both analytical and subjective ways — and, with any luck, in a relaxed state of soft fascination.

Samples from the Nature Journals and the Wilderness Writing Workshop will be the main focus of this paper.

A. *Nature Journals*

Students are given Nature Journals to work on throughout the semester by spending 30 minutes observing and writing in a place of their choice. Several entries have specific prompts to respond to while others allow for freewriting (see Appendix A).

In order to give students a greater opportunity to rest their directed attention (Kaplan & Berman, 2010) dependence on technology, most entries are to be handwritten in notebooks created by the instructor. These notebooks with the appropriate prompts are given to students who may also include drawings or other artwork, if desired. The location for nature journaling chosen by students need to be specific: the setting needs to be different from students’ day-to-day routine; it needs to have a certain level of interest; there must be space and other things to explore; and it needs to be a

place that can fulfill the expectations of the person exploring (Louv, 2011). One additional criterion is that the setting has few other human distractions.

B. Wilderness Writing Workshop

During the excursion to Capitol Reef National Park and using the observational skills they have been developing all semester, English language learners are asked to synthesize the content they have been studying with their personal experience and observations on the trip through writing, specifically in response to this prompt from Terry Tempest Williams' (1994) *An Unspoken Hunger*:

An echo is a sound wave that bounces back, or is reflected from, a large hard surface like the face of a cliff, or the flanks of a mountain, or the interior of a cave. To hear an echo, one must be at least seventeen meters or fifty-six feet away from the reflecting surface.

Echos are real—not imaginary.

We call out — and the land calls back. It is our interaction with the ecosystem; the Echo System.

We understand it intellectually.

We respond to it emotionally — joyously.

...We call to the land — and the land calls back.

Echo System. (pp. 82, 87)

Students are then given several opportunities to spread out and write: *in situ* while hiking on a trail; at the Capitol Reef Field Station where they stay; and after returning home to complete, edit, and polish their work. Semester after semester, spending time in a stunning wilderness area like Capitol Reef National Park markedly changes the way students perceive and experience the natural world and the way they engage in the writing process. When the schedule permits during the trip, participants are given an opportunity to share their writing with others. Later at home, the author compiles students' written work with images from the trip (and video and audio for ebook format) into a booklet for all participants to enjoy (see Appendix B; additional examples may be viewed by contacting the author). These materials created from students' writing act as literary souvenirs and help boost students' confidence in their English writing skills.

IV. THE FINDINGS

Several years of qualitative research demonstrate a multitude of benefits for English language learners, as seen in the examples below. What emerges from students' nature-based writing includes:

- Increased motivation and language skill, particularly in writing
- Greater use of vocabulary
- More descriptive, even poetic, language
- Less reported stress
- Smaller linguistic gap between L1 and L2
- Common themes like relaxation and “ecospirituality” (Goulah, 2011).

Linguistically and affectively, ELL students clearly benefit from nature-based writing. Their engagement and sense of place provide powerful motivation and a relevancy to utilize the language skills they have and develop them further in order to say what it is they want to say whether that includes using vocabulary from the content or finding ways to say in English what they already know in their L1. Students report feeling less stressed and more inspired by the experience, but their writing also shows them taking more risks in language by using more poetic language and structures, which indicates a more flexible, investigative, and sometimes even playful approach to using language. By all indications, the gap between L1 and L2 narrows — one student even reported the joy of being able to think in English instead of relying on translating from L1.

Most powerfully and harking back to a sense of *biophilia*, or a sense of connection to all living things, ecospirituality (Goulah, 2011) is consistently the most common theme woven throughout students' writing. Ecospirituality involves three main notions: understanding oneself as a member of different layers of community (the universe, the earth, animals, humans); something O'Sullivan (1999, as quoted in Goulah) refers to as “deep interiority... which allows us to appreciate deep interiority equally in all creation”; and the valuing of “diversity in secular and non-secular spiritual practices and beliefs... [that] cultivate knowledge about and appreciation for diversity of spiritual expressions” (p. 30). As seen throughout their writing, the majority of students experience these moments of awareness and connection — of realizing their place in the universe or contemplating the big questions of life; of describing being tutored by the earth, stars, plants, or animals; of reflecting on their lives and how to live them better; of being moved in their deep interiorities by the intelligence and power of the natural world and wanting to nurture it; and of recognizing and appreciating the connected onion-like rings of their community. The experience and sense of ecospirituality is evident throughout students' written experience but always preceded by and attributed to meaningful interaction with nature.

V. STUDENT WRITING EXAMPLES

The examples below primarily include entries from Nature Journals, the Wilderness Writing Workshop, and questionnaires, but they are additionally informed by students' nature-based work in presentations, posters, and research papers. As expected, there are some lexical and syntactic errors throughout the writing because students are still relying on their L1 to fill in the linguistic gaps of L2 (Crossley & McNamara, 2011). However, most written entries demonstrate a closing gap and a higher level of vocabulary, even poetic language, that is detailed, insightful, heartwarming, and even occasionally amusing.

- "...In front of me, there is the whole history of millions of Earth years. It is impressive that in one place I can see different layers of land created a long, long time ago. Millions of years! It looks so steady and powerful, but at the same time the waterpockets make it look weak and fragile. The place is covered in silence, and only the strong wind sometimes threatens to ruin the quiet.

"Standing on the 200-million-year-old rock inspires me and makes me wonder about the future because I am one of the creatures who lives on this planet now. I am the next layer. I am the new generation that can make a difference on the planet, and all the previous layers are like grandpas for the younger ones. They carry history, wisdom, experience, failures, and successes. They help us understand the world before our appearance on the planet. They teach us how to appreciate simple things and fill our lives with peace and love.

"Long after this generation is gone, what is the Earth going to look like in 200 million years? Here I can see that time flows really slowly: a thin layer of cliff is a long period of time. After seeing the variety of layers and the immense contrast between them, sand lithification, and thousand-year-old cryptobiotic microorganisms, nothing seems impossible! I feel young and am inspired and ready to be part of the great future :)"

- "...The land is calling me to forget my bad emotions, the bad feelings that I am hiding inside somewhere in my body. It seems surreal because even in the daylight, the light seems to emanate from the ground through the water, glowingly flowing, and reaching all my sensation. The sound that the water is releasing acts like a refresher to my brain, making me feel new. Actually, it is sunny, and it is incredible because my body no longer hurts being on that warm rock. Generally, I do not like the sun because it hurts, but here my body is more exhilarated and comfortable, and it wants me to stay longer.

"Nature is a place where I can relax my body. Nature is what my body is seeking for. Nature is everything that surrounds humans. Nature is like a mother giving life to a baby. Humans cannot live without nature because it is the source of how we live. We live by breathing the air, drinking water, and eating foods provided by the environment. All this innocent nature exists, and staying around it is making my body magnetized to the ground.

"...Here, in this nature, I no longer envy modernity. In this natural world it is different. I do not want more but less."

- "...I enjoy...nature now, and I can look around and can see how beautiful the world [is]. I have no rush to live, and I love when you [Kiri] tell us to take a breath. I am relaxed. I feel free. I feel alive. I feel in connection with nature. Yeah, it's changed [desire to write]...you feel more concentrated, like your feelings wake up to write."

- "Here is a land of rest.

"...In a moment, I do not hear anything, but this "anything" does not mean "nothing," it is a muted song from trees, cryptobiotic soil, sand, plants, lichen on rocks and the waterpocket fold.

"...The difference between here and the city is 'awareness,' 'true love,' 'enormity.' Awareness because we know who and where we are. True love because we cannot anymore fool ourselves here and lie to nature. Enormity not because of its magnitude but because of its richness, power, and value. Everything here is natural, and nobody can play the fool. Here, I can no longer be unsatisfied by who I am because my soul belongs to the ground.

"I am falling in love with this environment...I envy these trees and stumps..."

"I guess it is true that when you are under the sun, you want the cold shadow, and when you have the cold shadow, you want the sun. ...Here, in this nature, I no longer envy modernity. In this natural world it is different. I do not want more but less.

"The trail here intrigues me and seduces me to go deeper like a baby in front of candy. At first glance, the volcanic rocks look simple like the regular rocks, but through my connections with nature I realize they are not just beautiful, but special, atypical, and incredible.

"Everyone who can understand nature knows the true meaning of life.

"Here is a natural world."

- "I [was] impressed..., so that made me want to write something. It was easy to write...because I love that."

- "When I saw some pretty view or heard nature sounds, I can open my thinking.... Inspired. That's how I feel."

- "When we were in Capitol Reef looking at the sky, our minds explode[d] with imagination."

- "I feel more engaged and interested in writing in English."

- "I've got new thoughts and new vocabulary."

- "...between these trees, I feel safe."

- "I also realized why the sand is so much softer than other types of ground: because the wall of sand fell to the ground."

- "We had to help each other to cross the valley hand in hand."

- “I remember listening to the wind breaking on the rocks, and the purity of it made me think about the damage that we are causing to our own home. If we could have the same quality of air and the calm of this place everywhere in the world, it would be different.”

- “While I was hiking, my two little eyes were looking around all the time; I looked 360 degrees around me, no more screen watching. It was a few days that I live without social network and I loved it! I could be with the nature and with my classmates; we talked and knew more about each other. And one thing that I like the most...when we were eating dinner no phone playing like we used to...”

- “Oddly enough, I always felt less tired after hiking.”

- [About the Milky Way] “It looked like when you made a way with salt in a black carpet...I saw a galaxy, it looked like millions of tiny luminous points...stars were fireflies that got stuck...”

- “The sky is super freaking blue. When you see the sky, you want to swim, drink, walk, or just stay in it forever.”

- “The sky was a mixture of dark midnight blues and purples. The stars were sparkling and gorgeous. They decorated the sky magnificently.”

- “The million stars formed a Milky Way that look[ed] like a long chiffon fluttering on the dark night sky.”

- “That place has power to refill your soul.”

- “Now we have made a stop in a phenomenal place only to write, to express our emotions based in some questions that our teacher left us, but with or without the questions my mind is flying, imagining all the stories that this place keeps. ‘If the rocks could speak,’ I think, ‘how much more could we learn and understand?’ If I close my eyes I have the strong sensation of being at the beach. The sun is so warm, the wind, the salty smell and flavor, the sand. Every one of the things mentioned are the components of the beach except when I open the eyes and I see a desert, I have the sensation that a long time ago this place was an ocean, and only God knows the reasons the water gone. This is really awesome. ...Without a doubt, life here is not easy, especially as the need of an element so appreciated as water. Every plant, rock, animal looks designed for protection...in my mind appears another idea as ‘Nature is very smart,’ because they try to protect themselves and not be the food for another species. I was lucky to see some animals here such as birds, a black and white caterpillar, red ants, goats, some deer, and a chipmunk. I know that there are a lot of animals here, but maybe the place is so humongous that it is not easy to see them. I can only say now that I am happy to be here. I feel like part of a big book that tells the story of ancient people, and it is better to be alone with myself, far away from technology, noise, worries and all the other things that are part of our lives.”

- “While I was hiking, I used my five senses for feeling nature. First of all, I could smell the sun and sand. Winter was coming, but this desert let me feel summer air. Second, I saw only one little purple flower in the desert. Since I entered the desert, I saw just orange, brown, and white, which are the colors of the sand, so the flower looked very vivid and bright to me. When I saw it, I felt I found something special. Next, I heard a bee’s humming. I usually do not like these sounds because I think the bee will try to attack me. However, I did not feel any fear this time; I just felt their lives. Their humming is same as our breathing, so I did not need to feel fear since I changed my mind. Also, I heard ‘quiet.’ I could feel this sound, especially when students were talking. I could hear clearly what they were talking about. In my life, everything is filled with a lot of noise pollution, so this moment was the most quiet moment in my life. When I heard quiet, and I was quiet, I realized that I was part of nature at that time. Finally, I saw real adaptation plant during hiking. The plant was Utah Juniper which has white nuts and white stem. At first, I did not know why it was white, but it was one kind of adaptation. The white color is for protecting from strong sunshine. Even if the plant cannot move like us, I can feel that they really want to live there, so they change themselves. I was amazed to this plant’s power. It looked weaker than a human, but it can adapt in ways humans cannot do.”

- “...[Like an echo,] you get what you give, so when you are kind to a person this person will be kind with you. Likewise, this principle works for the relation between humans and nature; if people show kindness to the nature, nature will be in balance. However, if we destroy the ecosystem...nature is going to destroy us.”

- “I think that they [birds] are happy here, free of [the] haunt [of] man.”

- “I am really grateful for this trip, really grateful, because it is the first time that I realized the importance of being connected with the environment. I could live and understand our world differently, now I feel I am more aware about taking care of nature and trying to avoid every type of pollution, because the Earth is our home, and it is the house that we are going to leave for our next generation.”

- “I love it! Before I did this homework, I didn’t want to do, but I felt positive feeling since I entered nature.”

- “I felt peace, energy, and happiness. I noticed more things around me that inspired me to write about [what] my senses feel.”

- “I began to think about stories that I have ever heard or read to connect them in one idea.”

- “I saw more details that helped me describe the environment.”

- “I feel more engaged and interested in writing in English.”

- “It was really hard but I notice my writing skills improve.”

- “Nature makes us think deeper.”

- “I just want to say I needed more time...”

- “Walking here in this lonely but exciting place, it was a great sensation. I felt things I didn’t think I would be able to feel.... However, this place did its magic.”

VI. DISCUSSION

Observationally as a writing instructor, it is safe to assume that the majority of students entering class every semester — so often as what can only be called “technology junkies” — are not terribly excited to be there. They are likely low in motivation to write and do research because they know — either from experience or from a lack of experience — that writing, especially academic writing, can be challenging. They come from various cultural and literary backgrounds with differing attitudes toward the natural world and the use of written language for reading and writing purposes, and with an understanding of different rhetorical structures for writing. They also come with a variety of educational backgrounds and academic exposure. Stress levels, and therefore affective filters, are often high, and students’ ability to focus can easily disintegrate. More often than not, the majority of English language learners entering writing class reportedly come with a sense of dread at what could be coming. However, students most often experience a fundamental change in academic engagement, opinions, and attitudes, and often go from disliking or feeling stressed about writing to enjoying or even loving it and understanding its potential power. It is evident in the above examples how deeply students are affected by this ecopedagogical connection to place, both in academic and personal ways. Ecologically focused content and direct contact with nature inform students’ approach to environmental issues, as well as help improve their writing skills and *feel* better about the writing process.

Through this nature-based writing, English learners at UVU have also experienced increased opportunity for local civic and academic involvement in several ways.

- English language learners have participated in the annual Conference on Writing for Social Change at UVU where they have an opportunity to share their nature-based research in a poster session for a university-wide audience.

- In honor of Earth Day in April 2017, several students along with the author were interviewed by Tom Williams, host of *Access Utah*, a public radio show (<http://upr.org/post/earth-day-thursdays-access-utah>) about how young people are responding to land and environmental issues through writing (Williams, 2017). Appropriately, the live interview was conducted from the field station at Capitol Reef National Park just as students were participating in the Wilderness Writing Workshop.

- As a result of participating in the Wilderness Writing Workshop during the excursion to Capitol Reef National Park, written work from several students is to be published in an upcoming anthology about Capitol Reef National Park (anticipated in 2019).

Each of these opportunities makes writing more relevant in local and more expansive contexts, and ups the engagement and perceived responsibility students have for their work. Combined with increased awareness and personal insight, opportunities like these create greater engagement in the local community that can be especially important for L2 writers who run the risk of being disengaged and/or isolated while studying English in communities not their own.

VII. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following are ideas for some future implementation and research:

- Per students’ frequent request (like music to a writing teacher’s ears), spend more time in nature and more time writing

- Find additional opportunities to publish student writing

- Increase student participation in local civic-minded and/or environmental issues by having students write advocate letters, letters to the editor, op-ed pieces in campus or local newspapers — this could help connect ELLs to the local context of the broader community, enrich the lives and expand the understanding of other community members, and help ELL students understand the value of their voice

- Encourage students to join local campaigns or organizations dedicated to creating social change

- Create a class blog or website to showcase student research and writing

- Create reading circles in and out of class

- Guide students in not only writing during the workshop but also in compiling, designing, and publishing the book.

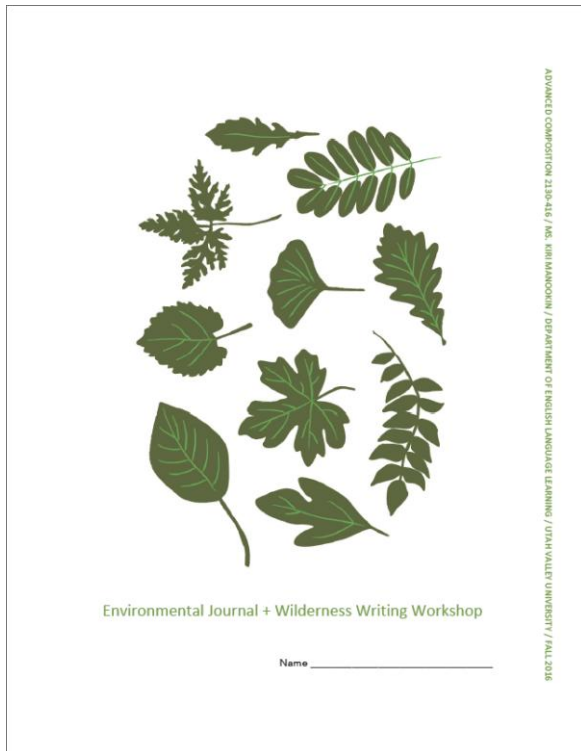
This would take some serious logistical choreography, and may only be appropriate for certain classes of English language learners.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, English language learners benefit greatly from participating in nature-based writing. Students often develop a better, less stressful relationship to writing. They feel more engaged and motivated in their work, experience increased soft fascination and greater awareness, and develop better language skills. Finally, inspired, taught, and humbled by the natural world, they experience a sense of *biophilia* and ecojustice and recognize their connection to and place in the natural world. Simply put, L2 writers benefit both academically and personally, and engage more in writing in English, when interacting with nature. Nature-based writing founded on place-based ecopedagogies can be extremely powerful and engaging, and in many ways, as several students recount, instructors simply need to let that experience work its magic.

APPENDIX A. NATURE JOURNAL

Cover



Introduction Page

For the next few weeks, you will have the opportunity to do some nature journaling by spending some time in nature and writing about it.

Whatever place you choose, it must fulfill the following criteria:

- o It is a place that is different from your daily routine
- o It has a certain level of interest
- o There's space and certain features to explore
- o It is a place you find personally fulfilling in some way
- o It is a place with few other human distractions

Please choose from the following list of preferred settings and report the location on each entry:

- o The waterfall or stream on campus
- o Provo River trail (especially where the trail is near the river)
- o Utah Lake, Deer Creek Reservoir, Provo River, or other nearby body of water
- o Squaw Peak overlook
- o Antelope Island or the Great Salt Lake
- o A garden
- o Hiking trail
- o A natural hot spring
- o Other (approved by your instructor)

Go there on your own at least once a week for 30 minutes to observe and write. The exact days and times you go are up to you and your schedule, but all of the entries need to be completed—one per time spent outside. There are a total of seven (7) entries. Some of the entries have prompts you will respond to, so read carefully; others ask you to do some freewriting. As this is a journal, you are welcome to write about your experience, draw pictures, include quotes, and paste in other types of related materials, if you would like. Except when prompted in class, entries can be completed in any order you choose or feel inspired to do.

Be diligent, be creative, and enjoy the process!



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Writing Prompts

Prompt: Pay attention to how you feel being in nature. Describe your feelings. Do you notice an emotional response? Have you ever had an emotional response to interacting with nature? Explain in detail.

Prompt: “Silence is not the absence of something, but the presence of everything.” –Gordon Hempton, Founder of One Square Inch of Silence

(Taken from the website <http://onesquareinch.org/>):

“One Square Inch of Silence is very possibly the quietest place in the United States. It is an independent research project located in the Hoh Rain Forest of Olympic National Park, which is one of the most pristine, untouched, and ecologically diverse environments in the United States. If nothing is done to preserve and protect this quiet place from human noise intrusions, natural quiet may be non-existent in our world in the next 10 years. Silence is a part of our human nature, which can no longer be heard by most people. Close your eyes and listen for only a few seconds to the world you live in, and you will hear this lack of true quiet, of silence. Refrigerators, air conditioning systems, and airplanes are a few of the things that have become part of the ambient sound and prevent us from listening to the natural sounds of our environment. It is our birthright to listen, quietly and undisturbed, to the natural environment and take whatever meanings we may from it. By listening to natural silence, we feel connected to the land, to our evolutionary past, and to ourselves. One Square Inch of Silence is in danger, unprotected by policies of the National Park Service, or supported by adequate laws. Our hope is that by listening to natural silence, it will help people to become true listeners to their environment, and help us protect one of the most important and endangered resources on the planet, silence.”

Go to any place of your choice, but especially one where you can really focus on one square meter of ground. Watch, look — *really* look — observe, listen, touch, feel, and study that one square meter for your whole practice and write about your experience.

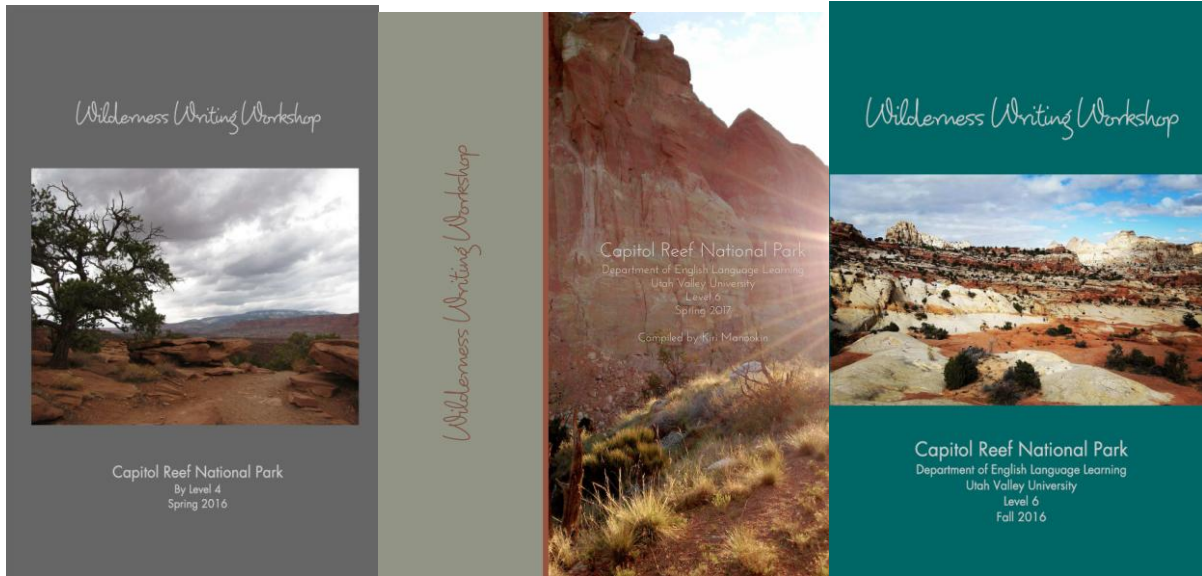
Prompt: “The term *plant blindness* was coined by James Wandersee, of Louisiana State University, and Elisabeth E. Schussler of Southeastern Natural Sciences Academy. In an article for *Plant Science Bulletin* (published quarterly by the Botanical Society of America), they define plant blindness forthrightly, as ‘the inability to see or notice the plants in one’s own environment.’...One of the reasons may be the inherent constraints of our visual information processing systems. ‘It seems that visual consciousness is like a spotlight, not a floodlight,’ they write” (Louv, 2011, pp. 105-106, original italics).

Now that you have been spending time outside in nature, have you become aware of any plant blindness on your part, or any change in your ability to see and notice things in your environment? What do you think is meant by the statement, “It seems that visual consciousness is like a spotlight, not a floodlight”? What does that mean for you?

Prompt: What is an echo? Have you ever heard one? If so, where? Have you ever created one yourself? If so, explain. If not, explain what you understand about echoes and how they work. Write as much detail as you can.

APPENDIX B. WILDERNESS WRITING WORKSHOP

Booklet Cover Examples



(Center book is also available as a multimedia ebook)

Introduction Page

"Sleeping rainbow"



Wilderness Writing Workshop

The following essays were written during a Wilderness Writing Workshop held on an overnight school trip to Capitol Reef National Park in southeastern Utah. The park's "main claim to fame," as Chip Ward (1999) writes in *Canaries on the Rim*, is its colorful geology especially the multicolored layers of rock... Spires and domes of white Navajo sandstone sit on top of big broken red walls. Layers of chocolate Moenkopi and pastel mounds of violet, lavender, and gray ash follow beneath. The Navajo name for this phenomenon translates as "sleeping rainbow." (p. 4)

Millions of years of earth history that would otherwise be locked away underground are discernably tangible in this geologic wonderland.

Non-native English-speaking students were asked to write about their experience on the trip and to respond to the following from Terry Tempest Williams' (1994) *An Unspoken Hunger*:

We call out—and the land calls back. It is our interaction with the ecosystem; the Echo System.

We understand it intellectually.

We respond to it emotionally—joyously.

...We call to the land—and the land calls back.

Echo System. (pp. 82, 87)

What follows represents several hours of quiet reflection and writing, plus their own editing. Only the spacing has been altered for formatting purposes.

As their writing instructor, I am delighted by the surprising articulation of thoughts and feelings, and the way that the experience in one way or another personally affects each student. I echo the belief of Williams, that "a connection to place...fuels...writing," and that writing "becomes an act of compassion toward life" (p. 57). Read on, and you will see, as I do, how the new connections formed on this trip between human and earth and the heavens inspired this group of students, and you will sense in them a greater compassion for life.

—Kiri Manookin, Fall 2016

Student Essay/Photo Page Excerpts

Oswaldo Gonzalez Barrera, Mexico

My solution pocket

The instructions were to find a place, a solution pocket, our solution pocket. All my mates went to their own pocket, at the beginning there were 20 of them, and now I just can see ten of them, each of my mates went to find their personal pocket depending on the characteristics of that place. Although we all are human beings, we think in different ways, that is why the nature has a different connection to each of us, a specific place or pocket solution for each of us.

I like mine. I do not know if I really chose it or if it chose me. It is really comfortable and pretty cool. I can lay in my pocket, it is big enough to let me lay and it is high enough to let me appreciate all the other side with facility and also, I am still being in the shadow that protects me from the powerful

beams



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Sometimes the speed of our lives doesn't give us a chance to enjoy living in such a wonderful world. Capitol Reef National Park is one of those places where everything goes slower and faster at the same time. Our school trip there was the most unforgettable, breathtaking, and amazing experience of my first semester here in USA.

181 miles to Capitol Reef flow very fast with interesting conversations, awesome landscapes, wonderful stories, and a big cup of fresh black coffee in my hands. We spent four incredible and unbelievable sunrises and sunsets of our lives in Capitol Reef Field Station. Those five days showed us the value of natural resources and the true cost of our noisy existence in marvelous world. This little journey helped us to build strong connections inside the class and with nature. Here, thanks to an absence of phone signal, I first talked to some of my classmates, and opened up to them from completely new side. We played games together, lived together, ate together, sometimes even shared the bathroom together. We became more than friends; we became an international family. We found two new dads, three moms, one young aunt, and 18 siblings, the best brothers and sisters in the world.

We hiked a lot during that week, and my favorite hike was last one, to the Hickman Bridge. It taught us to work as one team, one organism, to give a hand to each other in the hardest corner, and never leave anybody who needed help.

Nobody knows his or her roads of life, we never know where we'll be tomorrow, but memories about this trip will live with us and warm us up on the rainiest days. I am happy to share such wonderful moments of my life with you, my classmates, my friends, my support.

Iryna Chelepis, Ukraine



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Erick Tshimpe, Democratic Republic of Congo



Personal feeling of wilderness

I am so excited to be here in this National Park called Capitol Reef, which is an amazing place to be. especially because of the fact that I am disconnected from the world. Moreover, it clears my brain and helps me think deeply.

I have had a chance to walk in a few places since arriving in Capitol Reef. I can say that it is such a wonderful Area and calm. There are several things that make me feel good and comfortable like the trees, Rocks, the sounds of coming from water and the birdsong. It is totally different from the world out there.

On the night of April 18, 2017, after being in our class, we went to see the beauty of the sky with all our teachers and also feel the fresh air to night we had such a great time being out at that time of the night. Honestly speaking, I have never seen such a dark night all my life as the one I saw that night. Seriously I can remember of my country where I was able to see stars and the sky to night, but that one was different and it was completely dark they were even no light close by place we stood because we turned off all the light. Something special happened to me that night at Capitol Reef Field Station, I stood outside dorm and started to make wishes for myself and started to ask the heaven to help me realize what I had on my mind; I know it is sounds crazy, but sometimes that thing happen I felt something new inside of me and start to ask for help I taught I was about to become a crazy but not that was just a feeling.

The wilderness is so important for a human even for someone's life. Researchers have proved that most people who spend time in the wilderness have a chance and the opportunity to be connected to nature and to be disconnected from the world. This is especially a good suggestion for students and young people who spend all their time chatting using computer, cellphones or whatever; I use cellphones and computer I know how distracting it is and how it makes your brain

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Photo Page Excerpts

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Old Women and ‘Empty Nest Syndrome’—An Analysis of Mary Gavell’s *The Swing* from the Perspective of Feminism

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Abstract—Mary Gavell’s *The swing* is about an aging mother who suffers from ‘empty nest syndrome’. This paper analyzes the novel from the perspective of feminism, argues that the direct causes of her ‘empty nest syndrome’ are her estranged relationship with her husband, son and friends. And the underlying cause of her ‘empty nest syndrome’ is that she is oppressed in the patriarchal society which restricts her to the role of mother and wife. In the patriarchal society, women rely too much on the relationship with their husband and son for their happiness, and thus lose their real ‘self’, and become invisible. In order to cure the ‘empty nest syndrome’, old women should pull themselves out of the sole role of mother and wife in the family, build their own ‘selves’ and set up connections with friends outside the family.

Index Terms—Mary Gavell, *The swing*, empty nest syndrome, feminism

I. INTRODUCTION

The swing is written by Mary Gavell (1919-1967), who had never published a single piece of literary writing when she died of lung cancer at the age of 47. Her short story *The Rotifer* was published as a tribute in *Psychiatry* (a magazine for which she had worked since 1955) as its managing editor. Quickly, the story made its way into *The Best American Short Stories* (1968), and was chosen for *The Best American Short Stories of the Century* (1999) by John Updike, a very famous writer, who called it a ‘gem’. More stories were discovered in her drawer later and were compiled into a collection *I Can’t Tell a Lie Exactly*, published in 2001. The stories, ‘The Swing’ included, reveal the writer to be a very sharp and sensitive observer of human behaviors, and some critics believe that she deserves a place among the best writers of her time and of our time.

The Swing is included in *Short Stories in English A Reading Course* by Yu Jianhua. It has received some critical comments from scholars both at abroad and at home. ZENG Rujun and ZHANG Huaihai explored the novel in light of space theories, ‘argued that the novel creatively uses literary characterization of space, puts an entire story in a dynamic combination of material space and spiritual space, forms the intense tension between the space and time, and at the same time gives space rich social, cultural and ethical connotation, making her novel full of artistic charm and deep insight’ (Zeng, Zhang, 2012, p.138). Zhu (2011) studied the ‘dream’ in *The Swing* with Freud’s psychiatric analytic approach. Li (2014) analyzed the magical realism in *The Swing*. Zhang (2014) argued that ‘the historical fact that the son had left his mother was concealed by the mother, and with the impetus of her love for her son and the fabricated memory, the mother dreamed into the past and uncovered the concealed history’ (p.99). As far as the author of this paper knows, no one has analyzed the ‘empty nest syndrome’ suffered by the old women from the perspective of feminism, so this paper has such an attempt to *The Swing*.

The definition of ‘empty nest syndrome’:

First introduced in 1914 by writer Dorothy Canfield, the concept of ‘empty nest syndrome’ was clinically identified and popularized in the 1970s as a group of symptoms including depression, loneliness, and low self-esteem, found among mothers whose last child had recently moved out of the family home. A great deal of sociological research since then has sought to find out how the ‘empty nest’ relates to mothers’ (and to a lesser extent fathers’) well-being, and how other circumstances such as being employed outside the home may influence the experience. (Harkness, 2008, p.318)

After her only son had moved out of the family home, the aging mother in *The Swing* began to suffer from ‘empty nest syndrome’. She was troubled by feelings of depression, loneliness and low self-esteem.

The reason underlying the old woman’s suffering from ‘empty nest syndrome’ is that she is oppressed in the patriarchal society. The patriarchal society makes women be limited to the role of mother and wife, so women are restricted to family and have less social connections with others outside the family. They rely too much on the relationship with their husband and son for their happiness, and thus lose their real self, and become invisible. If they can’t enjoy harmonious relationship with their husband and son, or they fail to achieve understanding from a few friends, they tend to suffer from ‘empty nest syndrome’. In *The Swing*, the old woman has no name, which shows her invisibility in the patriarchal society. In her middle years, she spent all her life in performing well the role of mother and wife and lost her real self. In her old days, she had an estranged relationship with her husband, her son and her female

friends in reality, which lead her to suffer from 'empty nest syndrome'. So she tried to regain intimacy with her son in dreams. After several happy reunions with her seven-year-old boy, she gradually accepted the fact that her son had left her and pulled herself out of the role of mother, then regained her real self, and reconciled with her husband in the end.

II. THE DIRECT REASONS FOR HER 'EMPTY NEST SYNDROME'

A. *The Estranged Relationship with Her Husband*

The relationship between the aging woman and her husband is cold. They have no intimacy. And their communication is blocked. The wife wants and tries to build a harmonious relationship with her husband, but her husband 'Julius was drawing in upon himself, becoming every day more small and chill and dim' (Gavell, 2010, p.53).

She is eager for her husband's companionship and intimacy. She cares for her husband and desires his return of love. She hopes that they can 'sit together in the evenings, companionably watching television, or reading, or chatting' (Gavell, 2010, p.56). And she knits an afghan for her husband to warm his knees. 'But he sat less and less with her in the evenings; he went to bed very early nowadays, and he had taken to wearing the afghan daytimes around his shoulders like a shawl. She was sorry immediately for her irritation, and she tried to be very thoughtful of him the rest of the day. But he didn't seem to notice; he noticed so little now (Gavell, 2010, p.56).

She devoted all his love to her husband, but her husband's reaction disappointed her, and her efforts to build a good relationship with her husband were in vain. Her focus was on her husband, but her husband paid little attention to her.

And in her old age, her role in the relationship with her husband changed somehow. In her middle age, her husband took the dominant role in life, but in her old age, her husband began to rely on her and she gradually took the upper hand. In the past, Julius insisted on driving himself, but nowadays he let her do it without a word. On their way to see their son, she drove the car. But they didn't talk with each other mostly. When they talked, it was her husband's complaint. No matter which road she took, her husband found a reason to complain. 'Julius said querulously, "I could have told you you'd get into a lot of traffic this way and you'd do better to go by the river road, but I knew you wouldn't listen," but she was so happy that she forbore to mention that whenever she took the river road he remarked how much longer it was, and only answered, "I expect you're quite right, Julius. We'll come back that way"' (Gavell, 2010, p.54).

They can't communicate with each other smoothly. Their dialogue begins with her husband's reproach and ends with her concession, so she always suppresses herself in exchange for the superficial harmony. But in fact, tensions simmer below the surface. The estranged relationship with her husband strengthens her feeling of loneliness.

B. *The Alienated Relationship with Her Son in Reality*

In addition to her estranged and cold relationship with her husband, she has an alienated relationship with her son in reality, which is another cause to her 'empty nest syndrome'. Her son James 'lived in a suburb on the opposite side of the city—just the right distance away, far enough so that aging parents could not meddle and embarrass and interfere, but near enough so that she could see him fairly often. She loved him with all her heart' (Gavell, 2010, p.54). 'He was the light and the warmth of her life' (Gavell, 2010, p.54). They had family reunions at the weekends. She looked forward to seeing her son and having deep and close ties with him, however, the result is disappointing to her. At the family reunion, their conversation is limited to the outside matters, and James is reluctant to share his inside feelings with her. 'She was a little depressed, as she often was when she returned from James's house' (Gavell, 2010, p.55). She loves her son with all her heart, so she wishes that when she asks him how he is he wouldn't tell her something about his work, but his inner feelings.

The family members treat each other with due respect, but they lack intimacy and mutual understanding. They kiss each other as guests, and her son is considerate towards his parents. 'He had slipped a footstool under her feet and had seated his father away from drafts' (Gavell, 2010, p.55). But they have no communication of the inner feelings.

The mother wants to delve into the son's innermost feelings, but he has grown up and left her farther and farther away that she can't grasp and share his thoughts. What the mother wonders is 'what did he feel, what did he love and hate, and what upset him or made him happy, and what did he look forward to?' (Gavell, 2010, p.55). But she knew it was impossible. 'I can't expect him to tell me his secret thoughts. People can't, once they're grown, to their parents. But the terrible fear rose in her that there were his secret thoughts, and that was all there was' (Gavell, 2010, p.55). Her attempt to get intimacy and comfort from her son in reality fails, which partly leads to her 'empty nest syndrome'.

C. *The Blocked Relationship with Her Friends*

With the failure of communication and being understood at home, she decides to turn to her friends for communication. She was eager to pour out her innermost feelings of depression to her friends for comfort, but her friend Jessie Carling was self-centered, indifferent to her needs. And all she cares about is herself and such trivial matters as clothes matching. 'Jessie spent the entire lunch discussing her digestion and the problem of making the plaids match across the front in a housecoat she was making for herself' (Gavell, 2010, p.56).

Jessie pays no attention to her inner feelings. And her attempt to communicate with Jessie fails. Then, she turns to another friend Joyce Simmons. To her disappointment, 'Joyce told her in minute detail about her son, dwelling, in full circumstantial detail, on the virtues of him, his wife, and his children. She held her tongue, though it was hard. My

trouble, she thought wryly, is that I think my son is so really superior that a kind of noblesse oblige forces me not to mention it' (Gavell, 2010, p.56). So her attempt to give vent to her innermost depression fails again.

Her friends' indifference to her innermost feelings makes the old woman even lonelier.

The estranged relationship with her husband, son and friends are the direct causes to her 'empty nest syndrome', but the underlying cause is her oppression in the patriarchal society.

III. THE UNDERLYING CAUSE TO HER 'EMPTY NEST SYNDROME'

The underlying cause to her 'empty nest syndrome' is her oppression in the patriarchal society which limits women to the role of mother and wife, resulting in their invisibility and loss of real 'selves'. According to four well-known feminist writers: Jean Baker Miller, Adrienne Rich, Dorothy Dinnerstein, and Nancy Chodorow, 'the institution of motherhood is the root cause of the oppression of women and the sexual malaise experienced by men and women' (cited from Kahn, 2004, p.826). The motherhood excludes women's 'self'. The children are all what they live for. After their children move out of the family home, and they cease to play the role of mother, they will lose the aim of life and be likely to suffer from 'empty nest syndrome'.

The old woman in *The Swing* is denied of her 'self'. She is always reproached by her husband, and negated by her son—the symbol of the patriarchal authority. The patriarchal society only acknowledges women's value as mother and wife and denies other pursuing of value. In *The Swing*, without the role of mother and wife to play, the old woman tries to regain her 'self' by doing what she likes, but she is negated by her son. When she tells her son and daughter-in-law, in a burst of confidence, that she has the ancient piano tuned and practices an hour a day, reads books on China, and plans to dig phlox all up and try iris, they feel puzzled, and they find no point in her efforts.

The old woman in *The Swing* is invisible. 'She hasn't got a name, this old woman is called "she", which seems to imply that it's unnecessary for her to have her own name, or that she represents the fate of all women as "the other", and her life is a life of mother and wife' (Zhu, 2011, p.186). On the contrary, the male characters have their names; her husband's name is Julius—which reminds us of Julius Caesar the roman dictator of the 1st century BC. And her son's name is James, which reminds us of the English kings named James. The use of the names of the great men symbolizes the strong power of man over woman.

In the patriarchal society, women are limited to the role of mother and wife, so that they lose their 'selves'. In her middle years, she lives for the role of wife and mother. Her husband Julius's health is not so good, so she has to help her husband with all the office work, and does all the housework, such as mowing the lawn, helping her son to learn to ride his bike and hit the ball. She has to look after her son and mother her sister after their parents died. Therefore, the role of mother and wife over occupies her head, and her 'self' is 'pushed right out of her head' (Gavell, 2010, p.53). At last she loses her real 'self'. She is traumatized and in desperate need for love and care in her heart because she gives too much without taking anything.

However, as she grows old, her son 'James was grown and gone, and Julius was drawing in upon himself, becoming every day more small and chill and dim' (Gavell, 2010, p.53), the influence of her husband and son upon her has weakened, the role of mother stops, she begins to suffer from 'empty nest syndrome', and she has to adapt to the new situation and start to regain her real 'self'. Dream symbolizes the self, so the fact that she begins to dream again as she grows old symbolizes her journey to regain her real 'self'.

IV. THE CURE OF HER 'EMPTY NEST SYNDROME'

A. *The Intimacy with Her Son in Dreams*

She is oppressed in reality by the patriarchal society, and she can't find any comfort from her husband, son or friends in reality, which makes her feel helpless, so she turns to dreams for her outlet of feelings. The swing, which symbolizes the happy memory of the past, whose creak brings her about the cozy memory and intimacy she shared with her son in the past. She meets her son James who is a little boy and they talk with each other intimately. 'She ran to him and stopped the swing—he had slowed down when he saw her — and knelt on the mossy ground and put her arms around him and he put his arms around her and squeezed tight' (Gavell, 2010, p.56). They hug each other and have intimate body contact which she can't get in reality. She expresses her strong longing to the fullest extent, and their meeting is full of tender feelings as in her son's childhood. "I'm so glad to see you!" she cried. "It's been such a long time since I've seen you!" "I'm glad to see you too," he cried, grinning, and kissed her teasingly behind the ear, for he knew it gave her goose bumps. "You know," he said, "I like this airplane, and sometimes I go r-r-r-r- and that's the engine" (Gavell, 2010, p.57). Instead of kissing her on the cheek in reality, her son kisses her behind the ear and tells her what he likes and dislikes.

She regains her role as a mother in their conversation, and she enjoys real communication of feelings with her son. 'She felt as if the wheels of her mind, rusty from disuse, were beginning to turn again, as if she had not engaged in a real conversation, or thought about anything real, in so long that she was like a swimmer out of practice' (Gavell, 2010, p.58). The boy relies on her mother and asks her a lot of naïve questions to which she answers happily.

The boy comes every night or two and she anticipates in bed happily for their meeting. She dresses properly for it to perform the role of mother well. They sit beside the swing and talk about some childish matters: 'they talked about the

stars and where the Big Dipper was, and about what you do about a boy who is sort of mean to you at school all the time, not just now and then, the way most children are to each other, only they don't especially mean it, and about what you should say in Sunday school when they say the world was made in six days but your mother has explained it differently, and about why the days get shorter in winter and longer in summer' (Gavell, 2010, p.58). They enjoy the happy moment of talking and communicating.

With the merry times of sharing tender feelings with the boy, she frees herself from the frustration in communication with her husband, friends and son in reality. She becomes cheerful.

she sang around the house until even Julius noticed it, and said, disapprovingly, "You seem to be awfully frisky lately." And when Anne phoned apologetically to say that they would have to call off Sunday dinner because James had to attend a committee meeting, she was not only perfectly understanding — as she always tried to be in such instances — but she put down the phone with an utterly light heart, and took up her song where she had left it off. (Gavell, 2010, p.58)

'Then one night, after they had talked for an hour, Jamie said, "I have to go now, and I don't think I can come again, Mommy." "Okay," she said' (Gavell, 2010, p.58). With calmness, she finally accepted the fact that her son had grown up and left her. She began to face the reality that as they go to school, college, work and get married, children are on the way in leaving their parents. Facing the new reality is the first step to cure the 'empty nest syndrome'.

B. *The Reconciliation with Her Husband in the End*

At the end of the story, her husband Julius changed his attitude of indifference and disdain to his wife and began to understand her and share her innermost feelings.

After the boy left, she wept for a long time on the swing till she was disrupted by her husband's sound. As Hélène Cixous put it, the patriarchal authority considers the femininity in contrast to masculinity as negative (Bowers, 2004, p.66). Women's feelings are prescribed as unreasonable. Scared of being blamed by her husband as unreasonable, she tried to hide her feelings from him. 'She hastily tried to rearrange her attitude, to somehow make it look as if she was doing something quite reasonable, sitting there on the ground with her head pillowed on the swing in the middle of the night' (Gavell, 2010, p.59), with the thought that her husband would 'think she was quite out of her mind and talk very sharply to her' (Gavell, 2010, p.59). To her great surprise, 'his cracked old voice spoke mildly. "He went off and left his jacket," he said. She looked, and there was the little red jacket hanging on the nail' (Gavell, 2010, p.59). Her husband's understanding of her feelings and his own expression of emotions put them in an equal position, and united them together. As humans, men and women have emotions alike. But the patriarchal society appreciates reason and depreciates emotion, which constrain people's expression of emotions, especially men. Men are prescribed to hold their feelings back by the patriarchal society, which does harm to men themselves. Men and women shouldn't be put in opposite, or superior (men) and inferior (women) positions, but in equal positions. To form a harmonious relationship between men and women, mutual confession of feelings, worries and weaknesses based on equality is needed. The antagonistic or superior relations would make men and women ashamed of confiding emotions and thus estranged.

In the end of the story, they reunited to face the situation together. They accepted the fact that their son had left them, and all he had left them was happy memories, they should cherish the memories and keep them in mind and continue their life; they shouldn't always live in the past, otherwise, their life would be a tragedy.

V. CONCLUSION

The Swing depicts an aging mother who suffers from 'empty nest syndrome'. The direct causes to her 'empty nest syndrome' are the estranged relationship with her husband, the alienated relationship with her son in reality and the blocked relationship with her friends. But the underlying cause of her 'empty nest syndrome' is that she is oppressed in the patriarchal society which restricts her to the role of mother and wife. In the patriarchal society, women rely too much on the relationship with their husband and son for their happiness, and thus lose their real 'self', and become invisible.

In order to cure the 'empty nest syndrome', the old women can recall the happy memories, but they should accept the fact that their children are bound to leave them when they have grown up and the closeness and intimacy they share with their mother or father in their childhood will never come back. If the parents can't accept it and desire for the childhood intimacy, their life would be a tragedy. Therefore, the old women should let go of the child, build an equal relationship with their husband and face the future together with mutual understanding and encouragement. They shouldn't be limited to the role of mother and wife, but they should build their own 'selves' and harmonious relationship with people outside the family.

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The Effect of Freewriting on Developing Punctuation Marks in Paragraph Writings of Iranian EFL Intermediate Learners

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Abstract—Freewriting is writing whatever one knows or thinks for a certain length of time without stopping and editing till the time finishes. It's an easy and useful way of writing for generating ideas but it is sometimes full of errors. The current study examined a new area of freewriting which aimed to explore the effect of freewriting on development of learners' correct use of punctuation marks in their paragraph writings. The participants were 36 female intermediate students with Persian as their first language, enrolled in a six-week intensive English writing class. To homogenize the respondents they were given a version of Oxford Quick Placement Test (OPT) in order to assess the participants' proficiency level. As a pretest and posttest students were supposed to write about a topic which were scored according to a standard rubric. In order to test the inter-rater reliability of the scores given by the two raters, intra-class correlation coefficient was calculated. Mann Whitney test was used to compare the experimental and control group's OPT scores and Wilcoxon test was used to compare the pretest and posttest scores of each group separately and the results showed that the treatment affected the learners in experimental group significantly.

Index Terms—freewriting, punctuation marks, paragraph writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing in a second language seems to be the hardest skill to teach and to learn, because it needs learning many other skills (Ningrum et al., 2013). Writing gives the writer the opportunity to express his ideas, feelings, and viewpoints to others and convert them to visible manuscript. It is very important because it's used in many areas of lives and most of the students need to write some essays during their studies; also it's essential for expressing and preserving the ideas and memories. According to Robinson, "without writing there would be no history" (1995, p. 34). "Writing is used as a medium for collecting, preserving and transmitting information" (Graham, MacArthur, & Fitzgerald, 2013, p. 5). However, writing encourages the writer to have physical and mental effort (Westwood, 2004) and the most important factor in writing is making students involved personally in learning process.

Punctuation marks also play an important role in giving our intended meaning to the reader. When they are used accurately, they guide the reader and make the comprehension of the text easier but when they are used wrongly or even wrong placement of them can change the total meaning of the sentence unintentionally and create ambiguity. According to Adekunle (1987), it's hard or sometimes impossible to write or understand a text without proper punctuation marks. So it is clear that not only at the intermediate level, but also at whatever level one must use correct pronunciation to write meaningfully and to be understood.

Freewriting according to Elbow and Belanoff (2000), is to write whatever comes into one's mind for a specified length of time without stopping, thinking, editing and evaluating. In Elbow's own words, "the only requirement is that you never stop." (1998, p. 3). When we freewrite, we express ourselves freely in what we write by our own voice. One of the most positive points of this kind of writing is that even quiet and shy students have something to write. By freewriting students become aware of their personal and emotional aspects which become evident in what they write. Findings suggest that students are more enthusiastic when they are involved in active learning that is "authentic, reflective and collaborative" (Scott, 2006, p. 6).

Some (e.g. Fox & Suhor, 1986) believe that because freewriting is liberate and unstructured, it's incoherent and disorganized. Lots of studies have been done by many researchers on freewriting, however, this study differs from the previous ones. The current study aimed to explore the effect of freewriting in developing the students' correct use of punctuation marks in the area of paragraph writing. This study differs from the previous ones because the researcher focused on the correct use of punctuation when students freewrote which was not done before. So when students write paragraphs they will have less errors in term of punctuations. Also the students shared what they freewrote to the class which is called "public writing". When they share their freewritings to the class and when they listen to other classmates, they become familiar with different ways of thinking and writing. However, the unstructured nature of

freewriting can be a challenge. The ultimate goal of this study was making students aware of the importance of freewriting as an interesting activity which can help them develop their punctuations which was neglected in freewritings before. The obtained results showed that freewriting could be an influential and effective learning tool to improve students' use of punctuations when they write paragraphs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing is an important skill which enables the writer to communicate. "Writing is seen as a product constructed from the writer's command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher" (Hyland, 2008, p. 3). Writing with all its different purposes and forms, is a complex process because some researchers argue that writing is the sum of other language skills which entails the writer to master in listening, speaking, and reading (Chastain 1971; Finocchiaro 1958; Rivrse 1968).

Polio (2001) believes that when writer focuses on fluency the quality may decrease; however the quality is not important in freewriting. Jacobs (1986) believes that freewriting has three important aspects "concerning on content, not worrying about form, and writing without stopping" (p.282). Regarding this, free writing is a student-centered activity and increases the self-esteem and motivation of students (Jacobs, 1986). Freewriting can help both novice and experienced writers to reverberate their thoughts and their experiences and convert them into writing; reshaping their knowledge leads to decreasing the worries that many writers have while writing (Murray 2013; Murray and Moore 2006). According to Kamler, writing with ease and confidence requires letting go and even writing 'bull shit' (2001). To create knowledge is the main aim of freewriting, as suggested by Richardson (1998; 2000) and Kamler (2001). Writing for a specific length of time like for five or ten or twenty minutes but quickly and steadily and without stopping is the essential rule of freewriting (Elbow 2000; Goldberg 1986). Murray (2009) believes that new writers can particularly benefit from freewriting, because without being worried about being evaluated, they can articulate their own words and express their thoughts. In addition, Murray adds "You start to write, even if you are, in fact, unsure about where the writing is going" (2009, 93). Moreover, by freewriting, the writer can identify in which areas he is weak; why his ideas make sense or not. According to Richardson (1998; 2000), all human beings have two kinds of knowledge; tacit and intuitive. Elbow (2000) mentions that with the help of freewriting one can convert his implicit and tacit knowledge into explicit and written form of it and then go through it.

Badenhorst (2007, 2008), Elbow (2000), Goldberg (1986), and Murray (2009), believe that freewriting cannot be regarded as a result, but it is more like a procedure. According to Elbow (2000), by freewriting all the limitations existing in writing are eliminated. When the self-imposed restrictions for writing accurately and flawlessly are removed, freewriting keeps the writing alive and lets the writer exhibit his voice and attempts (Elbow 2000). That is to say as Elbow claims, writers "speak on paper" (2000, 86). Furthermore, when writers regularly do freewriting, they are more satisfied and pleased. Instead of elbow grease, writing is more like detecting and producing.

For Badenhorst (2007), Elbow (2000) and Goldberg (1986), after bringing the opinions and reflections together, freewriting lets them expand. It makes thinking better and it is a way to capture and extend what the writer wishes to say (Richardson 2000). Regarding freewriting, the researcher demonstrated what the advocates of freewriting such as Badenhorst (2008), Elbow (2000) and Goldberg (1986) believe in that freewriting has the capability of producing and gathering original opinions and beliefs. It is simple and fast while being very delightful and pleasant. Moreover, it removes the obstacles the writer faces and provides him with the confidence about himself and his writing.

Murthy (2007) points out that punctuation plays very important role in developing writing skills. Therefore, the correct use of punctuation marks is very crucial in writing meaningfully. Manser (2006) also believes that the purpose of punctuation mark is making the meaning of the sentences clear; so correct use of punctuation marks is necessary to avoid writing meaninglessly. Pryse (1993) also asserts that a good piece of writing can be ruined by lack or inappropriate punctuation; therefore, if one wants to avoid misinterpretation, his writing should be correctly punctuated. Therefore, to be understood accurately, one must use correct punctuation marks.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Freewriting is writing freely and continuously without concerning about the mechanics of writing, such as punctuation, spelling and grammar. Because in freewriting the quantity is important and it cannot be edited, so it's sometimes full of errors. But if teacher encourages the learners to focus on punctuations when they freewrite, they will make more accurate sentences in terms of punctuations in their future paragraph writings even without the direct help of teacher. Also learners of English as a foreign language suffer from lack of knowledge of punctuation marks and the correct use of them as tools for presenting their ideas in writings. Moreover, there is no research being done related to this issue which integrates punctuations with freewriting. The research question that guides this study is:

Does practicing freewriting help intermediate EFL learners improve their correct use of punctuation marks in paragraph writing?

Today it's essential to train competent and qualified learners in student-centered classes. This study can help bringing up autonomous writers who can articulate their own writings with more accurate punctuations than before.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were 36 female intermediate students with Persian as their first language, enrolled in a six-week intensive English writing class in Shokuh-e- Iran Language Institute where the researcher was the instructor. Initially the participants were 50 and their level was supposed to be intermediate. To homogenize the respondents they were given a version of Oxford Quick Placement Test (OPT) and based on the results, 36 students were selected as the participants of the study.

B. Materials and Instruments

The first instrument was Oxford Quick Placement Test (OPT) was used to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in order to assess the participants' proficiency level. The second instrument was in the form of paragraph writing. The researcher selected *Guided Paragraph Writing* by TC Jupp & John Milne (1972). In this book, different types of paragraph writings were presented and the researcher used it for both control and experimental groups. As a pretest and posttest, students were supposed to write a paragraph about a specified topic. The students' papers were scored according to a standard rubric which was Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) NAPLAN 2012, Persuasive Writing Marking Guide, that is presented in the appendix. The written paragraphs in pretest and posttest were graded by two raters and the two scores were then averaged. If the raters disagreed, that piece of writing was given to a third rater to grade its disputed aspect(s). The scores given by the third rater were then averaged with whichever of the two sets of scores that was closer to it. This suggestion was made by Paulus (1999) to guarantee the reliability of rating.

C. Procedures

First, the participants were homogenized based on their performance on the Oxford Quick Placement Test. Based on the results of the test, the intermediate learners were selected as participants of the study. Then they were randomly divided into two groups as control and experimental group. If there were students who were better in writing, they would be divided equally in both groups. The two groups received similar procedures in the class which were traditional approaches, but only the experimental group had an extra freewriting exercise each session focusing on punctuation marks. All paragraphs written in each session were discussed and corrected in the class; if time did not allow and all of them could not be corrected in the class, they were corrected at home by the teacher and main points were discussed on next session. During the term in each session students were provided with paragraph, paragraph writing, paragraph structures and other things related to paragraph writing in details which was introduced to them briefly during the first days. In each session some points of grammar were also illustrated briefly. Three days a week in six-week program students took part in the classes and the time of each session was ninety minutes. Encouraging students to consider the punctuation marks when they freewrite, is the final aim of the class to see the results if they use more accurate punctuation marks in their paragraph writings or not.

On the first day of instruction, for more explanations and better clarifications, paragraph and paragraph writing was explained to students; the way a paragraph is written and what a paragraph consists of. On the second day, different structures and characteristic of a paragraph was explained to students and some punctuation marks were explained to them in details. Then they were asked to write a paragraph on a specific topic with taught punctuations.

On the third day, the experimental group received complete explanations in details about the nature of freewriting, the way it should be done and also its benefits and the reason why they need to learn it for improving their English writing skills. Other punctuation marks were also explained in details. On the same day, the teacher gave a simple topic to students and asked them to freewrite for ten minutes and introduce themselves. For the next freewriting that they were supposed to write, students asked for additional time and another five minutes and they were given fifteen minutes to freewrite. The teacher explained to students that in freewriting whatever comes to their minds is what she wants and they should not worry for the mistakes they make. The teacher also clarified that students should not edit and no need to make a perfect piece of paper. By the time students finished their writing, the teacher asked them to read aloud what they wrote or exchange with another student. They did that and whenever time allowed, the teacher asked students to share their writings to more than one student for peer comments. In each session, before students started to freewrite, the teacher wrote some necessary words on the board related to the topic they were going to write about.

On the fourth day, the teacher offered students a needs analysis survey regarding the class instructions and asked them about their favorite topics they want to write. In this way, freewriting was more enjoyable and pleasant for students to write about the topics they want. Each session the teacher tried to use the topics they suggested. Throughout the freewriting sessions over the six weeks, the teacher encouraged students to pay more attention to punctuations when they freewrote and feedbacks were given on correct or incorrect use of punctuation marks; also sometimes the class had a small conversation about the topic after the freewriting. The researcher noticed that when students freewrite and consider the punctuation marks, not only the quality of their freewritings because of their attention to punctuation marks did not decrease at all, but also what they freewrote was more accurate than before. The researcher decided to encourage students to have pair-work (after they freewrote) because of two reasons. One is that students are not accustomed to group work yet. The other reason is that when a student works alone, shy and quiet students will remain

silent, while talkative students always talk. When students read aloud, they become familiar with varieties of thoughts and opinions and this is valuable. Freewriting also equip students with self-confidence to make meaningful texts very quickly and easily. Writers could take turn to read aloud to the class what they freewrote with expressing their punctuation marks and ask others to give their opinions and even criticize the writer.

Students had the first test at the beginning of the six-week course, which involved writing a simple paragraph for twenty minutes on a specific topic. For the second test which was held at the end of the semester, they had a similar writing test with another topic to do in twenty minutes to assess their achievement in paragraph writing in term of punctuation marks at the end of the course. The pretest and posttest of the present study were rated by two raters with a standard rubric in order to compare the results at the beginning and at the end of the course. The standard rubric is presented in the appendix A.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to estimate the reliability of the test and the extent to which the test results are generalizable to the population, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated to be 0.716 which reveals the acceptable reliability of the test. The results are shown as below:

TABLE 1.
THE RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's alpha	N
.716	4

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to estimate the normality of the distribution of the data which is shown below:

TABLE 2:
KOLMOGOROV- SMIRNOV TEST RESULTS

	Experimental		Control		Opt	
	Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest	Experimental	Control
Statistic	.363	.363	.363	.421	.256	.118
Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.200*

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for OPT, pretest and posttest scores. 18 participants' scores are included for the experimental group and 18 scores for the control group. Regarding the experimental group's pretest, the highest score equals 2 and the lowest one equals 1. The mean is 1.55 and the standard deviation is .51. For the experimental group's posttest, the highest score equals 4 and the lowest one equals 3. The mean is 3.55 and the standard deviation is .51. Regarding the control group's pretest, the highest score equals 2 and the lowest one equals 1. The mean is 1.44 and the standard deviation is .51. Regarding the control group's posttest, the highest score equals 3 and the lowest one equals 2. The mean is 2.66 and the standard deviation is .48.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR OPT & PRE- & POSTTEST AND OPT SCORES

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	Pretest	18	1.00	2.00	1.5556	.51131
	Posttest	18	3.00	4.00	3.5556	.51131
Control	Pretest	18	1.00	2.00	1.4444	.51131
	Posttest	18	2.00	3.00	2.6667	.48507
Opt	Experimental	18	32.00	39.00	34.5000	2.20294
	Control	18	31.00	39.00	35.0000	2.22288

According to table 4, Mann Whitney test is used to compare the experimental and control group's OPT scores. According to the results $U=133.5$, $P=0.358$), there is no significant difference between the two group's scores. The results of the comparison between respondents' pretest scores in both control and experimental group ($U=144$, $P=0.511$) show that there is no significant difference between them. But the experimental group who received the treatment, had better scores compare to control group and the results of the comparison between respondents' posttest scores in both control and experimental group ($U=48$, $P=0.000$) show that there is significant difference between their scores.

TABLE 4:
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY U TEST FOR OPT & PRE- & POSTTEST AND OPT SCORES

	Mean Ranks experimental	Mean Ranks control	U	Z	Sig.
Opt	16.92	20.08	133.500	-.919	.358
Pretest	19.50	17.50	144.000	-.657	.511
Posttest	24.83	12.17	48.000	-4.025	.000

Table 5 shows the results of the comparison between pretest and posttest scores of each group separately. Because the distribution of data was not normal, Wilcoxon test was used. There is a significant difference ($Z = -3.861, P = 0.00$) between experimental group's scores in pretest and posttest and according to the means (table 2) it is observed that the mean of posttest scores has increased 54% compare to pretest scores and the treatment was effective. In control group also there is a significant difference ($Z = -3.508, P = 0.000$) between pretest and posttest exam and according to the means (table 2) it is observed that the mean of posttest scores has increased 45.8% compare to pretest score and in experimental group the mean of posttest scores compare to pretest score has increased 56.25% .

TABLE 5:
RESULTS OF WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Posttest – Pretest			Z	sig
	Negative Ranks	Positive Ranks	Ties		
Experimental*	0 ^a	18 ^b	0 ^c	-3.861	.000
Control*	0 ^a	15 ^b	3 ^c	-3.508	.000

- a. *Posttest < Pretest*
- b. *Posttest > Pretest*
- c. *Posttest = Pretest*

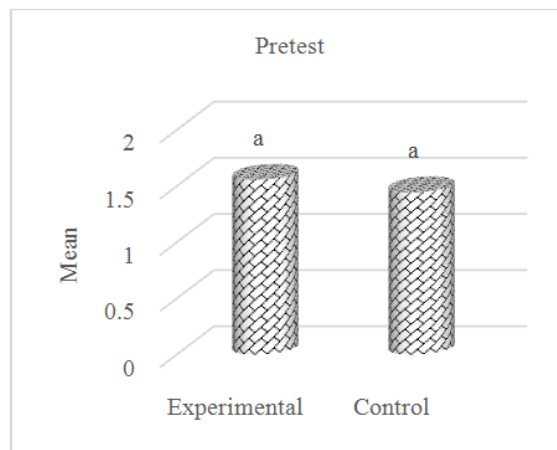


Fig. 1: The mean scores of pretest for control group and experimental group

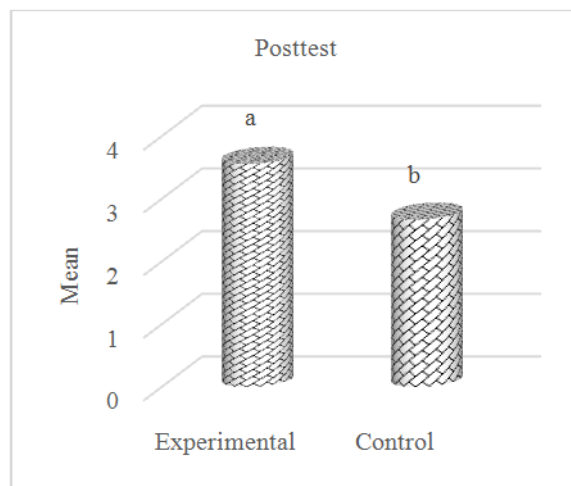


Fig. 2: The mean scores of posttest for control group and experimental group

Fig. 3 shows experimental group's performance on the pretest and posttest. It is obvious that the treatment affected the learners in this group significantly, as it is reflected in the mean scores in fig. 3.

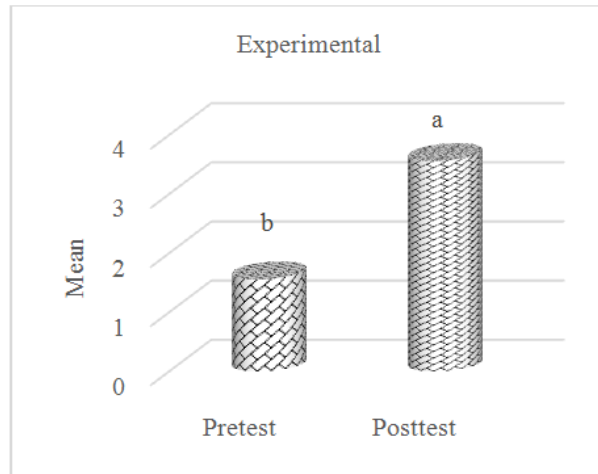


Fig. 3: experimental groups mean scores for pretest and posttest

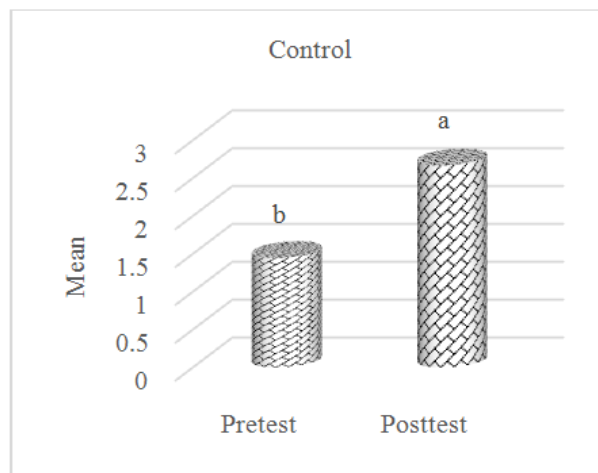


Fig. 4: control groups mean scores for pretest and posttest

In order to test the inter-rater reliability of the scores given by the two raters, Intra-class correlation coefficient was calculated. The results are shown below:

TABLE 6:
INTRA-CLASS CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

		Intra class Correlation	F Test with True Value 0			
			Value	df1	df2	Sig
Pretest	Experimental	.882	8.500	17	17	.000
	Control	.730	3.706	17	17	.005
Posttest	Experimental	.845	6.434	17	17	.000
	Control	.857	7.000	17	17	.000

According to the results ($F=8.5$, $p= .000$), the correlation between the two sets of the scores given to the experimental group by the two raters on the pretest is significant since the observed p-value is less than .05.

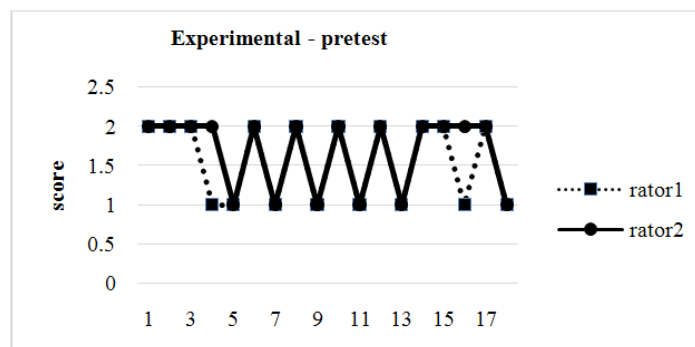


Fig. 5: Two raters' scores given to the experimental group on the pretest

According to the results ($F= 3.706$, $p= .000$), the correlation between the two sets of the scores given to the control group by the two raters on the pretest is significant since the observed p value is less than $.05$. this is also visible in figure 6 below.

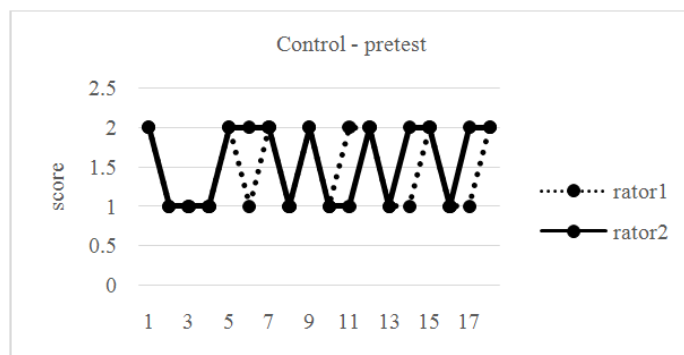


Fig. 6: Two raters' scores given to the control group on the pretest

According to the results ($F= 6.434$, $p= .000$), the correlation between the two sets of the scores given to the experimental group by the two raters on the posttest is significant since the observed p value is less than $.05$. this is also visible in figure 7 below.

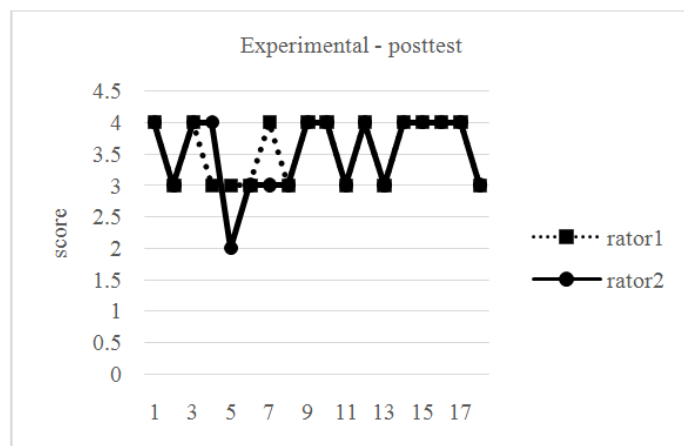


Fig. 7: Two raters' scores given to the experimental group on the posttest

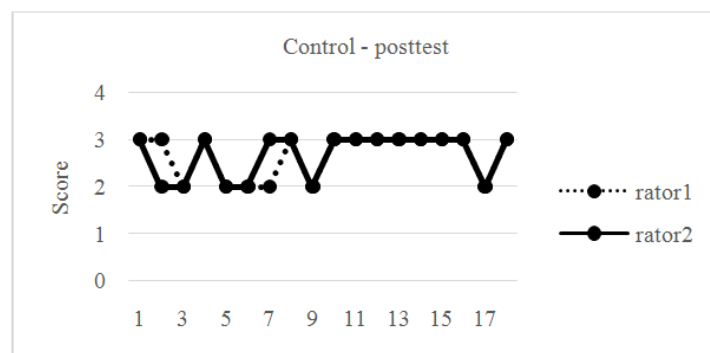


Fig. 8: Two raters' scores given to the control group on the posttest

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study aimed at investigating the effect of freewriting in developing the correct use of punctuations of Iranian EFL intermediate learners' written paragraphs. The results obtained from Wicoxon test revealed that freewriting has a positive influence on students' correct use of punctuation marks in their usual paragraph writings. Also the researcher noticed that the quality of their freewritings increased because of their attention to punctuation marks. When practicing freewriting with students which punctuations were emphasized, at the end of the semester the researcher noticed the students' enthusiasm in doing so and their increased confidence in producing sentences freely and autonomously with more accurate pronunciations from the beginning of the semester. When supervised freewriting becomes a usual and integral part of the teaching and learning process, learners will be more encouraged and

empowered to think, to express their ideas with self-confidence and to have novel opinions to make discoveries through spontaneous writing while having correct pronunciation markers in their paragraph writings. Therefore, the findings of the study highlight the importance of freewriting on helping students make better and more accurate punctuations in sentences than what they were doing before.

The findings also suggest that this kind of freewriting can be applied in broader settings of teaching and learning. This study investigated only one level of proficiency, i.e. the intermediate level, and further studies are required to be conducted in other levels of proficiency and on other mechanics of writing to see if the same results will be accomplished. It is also advised to do the same research with different writing types such as diary, composition, essay and etc. More different factors which may establish important indicators of task performance can be considered in further studies such as: learners' motivation, their differences and their proficiency level.

APPENDIX. STANDARD RUBRIC

9. Punctuation

Skill focus: The use of correct and appropriate punctuation to aid reading of the text.

	Category descriptor	Additional information	Sample scripts
0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no evidence of correct sentence punctuation 	SENTENCE PUNCTUATION INCLUDES	PletRi DoLiSal (18) it cruel to keep animals (24)
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> correct use of capital letters to start sentences OR full stops to end sentences (at least one correct sentence marker) <i>punctuation is minimal and of little assistance to the reader</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> capital letters to begin sentences full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to end sentences 	Some animals cou'd die (20) animals getting cewd (22) animals will feel sad (28)
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> some correct use of sentence level punctuation (at least two accurately punctuated sentences - beginning and end) <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> one correctly punctuated sentence AND some other punctuation correct where it is required (refer to list in additional information) <i>provides some markers to assist reading</i> 	<p>OTHER PUNCTUATION INCLUDES</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> commas in lists commas to mark clauses and phrases apostrophes for contractions apostrophes for possession capital letters and commas used within quotation marks 	They won't face danger (32) All animals started off (46)
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> sentence level punctuation mostly correct (minimum of 80% of five sentences punctuated correctly) AND some other correct punctuation (two or more different examples of other punctuation) <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> accurate sentence punctuation with correct noun capitalisation and no stray capitals, nothing else used (four or more sentences) <i>provides adequate markers to assist reading</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> quotation marks for text extracts, highlighted words and words used with ironic emphasis ('sneer' quotes) brackets and dashes colons and semicolons points of ellipsis <p>NOUN CAPITALISATION INCLUDES</p>	any other animal (30) they try to break out (36) I agree and don't agree (38) My idea of a perfect zoo (42) Cages and Zoos (50) Under Certain Circumstances (54)
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> all sentence punctuation correct (no stray capitals) <p>AND</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> mostly correct use of other punctuation, including noun capitalisation <i>provides accurate markers to enable smooth and efficient reading</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> first names and surnames titles: <i>Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms</i> place names: <i>Paris, Italy</i> institution names: <i>Valley High</i> days of week, months of year 	Some toys and games are educational (40) The lion's glorious hair (62) If humans can have a voice why can't animals. (66) things should be regulated (74)
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> writing contains accurate use of all applicable punctuation <i>provides precise markers to pace and control reading of the text</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> street names: <i>Ord St</i> book and film titles holidays: <i>Easter, Ramadan</i> historic events: <i>World War II</i> 	zoos can have useful purposes (70) Food, water and other nessesary supplies (58)

NOTES

- In first draft writing, allowances can be made for the very occasional omission of sentence punctuation at Categories 4 and 5.
 - 'Mostly' is approximately 80% but it is not intended that every use of punctuation is calculated rigorously.
 - Do not penalise for different heading styles. The following styles are all considered acceptable:
 - only the first letter capitalised (It is cruel to keep animals in cages or zoos)
 - the first letter of all major words capitalised (It Is Cruel to Keep Animals in Cages or Zoos)
 - all words capitalised (It Is Cruel To Keep Animals In Cages Or Zoos)
 - all letters capitalised (IT IS CRUEL TO KEEP ANIMALS IN CAGES OR ZOOS)
- 16 • 'Splice' commas used to join two sentences are INCORRECT, e.g. The dog ate my home work, it was hungry. Do not score this as correct sentence punctuation or comma use.

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“What Subject Is Difficult?: The Sundanese Mothers’ Question to Their Children

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Abstract—Mother-child interaction is an interesting topic to discuss. It exhibits particular characteristics revealing roles in membership categorization. In this article the topics of Sundanese mothers’ speech in questioning her children are analyzed to find out topics discussed in a particular circumstance. Since the Sundanese language employs speech levels, the levels used by both participants in the conversations are discussed. The results show that mothers concern a lot about her children’s academic performance by asking questions on difficult subjects at school and how to prepare for them. It is also found out that certain information relevant to the child’s life at school may alarm mother. Other information maintains and establishes mother’s roles in the society.

Index Terms—conversational topic, mother-child interaction, Sundanese speech levels

I. INTRODUCTION

Mother-child interactions carry the roles of being a mother and a child in a family. The interactions can reveal specific topics that concern a mother. Pertinent to the roles of a mother, specific topics are discussed in the interaction.

The research conducted by Chisholm (2014) claims that primary socialization of children does not lie on direct face-to-face interactions but on the power of parents in assigning their children certain tasks or to place children in their surroundings. He adds that mother-infant interaction needs to consider the role of caretakers and interactors. Nelson, et al., (2014) discuss parent-child conflict in the context of a supportive relationship using a holistic analytic approach. Their findings suggest that family stressors shape parent-child interaction patterns. Other studies suggest that mother’s elaboration in interacting with children results in children’s elaborative speech compared to mothers who use repetition (Haden et al., 2009; Peterson & McCabe, 1992; Peterson, Sales, Rees & Fivush, 2007). Kelly’s research (2016) on mother-child interaction in narratives shows that maternal behaviors in an interaction accounts for the child’s acquisition of linguistic and cognitive skills. Despite a vast array of literature on mother-child interactions, research on Sundanese mother-child interactions involving the speech levels and conversational topics has not been elaborated.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Membership Categorization Analysis

Sacks (1992b) states membership categories as classification or social types used to describe persons. The focus of membership categorization analysis is the use of “membership categories, membership categorization devices and social analysts in accomplishing naturally occurring activities” (Hester & Eglin, 1997, p. 3). It is apparent that categorization should imply that a particular person falls into a certain group or membership as a role he or she plays in society. In a family the membership may include father, mother, son, daughter, aunt, uncle, etc. Hence, the number of member in a category varies. Another aspect that Sacks puts forward is category bound activities meaning that one activity is bounded to another activity. An example of this is when a baby cries, the scene is not merely described as a baby shedding tears. When a baby cries, the mother would pick him up or do other things that would console him.

Topic organization is another notion worth analyzing as a contribution to the explanation of categories put forward by Sacks. He suggests that “one basic way of that topical talk is exhibited involves the use of co-class membership” (Sacks, 1992a, p. 757). Hester & Eglin (1997) add that from an ethnomethodological point of view, categories are set in context category-in-context. Lynch and Peyrot (1992) further mention the notion of context as reference to a reflexively constituted relationship between singular actions and the relevant specifications of identity, place, time, and meaning implicated by the intelligibility of those actions. Watson (1997) further states that categorical system in an interaction informs what an utterance does and how it is formed. However, when a failure occurs, participants make an assumption of the utterance and build newly-built structural analysis.

B. Style

Tannen (2005) defines style as a way of doing something. Style is learnt and the acquisition of style by children shows how they relate to each other and show their identity in their community. Children by the age of four are capable of acquiring syntax, politeness form, and other variables. A study by Schieffelin (1990) demonstrates that children learn social knowledge along with linguistic structure. It means that children can employ certain styles to convey their messages in their speech.

C. Speech Levels in Sundanese Language

Sundanese language is one of local languages spoken in Indonesia, particularly in West Java. It is a unique language consisting of speech levels. Speech levels denote that Sundanese language recognizes social levels of speakers, hence results in particular word selection in communication (Djajasudarma, 1994). Tamsyah (2007) further adds that speech levels in Sundanese language consider the elements of age, position, speech situation, the partner talking to, and the subject of the conversation. The speech levels are divided into six stages, namely *basa kasar pisan* (BKS—very rude level), *basa kasar* (BK—rude level), *basa sedeng* (BS—medium level), *basa panengah* (BP—near medium level), *basa lemes* (BL—polite level), *basa lemes pisan* (BLP—very polite level).

BKS, also called *cohag* is used when someone is very angry, arguing, or intending to insult others. It is usually intended for animals so when such a level is intended for people, it sounds extremely harsh. BK, also called *loma*, is used between participants who are befriended or familiar with each other, or close friends. It is also used when speaking to someone with lower position, title, or age. Another use is when talking about someone of younger age than the hearer. BS, called *basa lemes keur sorangan* (polite level for oneself), is a level used for oneself or talking about oneself to older participants. BP is used when talking to someone with lower position but older in age than the speaker. BL, called *basa lemes keur batur* (polite level for others) is used when talking to someone with higher position, age or title. It is also used when talking to someone unfamiliar. BLP is used when talking to someone with much higher position or title to show respect.

In practice, Sundanese speech levels are categorized into three main kinds (Tamsyah, 2007). The first kind is the speech levels in which the rude, medium, and polite levels have different vocabulary. The phrase of going home has three different words according to its speech level:

(1) *balik* (BK) – *wangsul* (BS) – *mulih* (BL) – *mantog* (BKP) – *mulang* (BP)

The second kind denotes different vocabulary for the rude level but the same vocabulary for both the medium and polite levels. For example the word barrier has the following words in Sundanese:

(2) *halangan* (BK) – *pambengan* (BS) – *pambengan* (BL)

In the third kind, the vocabulary of both the rude and medium levels is the same but different for the polite level. For example address terms for kinship such as the following:

(3) *adi* (younger brother or sister), *alo* (niece or nephew) *lanceuk* (older sister or brother), and *aki* (grandfather)

In the near medium level the words are preceded by the word *pun*, resulting in:

(4) *pun adi*, *pun alo*, *pun lanceuk*, *pun aki*

The words in the polite level are preceded by the word *tuang*, resulting in

(5) *tuang rai*, *tuang putra*, *tuang raka*

D. Sundanese Speech Levels and Ethics

Based on the history, the speech levels entered Sundanese language in the 17th century when some of Sundanese lands (*tatar Sunda*) such as Ciamis, Tasikmalaya, Garut, Bandung, Sumedang, Sukabumi, and Cianjur were under Mataram control. The speech levels developed along with *macapat* (a form of literature) as a result of Mataram Kingdom under the reign of Sultan Agung (Tamsyah, 2007).

Even though some linguists state that speech levels are the reflection of feudalism, Djajasudarma (1994) claims that the speech levels are aesthetical elements of language to show respect among participants. In spoken language the speech levels are accompanied by *lentong* ‘intonation’, *rengkuh* ‘speaking and behaving politely’ and *peta* ‘motion’. She further states that the speech levels function to rule speakers according to the situation and to account for the relationship among the participants as the realization of language ethics.

The relationship between ethics and speech levels in Sundanese is manifested when someone applies it in daily conversations. A Sundanese person will use different words to signal the position of herself/himself. For example, in Sundanese the word meaning to eat has three distinct words:

(6) *neda* ‘to eat’ used for oneself

(7) *tuang* ‘to eat’ used for others

(8) *nyatu* ‘to eat’ used for animals

The use of different words to mean the same thing or activity signals the ethics in Sundanese language. If the word *tuang* ‘to eat’, which is used for others, is used to refer to oneself, she herself will be considered arrogant. On the other hand, if the word *nyatu* ‘to eat’ in the extremely rude level is used, the person positions himself as an animal. What is considered more dangerous is when the word *nyatu* is used to ask someone to eat. Such a condition is recognized as an offense or insult resulting in severe social punishment.

Therefore, speaking Sundanese not only denotes intelligence in applying the speech levels but also prioritizes four elements, namely brain, morale, enthusiasm, and behavior (Warnaen, 1987). Brain refers to cognitive knowledge and experiences as it is used to comprehend the mind and memory. Morale is used in distinguishing between good deeds and bad ones, and is evaluative in nature. Enthusiasm refers to living force or passion, condition of the mind, and feelings which are in line with conative aspects. Behavior refers to observable deeds. All aspects in speaking the language, thus, reflect how Sundanese people show respect to each other.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since the research employs an ethnography approach, data were collected qualitatively. Two families residing in one village in Majalengka Municipality were involved. The variables in the research were the mother and the children. The mothers were housewives, meaning that they had their entire time take care of the children and other household matters. Children involved were aged 5-12 years old. This group age was selected due to complete linguistic acquisition of Sundanese language. This group age also denoted that children had other interactions outside home that might contribute to topics discussed at home.

The participants involved were named family 1 and 2. Family 1 consisted of a mother aged 57 years old with a daughter aged 12 years old and a son aged 10 years old. Both children went to the same primary school nearby. Family 2 consisted of a mother aged 32 years old and her two sons and a daughter. The first son was 10 years of age; the second son was 8 years old, the youngest was a daughter aged 5 years old.

Conversations between the mothers and their children were recorded and transcribed. The conversations recorded were in the afternoon after school.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the theory of membership categorization, the participants involved are mothers and her daughters and sons aged 5-12 years old in a domestic domain. The contexts taking place were after school when they were about to have lunch. It was common for the families to talk at that particular time.

1. Family 1

Transcript 1

Mother (M)	:	<i>Pelajaran na naon wae?</i> 'What were the subjects?'
Daughter (D)	:	<i>Matematika, bahasa Indonesia, IPA.</i> 'Math, Indonesian language, science'
M	:	<i>Nu paling susah naon?</i> 'What was the most difficult?'
D	:	<i>IPA</i> 'Science'
M	:	<i>Tara ngapalkeun meureun</i> 'Rarely study maybe.'
D	:	<i>Hmm</i> 'Hmm'
M	:	<i>Osok?</i> 'Usually study?'
D	:	[nodded]

The above piece of conversation between a mother and her daughter denotes a concern on academic performance. The daughter had just taken National Examination of Primary School. The results of the exams determined chances of admission to state secondary schools. Firstly, she asked about the subjects her daughter took for the examination. Secondly, she asked about the hardest subject on the examination. Her daughter replied that science was the hardest. The mother seemed to blame her daughter for that by saying that she rarely studied. However, she asked for confirmation on what she thought by asking whether her daughter usually studied. Her daughter nodded, signaling that she had done her best.

From the script, the mother used the word *meureun* 'maybe' signaling rude speech level. However, this speech level is not uncommon in daily conversations, particularly between close participants. In this conversation, as the participants are a mother and her daughter, it is generally acceptable. In general, the speech level was the medium level.

Transcript 2

- Mother : *Asep naon nu susah pelajaranna?*
 (M) 'Asep, what subject was difficult?'
 Son (S) : *Inggris sama matematika*
 'English and math'
 M : *Bahasa Inggris sama matematika?*
 'English and math?'
 S : [nodded]
 M : *Kaeusian sadaya soalna?*
 'Did you answer all questions?'
 S : *Kaeusian.*
 'All were answered'
 M : *Ngapalkeun.*
 'Study.'
 S : [nodded and smiled]

Turning to her son, she similarly asked about academic performance. In transcript (2) the mother was still concerned with the subjects her son took for the summative examination held at the end of the semester. What differed the speech style employed when talking to her daughter and her son was when the mother asked about difficult subjects, she directly commanded her son to study, whereas when talking to her daughter she needed to confirm whether her daughter rarely studied. It may be due to previous academic performances. Apart from difficult subjects, the mother asked about easy ones to appreciate what her children had done. Asking such questions to some extent would balance her view of the children's academic performances as well as confirmed that as a mother she had helped her children to perform well enough academically as was expected from the society. It is shown in transcript (3).

Transcript 3

- Mother : *Nu gampang naon?*
 (M) 'What was easy?'
 Son (S) : *Nu gampang SBK jeung penjas.*
 'SBK (Arts and Culture) and physical education were easy.'
 M : *SBK jeung penjas. Ai neng nu gampang naon?*
 SBK and physical education. How about you girl, what was easy?'
 Daughter : *Matematika, Bahasa Indonesia.*
 (D) 'Math, Indonesian language'

With regard to the speech level, the mother, as shown in her use of the word *sadaya* meaning *all*, used the polite speech level in talking to her son. If compared, it is not at the same level as when she used the word *meureun* in the rude level (transcript 1). Such a polite speech level was commonly used between close participants in Sundanese culture.

The vocabulary used in this conversation show the medium speech level signaling close relationship between the mother and her children. However, the word *jeung* as used by the son in "*SBK jeung penjas*" denotes a shift in the speech level from the medium level to the rude level. Yet it is suggested that the son use the polite speech level as his mother used the polite level. Therefore, it is considered inappropriate that a son replied in such a way. The mother did not correct her son's inappropriate word choice in this transcript, instead she continued with other questions.

Still in relation to academic performances, the mother compared her children's academic performances with other children's. This was done to ensure that what she did to and for her children was also done by other mothers. In transcript (4) the mother confirmed this. By that, it established the membership categorization of being a mother in the society.

Transcript 4

- M : *Temen-temen gampang?*
 'Your friends, they thought they were easy?'
 D : *Aya nu gampang aya nu susah.*
 'Some were easy some were hard'
 M : *Aya nu gampang aya nu susah?*
 'Some were easy some were hard?'

Another topic of conversation deals with her children's friends as shown in transcript (5). In this conversation, the mother asked about her daughter's friends' plan to continue their study. It was revealed that some of her daughter's friends would continue their study to *pasantren* (an Islamic boarding school). Knowing this, she asked if her daughter would continue there but her daughter was unwilling to do so. She preferred to continue to a nearby senior high school (SMP).

Transcript 5

- M : *Mun Dais diteruskeun na kamana?*
‘How about you Dais, where do you want to continue?’
- D : *SMP.*
‘Senior High School’
- M : *Aya nu ngilu pesantren?*
‘Does anybody go to *pesantren*?’
- D : [nodded]
- M : *Saha nu masantrenna?*
Who goes there?
- D : *Hilma, Kepin, Dita*
‘Hilma, Kepin, Dita’
- M : *Kamana pasantren na?*
‘Whereto?’
- D : *Dita ka Cirebon, Kepin, Hilma mah ke Tasik.*
‘Dita to Cirebon, but Kepin, Hilma to Tasik.’
- M : *Dais mau pasantren?*
‘Dais, are you going to *pasantren*?’
- D : [shook her head]
- M : *Alim? Alim pasantren?*
‘No? No to *pasantren*?’
- D : [nodded]

In transcript (6) the mother asked her son, asking about his friends. On this occasion, she asked about his son’s friend’s moving because he was still on the fourth grade. She might ask this because it was common that a student moved from one school to another for a particular reason. By asking questions about her children’s friends, she would be sure that her children befriended with good students in a good environment.

Transcript 6

- M : *Asep, aya nu pindah temenna?*
‘Asep, is there your friend moving?’
- S : *Aya.*
‘Yes.’
- M : *Aya? Ngaranna?*
‘There is. His name?’
- S : *Iwan.*
‘Iwan.’
- M : *Iwan? Kamana? Pindahna pedah naon?*
‘Iwan? Where to? Why did he move?’
- S : *Diheureuyan.*
‘He was made fun of.’
- M : *Dihereuyan jadi pundung kitu? Ulah diheureuyan karunya. Asep mah ntong nya ntong ngahereuyan.*
‘He was made fun so he moved? Don’t make fun of him; poor him. Asep, don’t ever make fun of someone.’
- S : *Si Raja ngaheureuyan mah.*
‘Raja was the one who made fun of him.’
- M : *Raja teh orang mana?*
‘Where does Raja live?’
- S : *Blok Minggu.*
‘Block Minggu.’
- M : *Blok Minggu?*
‘Block Minggu?’

Asking about her children’s friends revealed there might be a bullying act in his son’s school resulting the moving of one of his son’s friends. It was accidentally found out, and knowing this, the mother advised her son not to make fun of someone. Hence, it is important that a mother asks further about what happens at school or to her children’s friends as it may reveal unsolicited matters. It is recommended that parents always check with their children about their experiences at school. Such a pathetic experience can be anticipated if a mother digs deeper information about her children. Good communication between a mother and her children may also provide children with assurance of being protected and well taken care of resulting in self-confidence.

If previous transcripts reveal the medium speech level in Sundanese, transcript (7) demonstrates a different speech level.

Transcript 7

- M : *Telor asin oleh oleh Brebes, naek naon didituna piknik teh?*
 ‘Telor asin is from Brebes. What did you ride?’
- D : Naek wahana.
 ‘Rode some wahana.’
- M : Naek wahana? Wahana na teh naon ibu nanya.
 Rode a wahana? What is wahana I ask you.
- D : Rumah Hantu, Kora-kora.
 ‘A Ghost House, Kora-kora.’
- M : Kora-kora? Ibu guruna naek?
 ‘Kora-kora? Did your female teacher ride it?’
- D : He’euh.
 ‘Yes’.

The word *he’euh* as used by the daughter in transcript (7) is in a very rude speech level. Even though the mother used the rude speech level, the daughter should be able to select other words instead. She could use the word *enya* with the same meaning but in a different speech level. Another word she could use was *muhun*, which is in polite speech level. However, the mother did not correct her for this inappropriate speech level.

2. Family 2

Family 2 consisted of a 32-year old mother along with two sons—aged 10 and 8—and a daughter of 5 years old. Both sons were in the primary school and the daughter was at kindergarten—about to enter primary school. She took Islamic lessons in the afternoon.

The mother in this family asked about what her daughter usually did at school. The daughter replied that she learned *abatasa*. *Abatasa* were the Arabic letters she learned since there was no specific lesson she learned at kindergarten. The mother seemed to inquire more so she asked other lessons she learned by repeating the questions. However, her daughter did not reply as demonstrated in transcript (5). Besides signaling that she did not want to answer her mother’s question, silence in this transcript meant that the daughter thought what her mother asked was too much.

Transcript 8

- M : *Biasa belajar naon?*
 What do you usually learn?
- D : *Abatasa*
Abatasa
- M : *Abatasa? Hmm... Teras naon deui? Hmm? Teras belajar naon deui?*
Abatasa? Hmm...what else? Hmmm? What else do you study?
- D : [silence]

Talking to one of her sons, she asked subjects he learned at school as shown in transcript (6). Knowing that her son learned social sciences, she further asked if he could answer questions on social sciences. Asking such a question, she assured herself that her son could do relatively well at school at different subjects. This tends to signal that when a mother gets an answer, she digs other information on similar subjects. The answer her son gave her was not satisfactory enough so she inquired further. It is found out that when a mother does not get a satisfactory answer, she may inquiry further by asking other subjects.

Transcript 9

- M : *Ari aa tadi belajar naon?*
 ‘Boy, what did you learn?’
- S : *IPS*
 ‘IPS (Social sciences)’
- M : *Kumaha tiasa teu?*
 ‘Could you do it?’
- S : [nodded]
- M : *Ari IPA, tiasa teu?*
 ‘How about IPA (natural sciences), could you do it?’
- S : *Tiasa.*
 ‘Yes.’

Another strategy she used was asking her daughter about her performance at school as shown in transcript (10). Since her daughter was about to enter primary school, she asked about her daughter’s ability to read. Her daughter only nodded signaling that she could read. Getting the answer, she turned her attention to her older son, still asked about his performance at school. She asked about difficult subjects he might encounter. From this we can conclude that the mother concerned a lot about her children’s performance at school.

Transcript 10

- M : *Ari eneng, kumaha eneng? Bade ka kelas hiji tiasa teu macana? Tiasa teu? Eh ditaros teh, tiasa teu neng?*
 'My girl, how about you? To the first grade, can you read? Can you? Ah I ask you, can you girl?'
 D : [nodded]
 M : [asks to her boy] *Ari aa?*
 'How about you, son?'
 S : *Enggeus, maca mah diajar.*
 'I have already, I've learned to read'
 M : *Ari nu teu tiasa pelajaran naon?*
 'What subject is difficult?'
 S : *Matematika.*
 'Math'
 M : *Enjing sakola keneh?*
 'Do you still go to school tomorrow?'
 S : *Sakola.*
 'Yes.'

With regard to the speech level, the mother used medium level, which was commonly used among close participants. Yet, in one of the utterances, the son used the word *enggeus* 'I have already', which is in the rude level. Since the mother used the medium level, it was inappropriate that such a word was used to speak to his mother. Instead, the word *atos*, which is in the polite level, should be used. It is not revealed, however, that the mother corrected this.

Transcript 11

- M : *Ai kamari teh THB na tiasa henteu?*
 'Yesterday, could you do the final exam?'
 S : *Tiasa.*
 'Yes.'
 M : *Nu leres tiasa atawa henteu?*
 'Come on, could you?'
 S : *Tiasa.*
 'Yes.'
 M : *Kamari naon ceuk ibu guruna...ceuk Ibu guruna kamari Julpa? Mun hoyong naek kelas kumaha cenah?*
 'Yesterday, what did your teacher tell you? What did she tell you, Julpa? If you want to pass, what did she tell you?'
 S : *Kudu nulis.*
 'I have to write.'
 M : *Ngaregepkeun? terus naon deui? tos kitu wae?*
 'Study? Then what? Only that?'
 S : *Tos.*
 'Yes.'
 M : *Maenya kitu wae.*
 'Only that?'

Besides concerning academic performance, in transcript (11) it is shown that the mother inquired about what her son did at school as well as how he should prepare for class. She asked what his teacher told him to do to succeed in class and his son's reply that he had to write did not satisfy her. She made it clearer by saying that he had to study. However, as she concerned about his academic performance, she wanted to find out whether it was the only thing his teacher said. On the son's part, the answer was agreeing to her mother, but the mother doubted if it was the only thing that mattered to his teacher. The tone of doubt was clearly seen from the mother's speech *maenya kitu wae* 'only that?' Even though it is a statement, the speech conveys the meaning of doubt.

When mother asked to her child, she sometimes repeated what she asked or rephrased her question. This was done to ensure that her child understood the question and replied in an expected manner.

V. CONCLUSION

Sundanese mother-child interactions demonstrated that topics discussed in a setting after school were on academic performances. The mothers showed their concerns by asking difficult subjects; yet in appreciating what their children did, the mothers asked about easy subjects. Such a strategy balanced her view that there were always two sides of a thing. With older children, the mother straightly asked questions while talking to younger child, the mother sometimes repeated what she asked. Pertaining to speech level, the participants used medium speech level.

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Investigating Iranian English Language Teachers' Practices and Perceptions of Vocabulary Teaching

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Abstract—This study aimed at exploring English language teachers' practices and perceptions of vocabulary teaching in Iranian private language schools. Using a qualitative research design, four competent language teachers were purposefully selected and their perceptions of vocabulary teaching were investigated from several dimensions. Three qualitative data gathering techniques including interviews, classroom observation, and stimulated recall interviews were utilized to have a thorough understanding of the participants' practices and perceptions about vocabulary instruction. Findings revealed that although EFL teachers possessed sufficient knowledge and perspectives with respect to vocabulary teaching strategies, such stated declarative knowledge did not serve the full purposes of vocabulary teaching. Participants typically utilized decontextualized strategies more extensively than contextualized ones in their actual practices indicating that their tendencies are somehow towards traditional approaches in teaching vocabulary. In other words, teachers' instructional practices did not capture all their stated beliefs. Furthermore, it was found that the implemented policies in English language schools which are greatly towards time economization might be a liable reason cheering teachers to deviate from their real beliefs. Finally, contributing to developmental aspects of language teaching, findings of this particular study possess several implications both for teacher education institutions and stakeholders in private language schools in Iran and other similar contexts.

Index Terms—teachers' perception, vocabulary instruction, vocabulary teaching strategies, contextualized strategies, decontextualized strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Knowledge of vocabulary is frequently seen as a basic apparatus for L2 language learners on the grounds that a restricted repertoire of vocabulary hinders fruitful communication (Nation, 2011 & Schmitt, 2000). Meara (1980) states that even after the early stages of learning a second language, most of language learners identify vocabulary as their utmost single source of problems. According to Oxford (2003, p.9), "Skilled teachers help their students develop an awareness of learning strategies and enable them to use a wider range of appropriate strategies". Several scholars (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Bialystok, 1990; Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Cohen, 1998; Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 2003) highlight the significance of strategies for an effective language teaching and learning. Consequently, to empower learner's proficiency level relevant to their needs, it is considerably more imperative for the language teachers to employ compelling and dynamic teaching strategies that will engage learners to master the required tasks and this can be established through teacher's practices and their instructional approaches in the classroom. Moreover, practices teachers perform in the milieu of classrooms are usually based on their perceptions and understandings of teaching and learning. Such perceptions are often described as propositions of mind that determine teachers' behaviors, from both psychological and educational perspectives (Debreli, 2011; Ghanizadeh & Jahedizadeh, 2015) and essentially affect their classroom practices, professional growth, instructional objectives, classroom collaboration designs, teaching strategies, etc. all of which consequently affect their learners and the whole school success (Harste & Burke, 1977; Ramazani, 2013). From this perspective both teachers' practices and perceptions may accelerate or impede the success of any educational reform (Woodrow, 1991). It seems that both issues are pivotal based on which teacher educators can adjust their programs with central educational objectives. It is additionally essential to examine teachers' perceptions inside a particular setting since it is highly context-specific (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Although some researchers (Aliakbari & Allahmoradi, 2012; Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Amiryousefi, 2015; Barzegar & Afghari, 2015; Farvardin Koosha, 2011; Katooli & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2015; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017; Rahimi & Askari Bigdeli, 2016; Ramazani, 2013; Salimi & Ansari, 2015) have so far studied teachers' perceptions about various aspects of

language teaching in the context of Iran, no genuine research has been done regarding vocabulary instructions from teachers' point of views. Under such intents, the present study contributes to the formation of a better recognition of English language teachers in private language schools and discloses hidden areas of their approaches which cannot be easily studied through product oriented research methods.

II. REVIEWING OF LITERATURE

A. *Teachers' Perceptions and Classroom Practice*

Teachers' perceptions are used as an umbrella term to capture all abstract intellectual resources teachers bring with them into the milieu of the classroom. Borg (2003) characterizes teacher's perceptions as the covert intellectual aspect of teaching and it includes what teachers discern, believe, and think of their own works (Borg, 2003). Considering perception as a phenomenon that captures all intellectual resources including teachers' beliefs, Johnson (1994) maintains that there are three basic assumptions to teachers' beliefs: 1) Teachers' beliefs affect how they perceive things and how they judge things. 2) Teachers' beliefs determine how they will use teaching information in the classroom environment. And 3) Understanding of teachers' beliefs is critical for the improvement of teaching effectiveness and programs in teacher education. It is supported by educational research that belief system determines teachers' instructional decisions and their classroom performances to a great extent. The belief system which incorporates previous experience, prior expectation and habits, serves as a screen, and acts upon all aspects of teachers' decision making, including adopting particular teaching approaches or activities and selecting certain instructional materials over others (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). Despite the fact that the basis of classroom practices is a logical system of beliefs, past research has failed to place attention on teachers' perceptions, thinking and beliefs regarding their teaching practices (Garner, 1987) and only recently have language teachers' thought processes begun to shed light on their classroom performance and generate discussion on language teachers' preparation program and their paths of learning to teach. Borg (2003) posits that teaching decisions are the result of complex and conflicting perceptions related to language, learning in general and second language learning in particular, and students. Teachers' perceptions and beliefs are significant issues since they implicitly or explicitly impact teaching practices (Borg, 2015-2005).

B. *Researching Teachers' Perceptions and Previous Studies in Second Language*

Considering the significance of teaching as "the center of all education and educational reform" (p.14), Shulman (1987) points to the partial and incomplete nature of the process-product approach to investigate epistemological issues like teachers' cognitions. Various studies into both teacher's and learners' belief systems have been conducted by researchers and scholars (Borg, 2003; Horwitz, 1988; Peacock, 1999; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). A considerable lot of the reviews indicate vast contrasts amongst teachers' perceptions frameworks, making it vital to keep on researching their impression of second language learning and teaching. As indicated by Borg (2009), teachers' perceptions inquiry deals with exploring hidden side of teaching and teachers' mental lives. Reviewing teachers' perceptions studies discloses the accumulation of research around grammar, reading, and writing while other curricular domains like vocabulary and speaking are not well studied (Borg, 2009). Reviewing these studies uncovers two principle viewpoints: what teachers believe about the teaching of grammar (e.g. Berry, 1997; Borg, 2005; Johnston & Goetsch, 2000; Schulz, 1996), and what they know of grammar (e.g. Andrews, 1999). A group of studies dealt with L2 teacher knowledge about reading (e.g., Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2001; Tercanlioglu, 2001) have contributed substantially to such studies. Reviewing the literature on teacher knowledge revealed three significant studies (e.g., Katz, 1996; Tsui, 1996) about how L2 writing is taught. In summary, it can be concluded that there are similarities among the so far mentioned group of research in the way that teachers' beliefs affect their instructional behavior and what factors may influence teacher knowledge development. These studies also indicate the methodological preferences of teachers while teaching. Although research in language teaching has rarely paid attention to the importance of curricular aspects like vocabulary especially in Iran, Gerami and Noreen (2013) explored four EFL teachers' perceptions of vocabulary teaching through a qualitative inquiry. Results demonstrated that participants possessed acceptable knowledge and firm self conviction about how vocabulary ought to be informed; nonetheless their practices were far from their strong beliefs.

C. *Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of the Study*

To succeed vocabulary teaching, language teachers need to know and employ appropriate strategies to enhance vocabulary learning (O' Malley & Chamot, 1990). So far variety of teaching and learning models have been introduced and brought to the field to improve the quality of vocabulary teaching and learning. Irrespective to the extent of the degree of success and power of the introduced models, what can be construed as the main intentions of all are that vocabulary teaching ought to be dynamic and ought to consider the different measurements of the mental lexicon (Seal, 1987). Considering such intentions and since teaching and learning vocabulary demands to hold an extensive variety of skills (Zimmerman, 1997) and requires to take advantage of memory strategies (Schmitt & Carter, 2000), Shen's (2003) conceptualized model of vocabulary teaching and learning strategies, which is a dynamic continuum of various methodologies of vocabulary and originally adopted from Oxford and Crookall's (1990) model, has been found suitable and selected by the researchers of this study to draw up a complete picture of teachers' perceptions of vocabulary teaching. Generally, the adopted model includes two basic categories of contextualization and

decontextualization which are two extremes and in between vocabulary learning strategies can be taught in a pendulum fashion. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as skills for lexical input and output, are located in one extreme (i.e. contextualization) and word list, flashcards, and conventional use of dictionary as measurements to improve the mental lexicon are in the other extreme (i.e. decontextualization). In between other strategies like word grouping, word/concept association, imagery, keyword, physical response, physical sensation, and semantic mapping are used with tendency to remain in between or moving towards each extreme according to the recognition of the needs of the learners. The combination of all these strategies is also utilized to reestablish words.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Words are the most essential components in a target language since our knowledge of a language is remarkably formed by the lexical items we learn (Nation, 2011; Schmitt, 2000). Notwithstanding the centrality of vocabulary in second language teaching and learning, vocabulary is considered as the greatest source of problems of language learners (Segler, Pain, & Sorace, 2002) and conceivably language teachers face complications in how to apply their instructional decisions in order to be understandable for their students while teaching vocabulary. Scholarly literature documenting teachers' instructions regarding vocabulary is so meager that it appears few scholars are aware of the stream of teachers' constant decisions in the milieu of classroom and how they organize and put vocabulary in their lesson plans (Borg, 2009). The same story seems to be true as "in Iran, vocabulary is one of the most challenging issues in language teaching and what teachers do in their classes and include in their lesson plans to teach vocabulary are not clearly documented or studied" (Gerami & Noreen, 2013, p.1533). Teachers almost do not fully include this curricular area in their practices and only limit their instructions to some personal strategies. Therefore, students coming in private language institutes do not usually have a profound knowledge of vocabularies and their repertoires of lexical items are not rich enough to let them understand or generate utterances communicatively (Gerami & Noreen, 2013). Although insufficient reliable evidence and solid confirmation do exist to demonstrate that vocabulary today is a noteworthy appeal with regards to ELT in Iran, the failure of Iranian English language learners, as the yield results of private language institutions, to comprehend basic sentences or to pass on their communicative goals through straightforward words might be considered as a consistent sign to construe that ELT, in Iranian private language schools, experiences some conceivable issues. A long with these lines, one of the objectives of any teaching system is inevitably teaching strategies to students on how to learn and to help them act autonomously in their learning process (Eslami Rasekh & Valizadeh, 2004; Jahangard, 2007). Although no particular training has so far been given to teachers in this respect, they teach vocabulary mostly through various traditional approaches and mainly based on their own perceptions of vocabulary learning and teaching (Gerami & Noreen, 2013). Under such circumstances it appears essential to understand teachers' perceptions and practices of vocabulary teaching (Borg, 2003).

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main objective of this investigation is to discover English language teachers' practices and perceptions of vocabulary teaching in Iranian private language schools and to see whether their perceptions are in alignment with their practices. The subsequent queries were generated to accomplish the objectives of the inquiry:

1. What are Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions of vocabulary strategy instruction?
2. What strategies are practiced by Iranian EFL teachers in private language schools while teaching vocabulary?

V. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Design*

A basic qualitative design (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) was adopted to perform the research. This was because the majority of the research in connection to teachers' perceptions are inside the interpretivist worldview and, therefore, the researchers are usually encouraged to adopt a qualitative data collection approach (Van Driel, Beijaard & Verloop, 2001).

B. *Participants*

A purposeful sampling approach (Patton, 2002) was adopted due to its rationale and influence which "lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth" (p.230). Four competent informants who could provide in-depth information, understand the complexity of their work and elaborate on their own experiences were selected. They were chosen from among of 127 English language teachers were given numbers for secrecy. See table 1 for more information about the participants' background information.

TABLE 1:
GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Participants' Number	1	2	3	4
Gender	Male	Male	Female	Female
Age	47	39	41	51
Degree of Education	PhD	MA	PhD Student	MA
Teaching experience	11	14	13	21
Organization	Official employee of University	Official employee of the ME	Part-time University lecturer	Official employee of the ME
Proficiency Document	IELTS and MSRT	IELTS	TOFEL	IELTS

C. Instruments and Data Collection Procedure

In addressing the trustworthiness of the data relevant to the purpose of the study, multiple qualitative data collection techniques including interviews, observations, and stimulated recall interviews were used to elicit the participant's perspectives and experiences of vocabulary teaching. All employed interview questions were adopted originally from Borg (1998) and Nelms (2001). Generally, each of the participants experienced four classroom observations as well as nine interviews including: one pre-observation interview, four post-observation, and four stimulated recall interviews during the whole time of the research which took about two months. In all observations, the researcher took on the role of non-participant observer (Alwright & Bailey, 1991) and followed the guidelines about ethics proposed by Christians (2000) all through the entire course of the research. Participant teachers had to plan in such a way to be able to cover the course (Four Corners, Level 4, Units 6-9) within the time limits as determined, by language school, for them. In general, minutes allocated for data collection included 25 up to 40 minutes for each pre-observation interviews, 90 minutes for each observations, and 10 to 20 minutes (depending on the amount of time needed to clarify ambiguities observed in the classroom) for stimulated recall interviews which were conducted immediately after classroom observations, Mackey and Gass, 2005. To conduct a fruitful stimulated recall interview, each participant was first provided with adequate guidelines. Second, audio records adjacent to field notes were used as the reference to stimulate participants' memories for more clarifications (Schepens, Aelterman & Van Keer, 2007)). Participants' responses were all carefully recorded, transcribed and analyzed in the same fashion as for other interviews.

D. Analysis and Results

Strauss and Corbin's (1990) coding system, comprising three systematic steps of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding, was used. In open coding phase, verbatim transcripts of the audio recorded interviews and observation field notes of participants' instructional practices were carefully read several times. To construct responsive categories, data was then broken down into units and each unit was assigned a code or label for ease of access. In the axial coding phase and through interpretation and reflection on meaning (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), the researchers went back over all notes to identify which codes could go together. This process went on through the entire transcripts which then was put into a merging operation to obtain merged records of the categories reflecting the recurring regularities and patterns of this study.

To answer the first research question which was concerned with the participants' perceptions of vocabulary instruction, the researchers employed a semi-structured in-depth pre-observation interview including five open-ended questions adopted from Borg (1998). Summary of findings for research question one indicates that all participants believed in the positive role of strategies in teaching of vocabulary and notably believed in selective strategies as follows: synonym, definition, translation, memorization, reading aloud practice, constant use of dictionary, non-mnemonic elaboration technique, additional reading materials, and word formation. Participants' actual beliefs (i.e. recommended strategies for teaching and learning vocabularies) did not show perfect, according to the components of the agreed upon conceptual model in this study, by that the vacuum of contextualization strategies and skills was an obvious issue. Table 2 illustrates categories and Table 3 shows some evidences found for research question One.

To answer the second research question, multiple data collection instruments including: one pre-observation interview, four classroom observations, and four stimulated recall interviews were used for each of the participants. Themes relevant to both teachers' perceptions about vocabulary instruction and their real practices in the classroom have been reported, as this fashion of organization was helpful to attain the best results pertinent to the questions of the study. The questions researchers in this study employed were mainly adopted from Borg (1998). Summary of findings for research question two indicates that all participants employ a group of selective strategies for teaching vocabulary in their classrooms. These strategies are as follows: synonym, antonym, definition, exemplification of words in sentences, translation, memorization, note taking, and reading words aloud in classroom. Such strategies in terms of degree of emphasis or frequency of application in the classroom were somehow different from those stated by participants as their actual beliefs and some predominant strategies (e.g. Constant use of dictionary, non-mnemonic elaboration techniques, additional reading materials, word formation, etc.) were missed to be employed in participants' real practice in the classroom. As the emerged themes from data are concerned, participants showed another belief (i.e. adopted belief) which is compatible with what they did in the classroom. According to the themes emerged from the data, participants have not received any focused and special education about vocabulary teaching in higher and teacher education

institutions before being graduated and a perfect competency in this respect has not been reflected in both their beliefs and practices in this study. Consequently, they might be in need for assistance. For example few language teachers do know how to teach a second language to children and this might require special training and education based on the learners' age and level of proficiency. Vocabulary teaching; therefore, is not an exception and for an optimal teaching condition teachers need more focused training in this respect and other similar curricular areas of language teaching. Table 4 exhibits the categories of EFL teachers' practices in vocabulary instruction in the classroom.

VI. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Participants' showed positive perceptions and understanding of vocabulary teaching through their accentuation on the significance and helpful role of vocabulary teaching strategies. Emphasizing on the application of selective strategies, participant teachers proved that they somehow believe in a dynamic way of teaching in which the employment of several strategies and skills can provide learners with better chances to learn vocabulary (Zimmerman, 1997). It was found plausible to look at participants' perceptions from the focal point of Shen's (2003) conceptual dynamic continuum model of various methodologies for vocabulary teaching and learning which is basically grounded on Oxford and Crookall's (1990) model. According to the emerged data from pre-observation interviews, participants' perceptions did not capture skills like listening, speaking, reading, and writing to a sufficient extent and they reflected more interest and tendency of application on strategies like translation, memorization, constant use of dictionary, word formation, etc. which almost emphasize on retention and are usually considered as decontextualized strategies). Many scholars and experts (e.g., Coady, 1993; Joe, Nation, & Newton, 1996; Nation & Coady, 1988) have brought to light the certain outcomes of employing contextualization strategies enabling learners to get target words as well as their contextual implications, perceive the meaning of them or retrieve them in long-term memory, make recognitions with respect to their appropriacy and use. Since predominant contextualization strategies were not brought in light by participants both in their beliefs and practices, it might be concluded that this is one of the possible area that requires modification in terms of both declarative knowledge and practical training. Such failures, in the context of language schools, may be traced in other factors as well and the researchers of this study do not strongly attribute shortcomings to the knowledge of EFL teachers since such issue requires more investigation. It almost seems that teachers' deviations from their actual beliefs were not totally found in their inability of vocabulary teaching. It looks as if policies implemented in the language schools, intentionally are towards more time economization and this has been mainly found to be responsible that teachers neglect contextualized vocabulary teaching and focusing on different aspects of vocabularies through various decontextualized approaches. Although this might appear as irrelevant to the aim of this study, the issue has been reported as it was found marginally in the process of the study through emerging themes. Considering that some approaches in vocabulary teaching requires communicative activities, cultural practice, practicing vocabulary through different skills, various feedbacks and interactions, etc., the importance of time and failure of participant teachers to cover relevant skills and activities then become apparent since. Grounded on the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study, and notwithstanding the participants' knowledge of vocabulary teaching, they need assistance and modification in some areas (e.g. contextualization strategies, language skills and approaches relevant for teaching vocabulary in contextualized fashion, collaborative and involvement strategies, pragmatic based tasks and activities with more focus on listening and speaking, etc.).

VII. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Results of this study can be informative for both language teachers and teacher education programs. It might also be beneficial for stakeholders in private sectors to include recent findings in their curriculum and especially in professional development courses to improve their programs. Participant teachers' practices proved that there is a gap between what they know about vocabulary teaching and what they actually do in classroom. Therefore, it seems that teachers need to get familiar with the requirements of real time situations with respect to how ideally vocabulary might be taught and the issues and practical problems that might hinder teaching what they want to teach. Despite the fact that teachers are outfitted with a pleasant actual perception as for how vocabulary can be taught effectively, they should be liberated from their second traditional and adopted convictions and comprehend the significance of language skills and other areas of language teaching in the advancement of vocabulary. Assistance might be provided with more focus on vocabulary teaching in a practical way through practicum courses to be realized and then be preceded through in-service trainings and professional development programs. Teachers must reflect on their works and those of their associates and turn out to be long life learners to have the capacity to examine weaknesses. Every one of these attempts may happen in higher and teacher education centers as they are in charge of information transmissions. The second implication might be fruitful for EFL language institutions which need to consider how to create reasonable functional in-service training courses relevant to the objectives of their textbooks with considering the instructional needs and wants of both teachers and learners. Therefore, it may be useful to for all intents and purposes include EFL instructors in workshops important to the goals of their works and familiarizing them with late research discoveries, fruitful methodologies of teaching in vocabulary teaching as a curricular area. Along these lines, EFL teachers would become interested enough to explore their own works as reflective teachers who will then keep up the policy of teachers as lifelong learners in all aspects of

their vocations. This research has been done within the interpretivist worldview with a qualitative methodology and then can be only adduced in comparable settings to the one research was led. Therefore, researchers are recommended to study the same subject with different research methodologies (e.g., mixed method, survey, etc.) to build the generalizability of the discoveries for better and large-scope policy and educational decision makings.

TABLE 2:
FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO THE FIRST RESEARCH QUESTION IN BRIEF

Strategy/ Core category based on Shen's (2003) Model	Strategy/ Category based on Shen's (2003) Model	Category (Techniques/Activities/ strategy)	Example themes Emerged from data
Decontextualized strategies	Word lists	Translation Synonyms Antonyms Memorization Making notes Mnemonic	Using known words to understand unknown words- Persian equivalents - similar word - alternative expression - opposite word –writing notes with your own words, visual recall through notes, replacement word -simple known word, - using sounds and images to better retain words, etc.
	Flashcards (Gloss)	Definition Simple explanation	Explaining unknown words- describing difficult words – using more simple words – unfolding hard words – writing words and their meanings on cards, writing down definitions, etc.
	Dictionary use	Word-analysis Word formation Dictionary	Different forms of words – parts of speech- verbs – adjectives- adverbs- nouns – prefixes- suffixes- word stem, using dictionary, understanding word aspects through dictionary, etc.
Semi-contextualized strategies	Word grouping, Association	Chunk Words' relationships Related words	Words used in similar fields- words from the same family- Connotative words- relating words to each other – group of words related to one word , story making with related words, etc.
	Visual imagery, Aural imaginary, Physical response, Physical sensation, Semantic mapping	Ø	Ø No themes were emerged from data
Contextualized strategies	Reading, Speaking, Listening, Writing (Skills)	Read aloud Contextual clues More context Non-Mnemonic Elaboration Lexical out put Lexical input Lexical use	Audio lingual context, inferring meanings, guessing meanings, more context through more reading material, meaningful clarification of words, clarifying the words through examples, less reliance on memory through elaboration, lexical input and output, lexical use, listening practice, writing words in sentences, using words in oral production to link them with other words, etc.

TABLE 3:
EVIDENCE FOUND FOR RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

Category (Techniques/Activities/ strategy)	Some Example Evidences From Participants
Synonym	"In most cases, using simple equivalents or synonyms are better to be used before translating the unknown word" (Participant 1).
Definition	" I believe that defining words not only leads learners to better comprehension, but also it would be effective for learning more words in a the minimum context of that definition" (Participant 2)
Translation	"Usually translation works better since it removes misconceptions. Learners cannot understand whatever definitions and explanations given for help, and more that we as teachers do not have more time to spend on every single elements of the course and we should cover it within the time limit determined for us" (Participant 3, Dec.2016).
Memorization	"Memorization of words is an easy approach for students to apply. It does not take the time of the classroom and students only need to focus." (Participant 4, Dec.2016).
Reading aloud practice	"Reading aloud helps learners learn better through involving their other senses and it helps memory at the time of speaking to remember words and their pronunciations" (Participant 1, Dec, 2016).
Constant use of dictionary	"I always advise my students not to leave down dictionary and constantly put your eyes on the definitions, examples, function of words, pronunciation keys, etc. To help students become independent to find out the meaning of words and practice on their own, dictionary use is the best strategy since lots of opportunities will be created and new word formations as well as new vocabularies are incidentally come into view for learners" (Participant, 2).
Non-Mnemonic Elaboration Technique	"Teachers must meaningfully clarify for learners how the words are different or used. Clarifying the problems of students through examples can help them learn words better. With little reliance on memory through elaboration and semantic mapping students can learn sooner and better" (Participant, 3).
More reading (More context)	"More reading materials are needed for learners to increase: their guessing ability of meanings in different contexts, greater number of words in different topics, their familiarity with pragmatics and use of the words. Reading can help learners more than other skills" (Participant, 4).
Word formation	"To help learners know wider range of vocabulary as well as their usages teachers need to help learners to deal with such cases in a dictionary"(Participant 3).

TABLE 4:
FINDINGS WITH RESPECT TO THE SECOND QUESTION IN BRIEF

Strategy Core category based on Shen's (2003) Model	Strategy (Category) based on Shen's (2003) Model	Categories emerged from interviews, field notes, etc.
Decontextualized strategies	Word lists	Synonym Antonym Definition
	Flashcards (Gloss)	Translation Memorization Making Notes
Contextualized strategies	Read aloud	Reading texts and stories aloud in classroom
	Non-Mnemonic	Exemplification of words in sentences

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Symbolic Sounds in *Ulysses**

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Abstract—Reading *Ulysses*, all kinds of sounds impinge on our ears from all sides. They may be human or nonhuman, loud or low, soft or rough, funny or ridiculous. This paper will explore the different symbolic or metaphorical implications of two distinctive sounds: the church bells and the jingling sound. It seems that few Joycean scholars have attended to Joyce's manipulating of sounds and their unique stylistic and aesthetic effects, and this paper from a perspective of cognitive phonetics and cognitive psychology, finds that the church bells are the overtone of death, and the jingling sound as well as the tapping sound reveals one major theme of the novel: sexuality.

Index Terms—*Ulysses*, symbolic sounds, overtone of death, sexuality

I. INTRODUCTION

Ulysses takes us into the external and internal worlds of Leopold Bloom; we see through his eyes, hear through his ears and think through his thoughts. All through the book, all kinds of sounds impinge on our ears from all sides. They may be human or nonhuman, loud or low, soft or rough, funny or ridiculous, such as the callings of the cat, the chimings of the bells of George's church, the various sounds of the printing machines, of percussion instruments, of the hackney, of the audience's applause, of the clinking glasses, of the blind tuner's "tepping-tapping", and above all, of Bloom's unbecoming farting.

Sound here is used in its broad sense, referring to something that is or may be heard, or something that causes a sensation in the ear, or a quality of something that is read or heard. Usually we value too much our own speech sounds and too little those non-human sounds. We consider the latter as "muddling sounds", and tend to overlook them. But Joyce is quite a queer writer who has developed an overt preference for those minutiae or those "muddling" sounds in life. It seems that few Joycean scholars have attended to Joyce's manipulating of sounds and their unique stylistic and aesthetic effects. "Cognitive phonetics deals with the mental processes involved in encoding and decoding the final stages of the transformation of thought to sound. It involves what needs to be invoked when inputting an idealised phonological requirement with a view to outputting a sound wave which has to be decoded back to some copy as little degraded as necessary of the original thought." (Tatham, 1990, p. 209) And this paper, from a perspective of cognitive phonetics and cognitive psychology, will explore the different symbolic or metaphorical implications of two distinctive sounds: the church bells and the jingling sound.

II. THE CHURCH BELLS: AN OVERTONE OF DEATH

At the end of Episode 4 "Calypso", Bloom walks out and hears the bells of George's church:

A creak and a dark whirr in the air high up. The bells of George's church. They tolled the hour: loud dark iron.

Heigho! Heigho!

Heigho! Heigho!

Heigho! Heigho!

Quarter to. There again: the overtone following through the air, third.

Poor Dignam! (4: 85)¹

"Heigho!" is the bell sound to announce the time in the Westminster pattern: each phrase of four notes indicates a quarter hour, and at the end of the hour, after four phrases, a low bell tells the number of hours. But the church bells here are not only indicating the morning time 8: 45 a.m., but "throughout the day Bloom will associate this sound with his acquaintance Paddy Dignam, who has died, and with Dignam's funeral" and "the phrase that went through Stephen's mind at the end of 'Telemachus' ('Liliata rutilantium'), also associated with death"². "Liliata rutilantium... chorus excipiat" (1: 11) appears twice in Episode 1, once in Episodes 9, 15 and 17 respectively. It is a Latin prayer for the dying and it goes: "May the glittering throng of confessors, bright as lilies, gather about you. May the glorious choir of

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¹ This refers to chapter and page numbers, 8: 11 means Chapter 8, Page 11 in *Ulysses*(James Joyce, 1996), and all the other examples follow the same format.

² <http://www.robotwisdom.com/jaj/ulysses/notes04.html#calypso>. 2003. 3.

virgins receive you.” (Gifford & Seidman, 1988, p. 27) So the church bells are metaphorically used, predicting Bloom’s gloomy day and symbolizing death, and moreover, I proceed to argue that the church bells function as an overtone of death and other images of death as echoing leitmotifs in the novel. “Overtone” here refers to “one of the higher tones produced simultaneously with the fundamental and that with the fundamental comprise a complex musical tone”. (*Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary*³, 2002)

Episode 4 is a chapter to introduce Leopold Bloom, a key character in the novel. The scene is Bloom’s house, 7 Eccles Street, in the northwest quadrant of Dublin. Bloom is preparing breakfast for himself and his wife (and the cat) before departing for Paddy Dignam’s funeral. The jingling springs of the bed upstairs announce that his wife Molly is awake. He muses upon the source of the bed: it came, like Molly, from Gibraltar. He goes out to buy a pork kidney he likes very much. On the way, he daydreams on a range of themes, and fantasizes about women he sees, muses about the exotic Mediterranean. He hurries home, picking up mail on the doorsteps: one letter from his daughter Milly, another for his wife from Blazes Boylan, who is both the organizer of a concert tour which features Molly and, at present, her lover. Bloom scorches his kidney, then goes out to the outlet house, and then he hears the church bell.

Before the bell strikes, Joyce describes: “A creak and a dark whirr... high up”, “toll’d the hour”, “loud dark iron”. After the bell, there is the creaking lingering sound of “the overtone following through the air, third”. All these words or phrases carry negative implications, suggesting a sort of dark, gloomy and horrible atmosphere. It is really an ill omen to Bloom at the early morning and it will naturally remind him of Poor Dignam’s funeral in Episode 6. It predicts that Bloom will spend a blue day. As expected, Bloom has had the most miserable day: his wife’s adultery with Boylan, his being despised and wronged by some radical nationalists, almost being hit on the head by the citizen in Episode 12, and so on. Despite all these humiliations and mishaps, to our great relief, Bloom never gives up, never loses confidence and finally reaches his home like Ulysses. Throughout the day, Bloom and other characters will associate this metaphorical sound with Dignam’s funeral, and with death in particular. For examples:

Callan, Coleman, Dignam Patrick. Heigho! Heigho! Fawcett. Aha! Hust I was looking... (11: 360)

THE BRACELETS: Heigho! Heigho! (15: 678)

What echoes of that sound were by both and each heard?

By Stephen:

Liliata rutilantium. Turma circumdet.

*Iubilantium te virginum. Chorus excipiat.*⁴

By Bloom:

Heigho, Heigho,

Heigho, Heigho. (17: 826—827)

The “Heigho, Heigho” sound turns up here and there in Episodes 11, 15 and 17 of the novel, functioning as one of the themes of the novel. There are other leitmotifs to reinforce the theme, for examples, the recurrent Latin phrase “Liliata rutilantium”—suggesting of death, and Paddy Dignam’s name mentioned a dozen of times in the interior monologues, in the utterances of characters, and even in Molly’s stream of consciousness “poor Paddy Dignam all the same” (18: 920). Stephen’s cliché “Agenbite of Inwit” (1: 18) is also associated with his mother’s death. This Middle English phrase means “remorse of conscience.” “Agenbite of Inwit” (1340) is a medieval manual of virtues and vices, intended to remind the layman of the hierarchy of sins and the distinctions among them. (Gifford & Seidman, 1988, p. 22) What’s more, there are a lot of persons, things and objects related to the subject of death all through the novel. Please consider the following examples:

[Bloom] —O no, Mr Bloom said. *Poor Dignam*, you know. The *funeral* is today. (5: 89)

[M’Coy] —*What’s wrong with him?* He said. *He’s dead*, he said.... *Is it Paddy Dignam?* I said....*Yes*, he said. *He’s gone. He died on Monday, poor fellow.* (5: 90)

[Bloom’s monologue] A fellow could live on his lonesome all his life. Yes, he could. Still he’d have to get someone to sod him after he *died* though he could dig his own *grave*. We all so. Only man *buries*. No ants too. First thing strikes anybody. Bury the *dead*. (6: 138)

[Bloom’s monologue] *Poor papa* with his hagadah book, reading back-wards with his finger to me. Pessach. (7: 155)

[Bloom’s monologue] Brains on their sleeve like the statue in *Glasnevin*. (7: 159)

[Bloom’s monologue] Those two loonies mooching about. *Dignam* carted off. Mina Purefoy swollen belly on a bed groaning to have a child tugged out of her. One born every second somewhere. Other *dying* every second. (8: 208)

[Stephen’s monologue] *Mother’s deathbed*. Candle. The sheeted mirror. Who brought me into this world lies there, bronelidded, under few cheap flowers. *Liliata rutilantium*. (9: 243) (the first italics mine, the second original)

[Stephen’s monologue]... Who let Him *bury*, stood up, harrowed *hell*, fared into heaven ...but yet shall come in the latter day to doom the quick and *dead* when all the quick shall be *dead* already. (9: 253)

[John Conmee’s monologue] What was that boy’s name again? *Dignam*, yes. Vere dignum et justum est.⁵ (10: 280)

³ <http://www.m-w.com/cgi-bin/dictionary?book=Dictionary&va=overtone>. 2004,11.

⁴ Latin: “May the glittering throng of confessors, bright as lilies, gather about you. May the glorious choir of virgins receive you. May the glorious choir of virgins receive you”. The *Layman’s Missal* (Baltimore, Md., 1962) quotes this as one part of Prayers for the Dying and remarks, “In the absence of a priest, these prayers for commending a dying person to God, may be read by any responsible person, man or woman”. (Gifford & Seidman, 1988: 19)

[Master Dignam's monologue] A big *coffin* it was, and high and heavylooking.... That was *Dignam*, my father. (10: 324)

[Bloom's monologue] Callan, Coleman, *Dignam Patrick. Heigho! Heigho!* Fawcett. Aha! Just I was looking... (11: 360)

[Bloom's monologue] Waken the *dead*. Pom. *Dignam*. Poor little *nominedomine*⁶. Pom. (11: 374) (the first two italics mine, the second original)

[Joe] –Don't you know he's *dead*? Says Joe. (11: 388)

[Alf] –*Paddy Dignam dead*? Says Alf. (11: 388)

[off-scene narrator] He is gone from mortal haunts: O' *Dignam*, sun of our morning. (11: 390)

These italicized words and phrases are explicitly or implicitly related to the deceased Dignam or death. The death theme is actually pervasive in the whole novel, let alone the numerous allusions to dead figures. Related examples in Episodes 1–3, though not listed here, are also involved in the matter of death in a way, for example, the drowning case in the first episode. If we say all these images of death function as leitmotifs, then the “Heigho” sound is the overtone higher than the fundamental. What's more, Episode 6 “Hades” is a special chapter about the subject of death.

At nearly 11 a.m., Bloom enters a funeral carriage with other friends to attend Paddy Dignam's funeral, and there four people in the carriage: Jack Power, Martin Cunningham, Simon Dedalus (Stephen's father) and Bloom. Joyce called the technique of Episode 6 “incubism”. An incubus is an evil spirit who causes nightmares and worse by lying on top of the sleeper, so one supposes the writing is intended to produce a nightmarish effect by heavy repetition and emphasis on death. It is certainly successful in this: not only is every aspect of death and decay discussed gruesomely and vividly, but there are many oblique or hidden references to death, especially to the failure of the heart, which is the organ of the episode. “The chapter might be centered on the traditional rhyme of *womb* and *tomb*. ‘In the midst of life we are in death’, as ‘The Burial of the Dead’ in the Prayer Book puts it; but here in the midst of death there is lots of life.” (Hodgart, 1983, p. 86) So for Joyce, there is a dialectical relationship between life and death, that is, “in the midst of death there is lots of life.”

Piled on the images of death over the novel is the distinctive overtone of death which “with the fundamental comprise a complex musical tone” of death. The “Heigho” sound plays a dark or gloomy keynote for the whole novel. Such an overtone of death lends itself to presenting before us an actual Dublin at the turn of the 20th century, which “seems to contain no healthy institution, to permit no satisfying way of life” and which “has an aura of despair, poverty, drunkenness, and waste”. (French, 1982, p. 30) The keynote of death provides a good answer to the question why the church circle could not stand Joyce and his *Ulysses* 80 years ago. At the end of *A Portrait*, Stephen (Joyce's mouthpiece) told his friend Cranly: “When the soul of a man is born in this country there are nets flung at it to hold it back from flight. You talk to me of nationality, language, religion. I shall try to fly by those nets.... Ireland is the old sow that eats her farrow.” (Joyce, 1996(a), p. 184-185) Later, he said, “I will not serve that in which I no longer believe whether it calls itself my home, my fatherland or my church”. (Joyce, 1996(a), p. 222) Joyce's biting sarcasm and fierce attacks on Dublin's society and the Catholic church find full expression in the above-quoted words and the church bells in particular.

III. THE “JINGLING” SOUNDS: SUGGESTING SEXUALITY

Episode 11 “Sirens” is set at 4 p.m. and the scene is the Concert Room—the saloon at the bar and restaurant of the Ormond Hotel. The Ormond bar was a favorite haunt of Dublin's amateur musicians, and the saloon was frequently the setting for the small concerts that were popular at the turn of the century and in which the distinction between amateur and professional was not of much importance. This episode is known as a chapter of songs and musical allusions, but I will leave them for the time being. Besides songs and musical allusions, the episode, in fact, is rife with sounds: the singing and the playing of piano, the recurrent tapping sound of the piano-tuner's cane. There are other sounds as well: hoofs ringing, coins clanging, clocks whirring and clacking, garters smacking, the bar patrons applauding “Clapclipclip clap” and “Clapclapclap” and crying, among their bravos, “Sound as a bell”, and so on. Blazes Boylan is represented throughout by his “Jingle. Jingle.” When characters grunt, snuffle, shriek, huff, snort, sniff, sigh, ruffle, splutter, cough and “plapper flatly”, Bloom even makes a loud farting sound “Prrrppfirppff!” “Sirens,” appropriately enough, is an episode that asks to be approached first and foremost through the listening ear. Of all those sounds, the “jingling” sound of the hackney is particularly distinctive, suggesting another theme of the novel: sexuality.

The jingling sound almost reverberates in the ear while reading *Ulysses*. I have entered three key words “**jingle**”, “**jingled**” and “**jingling**” into *Concordance Text Search*⁷ and have obtained the following results:

jingle (total: 7)

132.45⁸ prints, silkdames and dowagers, **jingle** of harnesses, hoofhuds lowringing (8: 213)

203.29 Jingle **jingle** jaunted jingling. (11: 329)

⁵ Latin: “It is indeed fitting and right”; the opening phrase of the preface, which begins the Eucharist (the canon or central section of the Mass). (Gifford & Seidman, 1988: 260)

⁶ Latin: “in the name of God” (ibid: 294)

⁷ <http://www.grand-teton.com/cgi-bin/jjoyce/omnisearch.cgi?> 2004, 11.

⁸ The page numbers on the left are the results of the retrieval, those on the right mine.

- 208.68 Jingle jaunty **jingle**. (11:337)
 216.22 Jiggedy **jingle** jaunty jaunty. (11: 349)
 223.2 Great Brunswick street, hatter. Eh? This is the **jingle** that joggled and (11: 361)
 358.30 negroid hands **jingle** the twingtwang wires. Flashing white kaffir (15: 573)
 379.19 The brass quoits of a bed are heard to **jingle**. (15: 595)
jingling (total: 7)
 48.89 She set the brasses **jingling** as she raised herself briskly, an elbow on (4:76)
 102.32 **jingling** his keys in his back pocket. They jingled then in the air and against (7: 165)
 203.29 Jingle jingle jaunted **jingling**. (11: 329)
 377.33 (stamps her **jingling** spurs in a sudden paroxysm of fury) (15: 593)
 474.17 has cleared off From the left arrives a **jingling** hackney car. It slows (15: 685)
 492.27 that he is reassuraloomtay. The tinkling hoofs and **jingling** harness (15: 701)
 626.16 bed too **jingling** like the dickens I suppose they could hear us away over (18: 914)
jingled (total: 5)
 43.47 softer, as she turned over and the loose brass quoits of the bedstead **jingled**. (4: 67)
 102.32 jingling his keys in his back pocket. They **jingled** then in the air and against (7: 165)
 215.2 By Bachelor's walk jogjaunty **jingled** Blazes Boylan, bachelor, in sun (11: 347)
 223.4 **jingled**. By Dlugacz' porkshop bright tubes of Agendath trotted a (11: 361)
 515.15 scooped anyway for new foothold after sleep and harness **jingled**. Slightly (16: 739)

Among these 19 examples, there are three repetitions: "Jingle **jingle** jaunted jingling" (11: 329), "**jingling** his keys in his back pocket..." (7: 165) and "**jingled**. By Dlugacz' porkshop." (11: 347) By the way, the search results are by no means conclusive and it seems that the internet is also confused by so many "jingling" sounds in the book. For example, just in "Sirens" episode, there are 15 more "jingling" sounds (not including repetitions):

Jingle.

—With the greatest alacrity, Miss Douce agreed. (11: 336)

With patience Lenehan waited for Boylan with impatience, for **jingle** jaunty blazes boy. (11: 339)

Jingling on supple rubbers it jaunted from the bridge to Ormond quay. (11: 339)

Jingle haunted by the curb and stopped. (11: 340)

Jingle a tinkle jaunted. (11: 345)

Bloom heard a **jing**, a little sound. He's off. Light sob of breath Bloom sighed on the silent bluehued flower. **Jingling**. He's gone. **Jingle**. Hear. (11: 345)

Jingle haunted down the quays. Blazes sprawled on bounding tyres. (11: 346)

jingledy jiggedy (11:349)

By Graham Lemon's pineapple rocks, by every's elephant **jingle** jogged. (11: 350)

Touch water. **Jingle** jaunty. (11: 351)

Jingle all delighted. He can't sing for tall hats. (11: 353)

Jingle by monuments of sir John Gray, Horatio onehanded Nelson, reverend father Theobald Matthew, jaunted as said before just now. (11: 356)

Write me a long. Do you despise? **Jingle**, have you the? (11: 360)

This is the **jingle** that joggled and **jingled**. (11: 361)

Jog **jig** jogged stopped. Dandy tan shoe of dandy Boylan socks skyblue clocks came light to earth. (11: 364)

A "jingle" is a two-wheeled horsedrawn carriage and "jaunted" refers to making a short pleasure journey. A "jingle" easily reminds us of the happy song "Jingle Bells" by John Pierpont (1785—1866), particularly the phrases "Laughing all the way" in the first verse and "Take the girls tonight" in the third and the chorus: "Jingle bells! Jingle bells! / Jingle all the way!" What a nice jingling! But what does Joyce imply in this context? To answer the question, we need to examine the "jingling" sounds all over the book. The "jingling" motif starts from the jingling bed frame (4: 67, 76), goes through Episodes 7, 11, 15 and 17, and ends with Molly's stream of conscious (18: 914, 917). Episode 11 is a chorus of jinglings and they appear over 30 times. From Molly's three more pieces of monologue, we may know more about the jingling bed:

No. She did not want anything. He heard then a warm heavy sigh, softer, as she turned over and the loose brass quoits of the bedstead **jingled**. Must get those settled really. Pity. All the way from Gibraltar. Forgotten any little Spanish she knew. Wonder what her father gave for it. Old style. Ah yes, of course. Bought it at the governor's auction. Got a short knock. Hard as nails at a bargain, old Tweedy. Yes, sir. At Plevna that was. I rose from the ranks, sir, and I'm proud of it. Still he had brains enough to make that corner in stamps. Now that was farseeing. (4: 67)

... this damned old bed too **jingling** like the dickens I suppose they could hear us away over the other side of the park till I suggested to put the quilt on the floor with the pillow under my bottom I wonder is it nicer in the day I think it is easy I think Ill cut all this hair off me.... (18: 914)

now the lumpy old **jingly** bed always reminds me old Cohen I suppose.... (18: 917)

It turns out that the jingling brass bed comes a good way from Gibraltar where Molly spent her innocent girlhood and where her father bought the "old style" bed at a cheap price at the governor's auction and sent it as a wedding gift to the

young couple 16 years ago. What annoys them is that the bed is always betraying their sensual joys by making incessant obstinate jingling noises, so Molly is worried about that “they could hear us away over the other side of the park” and she comes up with a good idea “to put the quilt on the floor with the pillow under my bottom”. It is natural that both Bloom and Molly are accustomed and sensitive to the jingling sound, which is likely to be an amusing secret code about their bed affairs. So the “jingling” sound is a symbol of sex understood tacitly by Bloom and Molly, and even by Boylan. Then, why are there so many jingling sounds in Episode 11?

The “Siren” episode takes place at 4 p.m., the exact time that Molly and Boylan will have their tryst. But for Bloom, and it is certainly the worst time of the day. What’s more, Bloom cannot escape hearing about Molly’s upcoming tour with Boylan. Now the poor dog chooses to “eat” his sorrows down at the bar overhearing the Concert Room. The bar is boiling with clicking cups and flirtatious giggles and loud musical notes. Bloom is busy himself with food: “Leopold cut liverslices. As said before he ate with relish the inner organs, nutty gizzards, fried cod’s roes while Richie Goulding, Collis, Ward ate steak and kidney, steak then kidney, bite by bite of pie he ate Bloom ate they ate.” (11: 347) All the time, his head goes wild with the jingling sounds, with Boylan’s “bounding tyres” and jingling bell, with Molly, above all with sex. On the contrary, Boylan is beaming with pride and complacency on his face. At the end of Episode 10, we see him first buying flowers at the flower store, then coming “jauntily Blazes Boylan, stepping in tan shoes and socks” in a hackney (10: 327), humming “My Girl’s a Yorkshire Girl”, then having a short stay at the bar, and jingling proudly away.

The “jingling bed” motif—sexuality, is one of the themes of the novel. It is developed midway through *Ulysses*, foreshadowing the treatment of the marriage bed in “Penelope”. In the previous episode “Scylla and Charybdis”, Stephen’s Shakespearean criticism also deals with the motif by expounding upon Ann Hathaway’s infidelity and the “secondbest bed” bequeathed to her by her playwright husband. The “jingle jingle” of the loose (and unfaithful) bed of Penelope/Molly becomes the “jaunted jingling” of the wandering Ulysses/Bloom’s absent “jingling” key. “Jingle jingle” mirrors the alliteration of Blazes Boylan’s name and parodies his cocky swagger into the Ormond. By the way, “blazes” is a euphemism for “Hell” or “the Devil”. “Go to blue blazes” means “Go to Hell!”

Some traditional critics condemn Molly as a dirty lascivious woman and as a negative example quite different from the original Penelope in *The Odyssey* whose marital devotion is unmatched; others argue that Molly is a new manly woman who is brave enough to challenge the die-hard old ideas about sexuality. For long, Joyce’s sexuality has been one of the heated topics and it calls for further studies.

A “tap” sound starts where the jingling ends. The rhythmic sound rings 15 times in the last 7 pages of the “Siren” episode. It gradually gains in frequency from one “tap”, two “taps”... to 8 “taps” at its climax. (11: 373) This sound originally comes from the tapping cane of the blind piano-tuner of the Ormond bar. “Tap blind walked tapping by the tap the curbstone tapping, tap tap.” (11: 372) Bloom’s ears are stuffed throughout the episode with the “Tap” sound. Naturally, Bloom will associate it with sounds in the bar. Miss Douce’s response to Simon Dedalus’ inquiry about her holidays is “Tiptop”; the waiter’s name, “Pat,” is “tap” reversed.

Ridiculously Bloom even imagines Boylan’s intercourse with Molly as “Tipping her tepping her tapping her topping her”. (11: 354) According to Gifford and Seidman (1988, p. 303), all of these *t-p* “verbs” have in common the archaic meaning: to copulate as animals. To “tup” and to “tip” mean “to copulate as a ram does”. To “top” means to cover as an animal covers, and both “tap” and “tep” are dialect variants of “top”. “Tipping” is also a musical term for double-tonguing. It is not surprising that sex is on Bloom’s mind; he is trying desperately not to think about his wife’s tryst with Blazes Boylan, which he knows is taking place during this episode, but he fails. Erotic overtones are not limited to Bloom’s thoughts, however; they pervade all of the language of “Sirens”. This complex web of rhythmic sound correspondences creates a kind of “invading flow” of accumulated meanings, so that the repeated “tap” of the piano-tuner’s cane, for example, evokes Boylan’s intercourse with Molly, as well as Boylan’s knock on the door of 7 Eccles Street—“One rapped on a door, one tapped with a knock, did he knock Paul de Kock with a loud proud knocker with a cock carracarracarra cock.” (11: 364).

Besides those distinctive sounds, everything speaks in its own way: the sound of glasses in the Ormond bar (“Tschink. Tschink”, 11: 330); Bloom’s body noises (e.g. “Ppprrpffrrppff”, 11: 376), the clapping sound (“Clapclap. Clipclap. Clappyclap.” 11: 330), Bloom’s imagined sound of Molly’s water (Diddleiddle addleaddle ooddleoodle. Hissss.” 11: 364); the noise of the printing presses in “Aeolus” (“Silt”, 7: 154); numerous objects in “Circe” which have their own speaking parts: cooing kisses and wailing gaets (“Pfuuuuuuu”) and the train whistle in Molly’s monologue in the last episode (“Frseeeeeeeefronning train”, 18: 894). Indeed, *Ulysses* creates a world of sounds.

IV. SUMMARY

Generally, these “muddling” sounds in *Ulysses* are playful, musical, emotional and expressive. But it seems that few Joycean scholars have attended to Joyce’s manipulating of sounds and their unique stylistic and aesthetic effects, and this paper, from a perspective of cognitive phonetics and cognitive psychology, finds that a few foregrounded sounds carry some rich symbolic or metaphorical implications, i.e. the church bells suggesting the overtone of death, and the jingling sound as well as the tapping sound implying one major theme of the novel: sexuality. “Joyce’s abandonment of the church consisted in a shift of ideas that both he and his brother described as a shift from belief in a God to a belief in the sexual instincts that make up the human spirit.... Wherever Joyce’s reading took him (to Blake and Defoe; to the

mystical fictions of W. B. Yeats; to his earliest and strongest authority, Ibsen; to the Bible, Aquinas and esoteric theology; or to Shakespeare and Homer in whom he invested the full imaginative energy of his mature years) he found a confirmation of his interest in sexuality and he shows his own preoccupation with each author's treatment of sex." (Brown, 1990, p. 126) The theme of sex permeates not only in "Sirens" but also other episodes of the novel.

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The Relationship between Spiritual Intelligence and Efficacy among Iranian EFL Teachers

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Abstract—Owing to the importance of teacher’s impact on the students’ motivation, achievement, and academic success, this study is an attempt to explore the relationship between EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers’ spiritual intelligence and their level of efficacy. To this end, two questionnaires, the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory (SIRI-24) (King, 2008), and the ELT Teacher Efficacy Instrument (ELTEI) (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014), were distributed among 148 male and female EFL teachers working at different contexts including university, school, and private language institute in Mashad, Quchan, Shirvan, and Qaemshahr, Iran. Pearson product-moment correlation and an independent T-test were used for analysis of the data. The findings of the study revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between teacher spiritual intelligence and teacher efficacy. Moreover, there is a significant difference between male and female teachers regarding their personal meaning production.

Index Terms—efficacy, EFL teachers, spiritual intelligence

I. INTRODUCTION

The success or failure of each society is dependent on education and teachers lie at the heart of every educational system. Consequently, to have a successful society, teachers should be paid more attention. Wright, Hom, and Sanders (1997) also expressed “more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor” (p. 63). Regarding the fact that teachers play a major role in guiding and educating students, most researchers have examined the factors which affect teaching. One of the important factors is the teachers’ efficacy referring to the teacher’s belief about his or her abilities to perform an action successfully (Bandura, 1997). Teacher’s efficacy is one of the characteristics of successful teachers (Bandura, 1997) which plays a significant role in schooling (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998), and affects on the learners’ achievement (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 1998; Yazici, Seyis, & Altun, 2011), performance (Henson, 2001) and self-efficacy (Anderson, Greene, & Loewen, 1988). Sense of efficacy affects on teacher’s behavior; teachers who have a high sense of efficacy are more patient with student’s errors (Ashton & Webb, 1986), try new methods (Stein & Wang 1988), have an avid interest in teaching (Guskey, 1984), and dedicate more time to difficult students (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

The other factor which affects on teachers’ accomplishment is spiritual intelligence. The importance of spiritual intelligence in educational settings and its effects on teachers’ effectiveness (George & Visvam 2013; Rani & Chahal, 2016), critical thinking (Azizi, & Azizi, 2015), academic achievement (George & Visvam 2013), and job satisfaction (Kaur, 2013; Zamani & Karimi, 2015) have been highlighted. Teachers with high level of spiritual intelligence understand students’ feeling, try to support them and teach them how to control their emotions (Rani & Chahal 2017), as well as how to think critically and creatively (George & Visvam, 2013). It was also pointed out students with higher level of spiritual intelligence gain benefit from more self-esteem and English language proficiency (Aghaei, Behjat, & Rostampour, 2014).

Considering the vital role of teachers in any educational systems and the impact of the two above stated construct (self- efficacy and spiritual intelligence) on teachers, most researchers published many books and articles on these issues. In spite of many studies conducted on the relationship between self-efficacy and spiritual intelligence of different participants (nurses, midwives, students, managers and so on), as far as the researchers have investigated only few studies have considered the relationship between the teacher’s efficacy and their spiritual intelligence. Furthermore, those few studies (Jafari, Mahmoudi, & Ziyaei, 2015) have used the questionnaires which are not specific to the context of EFL teaching.

To tackle the above mentioned problems, this study intended to explore the relationship between the teachers’ spiritual intelligence and efficacy level using ELT Context-Specific Teacher Efficacy Instrument (Akbari & Tavassoli, 2014). In keeping with the purpose of the study, the following research questions were raised:

- 1- Is there any significant relationship between EFL teacher’s spiritual intelligence and their efficacy level?
- 2- Is there any statistically significant difference between male and female EFL teachers regarding their spiritual intelligence?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A brief review of the related studies on the two construct and the significant research data published in this field is presented in the following section.

A. *Spiritual Intelligence*

Though emotional intelligence was the fundamental issue at the beginning of the twentieth century, attention was turned to spiritual intelligence by the end of the century. Goleman (as cited in Zohar & Marshal, 2000) noted emotional intelligence helps the person to identify the situation in which he is, and to behave proper to that situation, while spiritual intelligence helps him to ask if he is satisfied with the situation or should he change the situation to a better one. Gardner (1983) expressed seven types of intelligence (linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, body-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligence), but Zohar and Marshal (2000) believe all types of intelligences could be subsumed under the three basic intelligences including intelligence quotient, emotional quotient, and spiritual quotient. Intelligence quotient and emotional quotient exist in computers and animals respectively, while spiritual intelligence is a type of intelligence which is dedicated to human beings (Zohar & Marshal, 2000). Unlike intelligence quotient which is fixed, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence could be improved with training (Singh & Sinah, 2013). Furthermore, Vaughan (2002) pointed out each person has the capability to develop spiritual intelligence.

With the advent of spiritual intelligence as an ultimate intelligence, most of the publication was dedicated to this topic. One of the great articles was written by Robert Emmons in 2000. In his article, Emmons proposed a model of spiritual intelligence which comprised of five components. King (2008) criticized Emmons' model for failing to discriminate spirituality from religiosity. He further explained the basis of Emmons' model was on religion instead of spirituality. King (2008) defined spiritual intelligence as a set of mental capacities contributing "to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one's existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states" (p. 56).

Most researches have been conducted on the concept of spiritual intelligence with different perspectives. Several glaring inconsistencies were considered in the previous reports regarding the difference in the level of spiritual intelligence in male and female participants. Yousefi, Bakhtiarnia, and Robatjazi (2013) reported a higher level of spiritual intelligence in female participants in comparison with their male counterparts, while in Gupta's (2012) report, the males' spiritual intelligence was higher than the females one, and there was no significant difference in Zhaleh and Ghonsooli's (2017) findings in this regard.

B. *Teacher Efficacy*

The concept of efficacy rooted in both Rotter's (1966) locus of control and Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory. Rotter noted two different views including whether the person regards a reward as a result of his action (internal control) or as an event which is not related to his behavior and is dependent on fate and luck (external control). Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) pointed out that teachers who believe in their capabilities to help the difficult student are confident that they can control the stimulus of teaching, whereas those who are discouraged about their abilities to overcome the effect of environment on students' outcome have external locus of control. Moreover, they expressed teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy believe they could affect on students' learning.

Bandura (as cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998) refers to teacher efficacy as a type of self-efficacy. He defined perceived self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p.3). Bandura (1997) made a distinction between perceived self-efficacy and Rotter's (1966) locus of control. He emphasized that self-efficacy refers to one's judgment about his capabilities to perform an action, while locus of control is the person's belief that the outcome is the consequence of action, in other words, locus of control refers to the causal relationship between action and outcome. He exemplified that a person may believe that an outcome is consequence of a particular action but at the same time is not certain about his abilities to perform that action.

Self-efficacy affects not only on the selection of action but also on the effort that one put into doing something, therefore, those with higher level of efficacy are more active and labor intensive and vice versa (Atay 2007). Bandura (1982) also pointed out the perception of self-efficacy affects on the extent of effort they exert when encountering problems; those with high level of self-efficacy endeavor to solve the problems, whereas those who have a low level of efficacy abandon their attempt.

Significant data published on self-efficacy indicated a positive relationship not only between the teacher's self-efficacy and students' motivation and achievement (Mojavesi & Poodineh Tamiz, 2012), but also between some components of teacher's self-efficacy and reflective teaching (Babaei & Abednia, 2016). Moreover, a negative relationship reported between the teachers' self-efficacy and the teacher's burn out (Savaş, Bozgeyik, & Eser, 2014; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), and stress (Vaezi & Fallah, 2011). There was a discrepancy between the teachers' self-efficacy and the years of teaching experience in the past reports. Some studies reported a positive relationship between

the two construct (Giallo & Little, 2003; Hartfield, 2011) while the others rejected such association (Alavinia & Kurosh, 2012; Rastegar and Memarpour, 2009).

C. *Teacher Self-efficacy and Spiritual Intelligence*

The relationship between spiritual intelligence and self-efficacy has been explored in different contexts. A brief review of the findings is represented in the following section.

Abadi, Jadidi, Iran Nejad, and Pourandish (2016) reported a correlation between spiritual intelligence and its dimensions and self-efficacy of the elderly; self-efficacy was related to some demographic variables including sex, marital status, education, lifestyle, occupation, education and going to the mosque. Considering this relationship, Golchin and Sanjari (2013) revealed a positive relationship between spiritual intelligence and self-efficacy of employees. The same finding was reported by Hassanpour Daman Abad and Talebiannia (2016) among administrators and directors of sport council of East-Azerbaijan province.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

The study used a convenience volunteer sample of 148 teachers (92 females and 56 males) who were teaching English as a foreign language in Mashhad, Quchan, Qaemshahr, Iran. The participants' age ranged from 23 to 56 years old (having at least 2 years of teaching experience). Their academic degree changes from BA to Ph. D (20 of participants had BA degree, while 62 of respondent had MA degree, and 66 participants held a Ph. D).

B. *Instruments*

In order to measure the teacher's sense of efficacy, The ELT Teacher Efficacy Instrument (ELTEI) developed by Akbari and Tavassoli (2014) was used. The instrument consisted of 32 items (Cronbach alpha= .83), which constitute seven components including Efficacy in Classroom Management and Remedial Action (CMR), measured by 8 items, Efficacy in Classroom Assessment and Materials Selection (CAM), measured by 5 items, Efficacy in Skill and Proficiency Adjustment (SPA), measured by 7 items, Efficacy in Teaching and Correcting Language Components (TCL), measured by 5 items, Efficacy in Age Adjustment (AA), measured by 3 items, Efficacy in Social Adaptation (SA), measured by 2 items, Core Efficacy (CE), measured by 2 items. Item responses ranged on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 ("very little") to 5 ("very much").

SIRI-24 developed by King (2008) was used to measure the teacher's spiritual intelligence. The rationale for the selection was that its reliability and validity has been established in Iran (KarimiMoonaghi et al, 2013).

SISRI is a 24-item (Cronbach's alpha = .92) self-report measure of spiritual intelligence. It is consisted of four main constituents including: critical existential thinking (comprised of 7 items), personal meaning production (comprised of 5 items), transcendental awareness (comprised of 7 items), and conscious state expansion (comprised of 5 items). King (2008) reported Cronbach's alpha of .78 for the first (critical existential thinking) and second (personal meaning production) component, Cronbach's alpha of .87 for the third component (transcendental awareness), and Cronbach's alpha of .91 for the last component (conscious state expansion). Item responses ranged on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 ("not at all true of me") to 4 ("completely true of me"). The higher scores are indications of higher levels of spiritual intelligence.

C. *Procedures*

150 questionnaires were distributed among EFL teachers, while only 110 questionnaires were returned; furthermore, 10 questionnaires were discarded since some of the questions left unanswered. Filling out the questionnaire was not obligatory but voluntarily. The participants were informed of the confidentiality of their responses. An electronic version of the questionnaire was also created by the use of Google forms, and was sent through email to 60 teachers. From 60 questionnaires which were sent to participants, only 48 questionnaires were received. Consequently 148 questionnaires were used for the analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

As it was stated before, this study aims at exploring the relationship between spiritual intelligence and self-efficacy of EFL teachers. To answer the mentioned research questions, Pearson Product Moment Correlations and an independent sample T-Test were carried out.

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of EFL teacher spiritual intelligence. Throughout this study, CET stands for critical existential thinking, PMP for personal meaning production, TA for transcendental awareness, CSE for conscious state expansion, SI for spiritual intelligence, CMR for efficacy in classroom management and remedial action, CAM for efficacy in classroom assessment and materials selection, SPA for efficacy in skill and proficiency adjustment, TCL for efficacy in teaching and correcting language components, AA for efficacy in age adjustment, SA for efficacy in social adaptation, CE for core efficacy, and EF for teacher efficacy.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EFL TEACHER SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CET	148	8.00	28.00	17.6622	4.46080
PMP	148	3.00	20.00	14.1216	3.68838
TA	148	10.00	28.00	18.9595	4.03872
CSE	148	.00	20.00	11.9054	4.11458
TOTAL SI	148	34.00	96.00	62.6486	13.01013
Valid N (listwise)	148				

As the Table indicates, among the four constructs of teacher spiritual intelligence, transcendental awareness receives the highest mean ($M= 18.95$, $SD= 4.03$) followed by critical existential thinking ($M= 17.66$, $SD= 4.46$). Table 2 shows descriptive statistics of EFL teacher efficacy.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EFL TEACHER EFFICACY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CMR	148	16.00	39.00	30.1351	5.00156
CAM	148	7.00	25.00	19.0270	4.05061
SPA	148	15.00	31.00	23.2027	3.56086
TCL	148	12.00	25.00	18.1216	3.51073
AA	148	3.00	15.00	10.4730	2.24501
SA	148	2.00	10.00	7.7027	2.06513
CE	148	4.00	10.00	7.6757	1.60024
TOTALEF	148	80.00	153.00	116.3378	16.87269
Valid N (listwise)	148				

According to the Table, efficacy in classroom management and remedial action receives the highest mean ($M= 30.13$, $SD= 5.00$), followed by efficacy in skill and proficiency adjustment ($M= 23.20$, $SD= 3.56$).

To investigate the relationships among the components of teacher spiritual intelligence and efficacy, multiple correlations were run. The results of Pearson Product Moment correlations are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE COMPONENT AND EFFICACY SUB FACTORS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.CET	1										
2.PMP	.503**	1									
3.TA	.596**	.473**	1								
4.CSE	.381**	.715**	.443**	1							
5.CMR	-.015	.114	.171*	-.003	1						
6.CAM	.033	.138	.083	.172*	.731**	1					
7.SPA	.049	.099	.125	.138	.471**	.446**	1				
8.TCL	.272**	.484**	.443**	.395**	.466**	.520**	.552**	1			
9.AA	.058	.230**	.200*	.160	.643**	.688**	.449**	.504**	1		
10.SA	.075	-.035	.284**	.142	.302**	.326**	.341**	.392**	.168*	1	
11.CE	.026	.110	.240**	.132	.551**	.476**	.537**	.659**	.433**	.683**	1

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in the Table, all of the spiritual intelligence components as well as efficacy components have positive significant relationships with each other. Table 4 shows the correlation coefficient between the two factors of spiritual intelligence and efficacy.

TABLE 4
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE AND EFFICACY

	1	2
1. Total SI	1	.244**
2. Total EF	.244**	1

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

As it can be seen there is a positive significant relationship between teacher spiritual intelligence and teacher efficacy ($r = 0.244$, $p < 0.05$).

To see whether teacher spiritual intelligence differs significantly between genders, an independent-samples *t*-test was used. Table 6 presents descriptive statistics of teacher spiritual intelligence across males and females.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHER SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE ACROSS MALES AND FEMALES

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CET	Male	56	17.4286	4.31849	.57708
	Female	92	17.8043	4.56272	.47570
PMP	Male	56	12.6786	4.65582	.62216
	Female	92	15.0000	2.61021	.27213
TA	Male	56	18.5000	3.56243	.47605
	Female	92	19.2391	4.29763	.44806
CSE	Male	56	11.2500	5.04255	.67384
	Female	92	12.3043	3.39922	.35439
TOTALSI	Male	56	59.8571	15.23802	2.03627
	Female	92	64.3478	11.19697	1.16737

As the Table indicates, the mean differences of three constructs of spiritual intelligence are different for males and females. In the case of *PMP*, the mean and standard deviation for males are ($M= 12.67$, $SD= 4.65$) and for females are ($M= 15.00$, $SD= 2.61$) and in the case of *TA* ($M=18.50$, $SD= 3.56$) for males and ($M= 19.23$, $SD= 4.29$) for females were found. The mean and standard deviation of *CSE* for males are ($M= 11.25$, $SD= 5.04$) and for females are ($M= 12.30$, $SD= 3.39$). However in terms of *CET* the mean and standard deviation for males and females are almost the same ($M= 17$, $SD= 4.00$). Concerning *spiritual intelligence* as a whole ($M= 59.85$, $SD= 15.23$) for males and ($M= 64.34$, $SD= 11.19$) for females were found. Table 6 shows the results of the independent-samples *t*- test among the participants of the two groups.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLE T-TEST DISPLAYING THE RESULTS OF GENDER DIFFERENCES

	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CET	-.496	146	.621	-.37578	.75801
PMP	-3.888	146	.000	-2.32143	.59713
TA	-1.080	146	.282	-.73913	.68413
CSE	-1.519	146	.131	-1.05435	.69430
Total SI	-2.059	146	.041	-4.49068	2.18118

As can be seen, there is a statistically significance between the two groups regarding their *PMP* ($t=3.88$, $p<0.05$). In other words, female EFL teachers have more personal meaning production than their male counterparts. However, no significant difference was found concerning the other spiritual intelligence components in terms of teacher gender.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the study, there was a positive significant relationship between teacher spiritual intelligence and teacher efficacy. The high degree of teacher efficacy increases with the increase of spiritual intelligence. The finding of this study was consistent with Jafari et al. (2015), Abadi et al. (2016), and Hassanpour Daman Abad and Talebiannia (2016). Spiritual intelligence, as it was stated by Singh and Sinah (2013), could be improved by training; therefore, one of the important implications of this finding is that the managers and policy makers can enhance the teachers' efficacy by improving their level of spiritual intelligence. To have a successful educational system and to increase the learners' motivation and achievement, spiritual intelligence and efficacy are two important factors which should be considered while planning the educational programs. Moreover, the result revealed that there was a statistically significance difference between male and female teachers; female EFL teachers have more personal meaning production than their male counterparts. The finding of this study is in line with Yousefi et al. (2013), and Amram and Dryer (2008) who reported a higher level of spiritual intelligence in female participants in comparison with their male counterparts.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study explored the relationship between spiritual intelligence and efficacy in EFL teachers, another study can explore the stated association among teachers in other field of study. The context of this study was limited to Iran, comparative studies may be done in other countries to explore the similarities and differences of the findings.

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Developing a Model of Teaching Speaking through Discussion and Presentation for Accounting Education Students of UMS and IAIN Surakarta in 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 Academic Year

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Abstract—The research aim is to develop a model of teaching speaking through discussion and presentation for teaching speaking for accounting education students. It is research and development study and the research was conducted and developed in three models. Each model consists of model draft planning, implementing the model, getting the model result and and revising the model. Technique of data collection was obtained by using test, interview, and observation; Technique of data analyzed for quantitative data used non independent t-test. He also used descriptive statistic including highest, average, and lowest scores. To analyze the qualitative data, the researcher used flow model of analysis. The research results showed that The first model: improved the students' bravery to speak up in front of the audience and made a better condition of the students' speaking environment. The second model results showed that the development of the students' speaking ability grew up rapidly and their grammar and vocabulary also getting better. The Final Model results showed that there is very clear and significant improvement on their bravery to speak up in front of the audience. Their learning progress grew up rapidly, their grammar and vocabulary also increased significantly. The computation result showed that all of the results is higher than tt (2,02).The hypothesis stating that developing a model of teaching speaking through presentation and discussion is good, suitable and accurate model for teaching and improving the Students' Speaking Ability of accounting education of UMS and IAIN Surakarta in 2015/2016 Academic Year was proved correct and significant.

Index Terms—developing, discussion, model, teaching, speaking, presentation, significant

I. INTRODUCTION

Everybody knows that English is the most important language in international communication nowadays. English is also the language of science and knowledge, because most of the science and knowledge in the world are written in English. Speaking is very crucial for education, business, economic and international communication, so that, the main target of someone study foreign language/English is the speaking ability. English is a means of international communication and the university students should learn how to speak English well, because their future, job, career, and education depended on it. Moreover, business and politics in international community in this modern era that has absolutely grown up rapidly with very tight and hard competition was demanded everyone to speak English well. We can understand the science and knowledge in the books, because we study and know about English. If we study hard, seriously and always practice it continuously and diligently, so we certainly can speak English well. Then, we can communicate with the foreign people smoothly and easily.

Mohan raj said that “Twenty first century world is called a globalized village. Globalization is a great equalizer, at the same time it is a powerful divisive force. English is looked upon as a global language”. Today, English is spoken by about 400 million native speakers; around 240 millions are Americans (Mohan raj J, 2013, p. 2). There are about 1500 millions who speak English as a second or foreign language. So, it is very important in international community. Crystal also stated that, “The notion of a generic native speaker has become so diversified that it has lost its meaning” and the environment in which other speakers of English as second language or foreign language learn English makes it very difficult to attain native like competence”, so what is attainable and essential is intelligibility.

The students should be recognized that no matter what the department they come from, they should be able to speak English well. They have to study hard in order that be able to speak English well, because it is one of the most important capitals and requirements to compete in the crucial modern era for their better future. As everyone knows, that it is very tight and hard competition in international business, job, career, and education for getting a better and brighter future nowadays.

Most of people also realized that speaking is difficult enough to master, but the great effort should be done to achieve the best result that is “The ability to speak English well”. Therefore, if students were able to speak English well, thus, they will get a better and brighter future for their job and career. It is absolutely true, that the ability of speaking English well, will give a lot of advantages and benefits for their job, life, career, business, education, and future, even this ability will be appreciated by other people and society.

Stepping from all of the statements above, the researcher wants to use and develop a model by using discussion and presentation for teaching speaking for accounting education. He regarded that the model will be accurate, suitable and appropriate for them, he believed that” By using discussion and presentation model will be able to overcome the students’ speaking problems of accounting education.

A. Reason of Choosing the Respondent

The reasons why the researcher choose accounting education as the respondents because they are diligent, smart, interesting and challenging, but their speaking English still poor, so it badly needed improvement.

B. Reason of Choosing a Model

The reasons why the researcher chooses discussion and presentation model for improving the students’ speaking ability. He believed that if the accounting education students are taught and trained by accurate, appropriate and suitable model so they will be able to speak English well.

C. Problems Identification

- a. The students have low spirit and motivation to study English
- b. The environment’ did not support the speaking practice
- c. They felt ashamed, afraid, worried and nervous in speaking
- d. The students have limited vocabularies and grammar.

D. Problem Limitation

- a. The research and observation are conducted in UMS and IAIN Surakarta, especially for Accounting Education Students as a pilot project.
- b. The researcher analyzes the elements which have closed relation with the object and problems of the research, those are; Developing, Model, Teaching, Speaking, Discussion, and Presentation.

E. Research Questions

1. What is the existing model of teaching speaking for accounting education students?
2. What kinds of model which is required for teaching speaking for them?
3. What is the most significant improvement on their speaking through discussion and presentation model?
4. How effective is the model of teaching speaking through discussion and presentation for them?

F. Research Objectives

The main targets of this dissertation research are;

1. To discover the existing model of teaching speaking for accounting education students.
2. To indicate that discussion and presentation model is suitable for teaching Speaking for accounting education students.
3. To discover the most significant improvement on the students’ speaking ability through discussion and presentation model.
4. To measure the effectiveness of discussion and presentation model for teaching speaking for accounting education students.

G. Significance of the Study

There are three kinds of significance of this study;

a. Theoretically

We do hope that the product of this research and development study (Developing a Model of Teaching Speaking through Discussion and Presentation Techniques for Accounting Education Students) would be beneficial and useful for teaching speaking for the accounting education students especially and non English department students in general. This model of teaching speaking could be adapted as the basis to develop the model and material for teaching speaking for adult students or university level.

b. Pedagogically

The research findings/results will be beneficial for language instruction to enlarge and enrich the model of teaching speaking for accounting education students especially and non English department students in general. The research findings gave the English lecturers many choices and alternatives for increasing the accounting education students' speaking ability. The lecturers can use this model for teaching speaking easily and happily. It also helped the curriculum designers to plan the accurate and appropriate instructional program for teaching speaking for their own students' need. The textbook writer as well as the material developers can adopt this model in presenting the material, designing assignment and constructing exercise for the students.

c. Practically

The product of this research and development study can be used for teaching learning speaking in the classroom. This model of teaching speaking has proved suitable, appropriate and accurate to increase the accounting education students' speaking ability and hopefully can enhance and generate the speaking ability of the other non English department students in general.

From discussion the students get spirit and motivation to study speaking together with their friends, they helped each other to make summary of the topic discussion, this condition also supported them to practice their speaking. They also got a lot of new vocabulary, and better grammar from their discussion, because they discussed, the topic given by the lecturer in English.

From presentation, the students got bravery and self confidence to speak up in front of audience/class. It gave a lot of chances and opportunity for practicing and increasing their speaking ability. The students got the strongest spirit and motivation to study together in order not to feel ashamed, afraid, fear, worried and nervous anymore to express their ideas, feelings, and desires through speaking. Therefore, the members of the group supported each other to do the best one in speaking.

H. The Assumption and Limitation of Development

This research and development developed the model through discussion and presentation techniques to discover the best solution of the accounting education students' problems in expressing ideas, minds, desires, and feeling through speaking. The researcher recognized that this research is difficult and complex enough, therefore, he conducted this research and development carefully and seriously to find a good solution and alternatives for overcoming the students' speaking problem by using and implementing the model through discussion and presentation for teaching speaking for accounting education students in the classroom. He hoped that this research and development gave something valuable and useful for accounting education students to increase their speaking ability in general. He believed that the model generated and supported the development of students' speaking ability.

From the discussion and presentation, the researcher believed that the students would be accustomed to speak English, so that they could overcome their own problems in expressing ideas, desires, minds and feeling through speaking. The researcher gave them more convenience, interesting, lovely condition, situation and atmosphere to study English or speaking, so that, they got a good time and happiness in studying speaking/English; therefore, they increased and generated their own speaking ability. By doing so, the accounting education students have strong believed, spirit and motivation to study speaking/English, so that they could speak English well.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE, FRAMEWORK OF THOUGHT AND HYPOTHESIS

The research observes and analyzes the elements which have closed relation with the object and problems of the research, those are; Developing, Model, Teaching, Speaking, Discussion and Presentation.

A. Developing

To enlarge, to aid in the growth of strengthen, to improve the quality of, to cause to become more complex or intricate; add detailed and fullness, to bring into being gradually. To set forth or clarify by degrees. (Merriam Webster, 2013)

B. Model

Model is a schematic description of a system, theory, or phenomenon that accounts for its known or inferred properties and maybe used for further study of its characteristics.

Model is a small object, usually built to scale, that represents in detail another, often large object. A representative form or pattern. (Margaret Rouse, 2011)

C. Teaching

Teaching is the act of profession of a person who teaches. Teaching is instruction, pedagogy is recognized as an

important profession, precept, commandment, didactics, educational activity is (the activities of educating /instructing activities that impact knowledge or skill). Teaching is to cause to know something and to cause to know how, to cause to know the disagreeable consequences of some action and to accustom to some action or attitude. It formed the performance, attitude and personality of the students to be better and wiser.

D. Speaking

Speaking means; By using language or communicating ideas, feeling, and desires by means of system of sound symbols or manners of using words. We know that speaking directly involves the use of words, so that by using words we can express our ideas, feelings, desires or even interest. In sociolinguistics, speaking model, is a model sociolinguistic study developed by Dell Hymes. To facilitate the application of his representation, Hymes constructed the acronym, S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G (for setting and scene, participants, ends, acts sequence, key, instrumental, norms, & genre).

E. Teaching Speaking

It is very crucial and the main target of teaching speaking is how to make our students to be able to speak English well. Teaching speaking is to teach students to organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence. "Use language as a means of expressing values and judgments. Use the language quickly, confidently and as fluency as possible" (Nunan, 2003)

F. Techniques for Teaching Speaking

It is very important for the lecturers to understand techniques for teaching speaking, because better techniques will give better result. There are three kinds of techniques for teaching speaking, those are:

a. Integrating English Vocabulary in Speaking

Vocabulary is very crucial in speaking, if we got more vocabulary so our speaking ability would be better. There is no speaking without vocabulary. The lecturer can build the vocabulary of students through motivating activities. Some best practices for building listening and speaking vocabulary include: having short, targeted discussions about interesting themes, sharing images or objects that spark conversation.

b. Integrating English Grammar in Speaking

The mastering of good grammar is very important for speaking, so that the lecturer should teach good and correct grammar. By teaching good and correct grammar during speaking activities will make the students able to speak English well.

c. Integrating English Pronunciation in Speaking

Pronunciation and spelling has very important role to make speaking much more better than we hope and listening to fluent English in a variety of contexts is one of the best tools for teaching pronunciation.

G. Discussion

Discussion is to speak with another or others about; to examine or consider (a subject) in speech or writing. We make consideration of a subject by a group; an earnest conversation. It is essential that the purpose of the discussion activity is set by the lecturer, so we have to design assignments that are complicated and interesting and use those as springboards for discussion. There are three stages; 1. Pre – Discussion/the forming group, 2. Discussion (the groups discuss the topic) 3. Post discussion (peer - feedback from the observer and lecturer).

H. Presentation

Most presentations are divided into 3 main parts (+ questions): 1. In the introduction, we tell audience what the message is going to be. 2. In the body, you tell audience the real message. 3. In the conclusion, we summarize what the message was. Therefore, a successful presentation is one of the most effective ways of communicating your message.

I. The Framework of Thought

The researcher recognized that the English mastery of Accounting Education Students is still low and unsatisfying, so he needs a good, accurate and suitable model for teaching and improving the students' speaking ability. If the accounting education students are taught and trained by good, accurate and suitable model so they will be able to speak English well, therefore, presentation and discussion model is the best choice to do so.

J. Hypothesis

The hypothesis stated that: "Developing a Model of Teaching Speaking through Discussion and Presentation is a good, accurate and suitable model for teaching and improving the students' speaking ability of accounting education of UMS and IAIN Surakarta in 2015/2016 Academic Year."

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Model Development

The Model Product Development consists of: Model Draft Planning, Implementing The Model, Getting The Model

Result and and Revising The Model

The First Model	
A. Opening – 5 minutes	1. Brainstorming and Checking the attendance list of students
B. Discussion that involving one group – 20 minutes	1. Giving a topic for discussion that is in line with accounting students 2. Conducting discussion
C. Presentation -35 minutes	1. Asking one group to present the result of discussion of a topic given 2. Delivering presentation of a topic' summary of discussion in front of class 3. Giving chance for audience by inviting questions, feedback, and suggestion. 4. Collecting questions, suggestion, and feedback from the whole class 5. Answering the questions, considering suggestion, listening feedback
D. Closing the meeting – 5 minutes	1. Drawing the conclusions of discussion and presentation. 2. Closing the meeting

The Second Model	
A. Opening – 5 minutes	1. Brainstorming and checking the attendance list of students
B. Presentation	1. Conducting presentation 2. Asking one group to present the summary of the topic given 3. Delivering presentation of the topic given
C. Discussion	1. Opening the large discussion that involving the whole class. 2. Conducting the large discussion. 3. Inviting questions, suggestion, and feedback 4. Answering the questions, considering suggestion, and listening feedback 5. Writing the field notes of discussion
D. Closing the meeting – 5 minutes	1. Drawing the conclusions of presentation and discussion. 2. Closing the meeting

The Final Model	
A. Opening	1. Brainstorming and Checking the attendance list of students
B. Small discussion involving one group	1. Preparing the topics for discussion 2. Giving a topic for discussion (one topic one group) 3. Conducting a small discussion
C. Presentation	1. Conducting presentation 2. Asking one group to present the result of discussion of a topic given 3. Delivering presentation of a topic' summary of discussion 4. Opening a large discussion by involving all of students in a classroom 5. Drawing the conclusions of presentation.
D. large discussion among the groups and involving the whole class	1. Opening the large discussion that involving the whole class. 2. Conducting the large discussion by inviting questions, suggestion and feedback 3. Answering question, receiving or rejecting suggestion, and feedback. 4. Writing the field notes and Drawing the conclusion of discussion
E. Closing the meeting	1. Drawing the conclusions of presentation and discussion 2. Closing the meeting

B. Method of Data Collection

1. Interview for doing Need and Analysis: By conducting interview, he knew the students' condition and their problems,

2. Test: Researcher conducted pretest and posttest 1, 2 and 3. The main target of the test is to know whether there is a significant improvement or not on the students' speaking ability.

3. Observation: Researcher and Collaborator observed what happened entirely and monitored the effect of the actions.

It is done while he is taking actions and after he did it.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

A. *The First Model Results*

The first model only solved a part of the students' speaking problems: Improving the students' bravery, spirit and motivation to study speaking and making a better condition of the students' speaking environment. Though, there are many students who made mistakes in grammar or vocabulary but it was okay. Eventhough the students' speaking ability was still low, but they are interested in the speaking lesson. The students are still having problems in speaking especially limited grammar, and vocabulary that still need improvement.

B. *The Second Model Results*

The second model results showed that the development of the students' speaking ability increased clearly. The researcher found significant improvement on their bravery and mentality to speak up in front of the audience. Their grammar and vocabulary also getting better. It improved the grammar and increased the vocabulary; it gave more opportunity for students to explore and express their minds, desires, feelings and ideas through speaking. It also gave special freedom for students to practice their speaking actively and happily. The researcher observed that the learning progress of the students' speaking ability improved rapidly and clearly. Their communication in English is also getting better and more fluently than before.

C. *The Final Model Results*

(Opening–Small Discussion–Presentation–Large Discussion–Closing)

The Final Model results showed that there are more significant improvements on the students' speaking ability. Their learning progress grows up rapidly and significantly. Their bravery, grammar and vocabulary are also increased and improved clearly. The results of the students' speaking ability were excellent and succeed. The Final Model increased and improved the students' speaking ability so clear and very significant, **The Final model is also the most effective and efficient** model to improve and increase the students' speaking ability. There is very sharp, clear and significant improvement on their speaking' ability after giving the treatment through this model and the best model to use for teaching speaking for accounting education students is also the final model. The most significant improvement in this research and development study is **the students' fluency and bravery** to speak up in front of the audience. The accounting education students will be able to speak English well, if they are trained and taught with accurate and suitable model.

D. *The Research Results from Discussion and Presentation*

From Discussion,

The students have learned a lot about how to work together and help each other, so that, no students feel lonely and sad, because the other students always care, ready to help their friends, when they got problem in speaking, grammar and vocabulary. From discussion, the students got spirit and motivation to study speaking together with their group. They support each other in studying speaking to increase vocabulary, improve grammar and discuss to make the summary of topic discussion given. The environment and condition also support them to practice their speaking English actively. The students also got spirit of togetherness for cherish and help each other, so that, they got experiences in discussing, sharing and solving their speaking problems from their own group. Discussion made the students accustomed to speak English and by discussing and studying together so they can overcome their own speaking problems.

From Presentation,

The students have learned about bravery and mentality to speak up in front of the audience/class, they have learned a lot about pronunciation, diction, fluency and courtesy in their speaking, and also listening of course. Because, when one of audience asked question and the group members answered their questions, so other students listened carefully and seriously about the answered, so that; they studied both of them speaking and listening altogether and automatically. When, there were many questions/feedback from audience/class that was curious of the topic, so, it made speaking class cheerful and lovely. The students got strong belief, bravery, mentality, spirit, and motivation to study speaking, so that, they did not feel ashamed, afraid, and nervous anymore to express their ideas, feelings, and desires through speaking. The presentation gave a good training for the students to speak up in front of the audience/class, because by presenting the topic given by the lecturer, so, it gave more science, knowledge and experiences for practicing and increasing their speaking ability and their bravery.

E. *Computation Result*

The conclusion of the researcher was supported by the computation result:

- a. The result between Pretest and Posttest 1 was **17, 80** because (17.8) is higher than tt (2.02), therefore, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement between pretest and Posttest 1
- b. The result between Pretest and posttest 2 was **12.97** because (12.97) is higher than tt (2.02), therefore, it can be

concluded that there is significant improvement between pretest and Posttest 2

c. The result between Posttest 1 and Posttest was **12.14** because (12.14) is higher than tt (2.02), therefore, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement between Posttest 1 and Posttest 2

d. The result between Pretest and Posttest 1 was **16.75** because (16.75) is higher than tt (2.02), therefore, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement between pretest and Posttest 1

e. The result between Pretest and Posttest 2 was **18.23** because (18.23) is higher than tt (2.02), therefore, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement between pretest and Posttest 2

f. The result between Posttest 1 and Posttest 2 was 7.50 because (7.50) is higher than tt (2.02) tt, therefore, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement between Posttest 1 and Posttest 2

V. CONCLUSION

1. The existing model of teaching speaking for accounting education mostly still using: drilling, repeat after me and pronunciation exercised. These kinds of models are difficult to improve the students' speaking ability.

2. Presentation and discussion model is the most required for teaching speaking for accounting education students, because it is good, accurate and suitable for them.

3. The most significant improvement is the students' fluency and bravery to speak up in front of the audience.

4. The most effective and the best model is the final model, because it is effective and efficient for teaching and improving the accounting education students' speaking ability.

5. The computation results supported the conclusion, because all of the results is higher than tt (2,02).

The computation result showed that all of the result are higher than tt (2.02) thus, it can be concluded that there is significant improvement on the students' speaking ability after giving the model through discussion and presentation. The hypothesis stating that "Developing a Model of Teaching Speaking through Discussion and Presentation is a good, accurate and suitable model for teaching and increasing the students speaking ability of accounting education of UMS and IAIN Surakarta in 2015/2016 Academic Year" was proved correct and significant.

Suggestion

1. Trust our students, because every student has their own ability and potential. They have strength and weakness, so our duty is to explore their strength and to cover their weakness.

2 Give them more spirit, motivation, and bravery, so we will see their amazing ability, talent and potential to express their desire, feeling and opinion through speaking.

3. Set up our speaking classroom as interesting as possible, then provide with suitable and accurate topic and material that is in line with our students' need and discipline.

4. Keep remained our position as a good manager, motivator and facilitator, so that, we knew that our students actually are smart, creative, innovative and excellent human being.

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Rhetorical Preferences in Persian Writing

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Abstract—A widespread assumption in the contrastive rhetoric field is the linearity/circularity dichotomy which suggests that eastern countries writing are characterized by indirection. This study examines the rhetorical preferences of Persian writing. A total of 320 essays taken from forty sophomore students studying English translation were analyzed. They were supposed to write an essay for eight weeks in different genres. To determine Persian writing style models by Chesterman, (1998) and Monroy and Scheu (1997) are used. Texts are analyzed in order to fit into one of the categories Chesterman has classified. Results indicate that Persian students, alike English learners, prefer directness in text and paragraph organization. In other words, they try to discuss their thesis statement directly at the beginning of their writing in order to support it in the rest of the paragraphs. Moreover, an examination of students essay reveal that the rhetorical preference of Persian language is linearity, the style English writing follows.

Index Terms—contrastive rhetoric, linearity, circularity, Persian rhetoric

I. INTRODUCTION

Linear development refers to pattern of writing organized around main idea. In other words, all the parts of writing should be related to central idea directly and straightly from the beginning to the end. In Standard English writing, the assessment of students' writing may be mostly done based on the criteria of "linear development". Based on this method, students mostly receive comment such as "disorganized", "out of focus", "irrelevant", "incoherent", or "loose tie with main idea", regarding their writing. ("Rhetorical Preferences", n.d.)

Although this pattern of linearity is not the only pattern for writing, but it is the most commonly used style in English writing. Kaplan (1966) was the first to realize the different patterns of writing. Moreover, he stated that these patterns are culturally preferred styles and differ from one culture and language to another. Examples of languages which do not follow the pattern of linearity are Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Thai, Hindi, French, and German.

To the best knowledge of the authors, no specific study has been conducted on Persian language in order to find its rhetorical preferences. Although different studies have been done on contrastive rhetoric between English and Persian in different aspects, no specific study has focused on rhetorical preferences in Persian language. Therefore, this study aims at revealing Persian writing style in order to improve students' difficulties in writing an essay in English, since there may be differences in their rhetorical preferences in writing.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Contrastive rhetoric refers to those problems in which L2 students may encounter during their writing and the effort to find the reason through rhetorical strategies of the first language (Connor, 1996). In his study Cahyono (2001) stated that studies on contrastive studies divided into two types. The first consists of writers from two cultures writing in the same language. Mostly the studies have taken into consideration English as a second language and other languages as the first language. The other type however, consists of writers from the same culture writing in two different languages. It was believed that both types are important since they explore issues such as "the extent to which differences in rhetorical strategies are due to differences in cultural patterns of thought and expression, differences in the languages themselves, or differences in the proficiency levels of writers". (P.44)

Chesterman (1988) introduced some different patterns of writing namely profile of a text as Linear, Parallel, Spiral, Scatter, Digressive and Listing although as he stated they are endless in number. Different studies were done on different languages to determine their specific rhetorical preferences. However, no study explores the same issue on Persian language. In order to reach this end, Chesterman categories are explained to see what characteristics they have and how they are culture specific. Moreover, some examples from different languages are provided to exemplify each style.

However, before doing any contrastive studies the concept of linearity should be defined so a linear/non-linear characteristic of a text in a given language can be determined. Since Kaplan introduced rhetorical preferences for each

language, therefore based on different cultures, writing style may differ. English as an international language, for instance follow the pattern of linearity. However, it should not be thought that these patterns are homogeneous in academic writing. In other words, not all English writing styles are linear. Braddock (1974) reported by Smith (2008) proved that not all expository writings in English are started with main ideas and only 13% of them begin with topic sentences. Therefore, teachers should not emphasize teaching students to start with a main idea in their writing. Kachru(1995) reported that several languages such as English, Hindi, Japanese, Korean have more than one rhetorical mode. But as stated by Kaplan (1987) mentioned, "... while all forms are possible, all forms do not occur with equal frequency or in parallel distribution". Hence, the most frequent rhetorical style of each language is provided below to set a framework for checking rhetorical preferences of Persian language.

A. *English Style*

English follows the pattern of linearity. Two main features are the basic elements of this style, namely, unity and avoidance of repetition. Whenever, one single main theme is maintained in an essay and also one main idea expressed in each paragraph, the writing style is linear since it has unity. However if two main ideas are provided in each paragraph, that writing has a non-linear writing style, like Hindi language, and may follow the features of digression and indirection, such as French and German languages. In contrast to nonlinear languages which are specified by repetition, linear language seldom uses repetition except for strengthening the tone of the writing to enhance persuasiveness ("Rhetorical Preferences", n.d.).

In Monroy and Scheu (1997, cited in Monroy, 2008) some guidelines are established for a straight linear rhetorical pattern.

1) Thematic Unit (TU). This category is called to be present, whenever there is only one thesis in an essay in a way that it binds all parts to a single main idea.

2) Thematic Progression (TP). This category is called to be present, whenever the writer provides a relationship between all thematic sentences in each paragraph with the main thesis.

3) Paragraph Unity (PU). This category is called to be present, whenever the writer provides a monothematic structure and not a polythematic one, in a way that all sentences develop the controlling idea through expanding and illustrating it.

4) Personal tone (PT). According to Hinds, 1987 cited in Monroy (2008), this category refers to consistent point of view; writers responsible vs. reader responsible languages.

5) Inter-paragraph cohesion (CO). This category is called to be present, whenever there are linkages between paragraphs in a co-referential, co-classification or co-extensive way.

6) Concreteness (CON). This category is called to be present, whenever the tendency is toward using more concrete words rather than abstract words.

7) Sentence Simplicity (SS). This category is called to be present, whenever the writer makes use of more simple and coordinate sentences rather than complex or subordinate sentences.

Therefore we can say that a writing style follows the pattern of linearity if it has the above mentioned characteristics. (See Appendix A to see an essay from English showing linearity taken from ("Rhetorical Preferences", n.d.).

B. *Chinese, Korean and Japanese Styles*

In these languages, writers mix different patterns. In fact, they can tolerate complex rhetorical structures in an essay which is not linearly organized. Their writing consisted of four stages: "beginning", "development", "turn", and "end" or as they called it *qi-cheng-zhuan-he*. Their writing is not developed in a straight line proceeding from a statement of the central idea followed by elaboration. Instead, the main idea is mentioned indirectly by talking about issues which are not directly related to the central idea.

Like other second language learners, they tend to unconsciously transfer their first language writing habits into English. Due to their complex style, their writing is confusing to English readers. Therefore, in writing classes they have to be aware about rhetorical preferences of different languages in order to adopt their style while writing in other languages. ("Rhetorical Preferences", n.d.). An essay from Korean writing, cited in Eggington (1987, pp.155-156) and a Japanese writing provided by Hinds (1990) are provided to see the differences between these languages and English. (See Appendices B and C).

C. *French, German and Hindi Styles*

Digression or change of topic is Characteristic of French, German and Hindi writings. In German writing, digression mainly occurs to provide background information, give analysis, or comments on side-track topics (Clyne, 1987). In his study, Kachru (1988) also provided three main features of Hindi writing which shows its digressive pattern. Digression can be strategically used for providing additional information, suggesting alternative viewpoints on an issue, or it may be used as a hedging device or used for the purpose of humor. An English translation from French, cited in Kaplan (1966) and a German extract by Clyne (1987) are provided to illustrate this pattern. (See Appendices D and E).

D. *Thai Style*

This language follows the feature of repetition or overlay pattern as mentioned by Hinds (1990). Repetition can be purposefully used to strengthen the argument by repeated emphasis on a particular idea. Alternatively, it can be used to maintain coherence in the essay by linking evidence and claims. Repetition mostly found in non-linear styles of writing. However, repetition seldom appears in the linear style of English writing except for strengthening the tone in persuasion.

An untitled essay is taken from Hinds to illustrate Thai style (See Appendix F), however, Bickner and Peyasantiwong cited in Chesterman (1998) argue that Thai rhetorical preferences is “listing” since this style is frequent in Thai folk literature. In Listing as one type of writing style, all of the predications which are co-ordinated are subordinated to a single predication, as in [P1] IF [P2] AND [P3] AND [P4] etc. (Chesterman, 1998). He provides a sample from advertisers in Guardian Weekly newspaper (March 26, 1995) to illustrate the listing style in writing which are mostly occur in legislative provisions in English. (See Appendix G), which shows the first paragraph has a marked listing profile, stating the conditions, and the same profile dominates again at the end of the text.

E. Arabic Style

Arabic language in contrast to other languages follows the pattern of parallelism at both sentential and discursal levels. Chesterman (1998) stated that in the pattern of parallelism, the texts “proceeds in a series of balanced pairs of predications, for instance reflecting contrasts or different facets of a single theme”. (p.172). In his studies, Ostler (1987) provided a Sample from Students Essay in Discourse Bloc Form to show parallelism structure of Arabic style. (See Appendix H)

No specific language is leaning toward two of Chesterman profiles models namely Spiral and scatter. However it should be mentioned that Kachru (1988) stated that rhetorical preferences of Hindi language leaning toward circularity or spiral rhetorical pattern in expository prose. Based on Chesterman, in Spiral style “the text circles into or away from its Point in different directions, and is characterized by a lack of sequential cohesion”. He provided an example (See Appendix I) to show that in spiral style, the central idea comes first and then additional information is stated in sentences that “might have been placed in several other orders”. However in the latter style, scatter, the ideas in the text are scattered without much cohesion. (See Appendix J)

Chesterman classified this writing as scatter since the actual main idea remains so ambivalent: “the British athlete was actually defeated, but the structure of the text tends to make his achievement into a victory. Information about what happened two years ago, and who won the other two medals, is scattered here and there in such a way as to foreground the British viewpoint, like the scatter of a comet’s tail”.

Investigating all these models and literatures, this study hence was conducted to address the following research questions.

1. Do Persian students exhibit indirectness by delaying their thesis statement in their composition?
2. What is the rhetorical preference of the Persian language?

III. METHOD

In order to discover the rhetorical preference of Persian language, 320 essays written by 40 sophomore undergraduate students of Shiraz khabar Media school, Shiraz, Iran who were studying in the field of English Translation were gathered. In other words, forty students were supposed to write an essay for eight weeks, each week one as one of their writing class prerequisites. All compositions were written at home rather than in the class so that students have more time to organize their writing. Topics were chosen by their instructor and the genre of each writings differed every week.

For finding the pattern of writing, it is decided if most of the essays follow one of the rules in styles mentioned above, that pattern is considered as Persian rhetorical preferences and if it fits linearity it has to be checked through Monroy and Scheu (1997) model. Therefore, each text is analyzed in terms of the placement of main idea or thesis statement and then how it was elaborated to reach the concluding remarks. To avoid subjectivity two independent coders participated to establish inter-code reliability. One was an M.A student in TEFL with experience in teaching English as a second language in Iran. The other was an M.A student who was an experienced English EFL writing teacher. Twenty of the essays from students were randomly selected and analyzed. With regard to rhetorical preferences of Persian writing, they agreed on 95% of the judgment; coding the employment of rhetorical preferences the inter-code reliability was about 91%.

IV. RESULT

The entire subjects in this study prefer the initial placement of the thesis statement in all of the eight essays each of them wrote. These findings show that the Persian language prefers directness and directly states the central idea. Therefore, among Chesterman writing patterns, Persian language cannot follow digression, since in this style, as stated by Clyne (1987), the writer leaves an argument in mid-air and starts a new one. Moreover, Persian language cannot follow the nonlinearity pattern of Korean, Chinese and Japanese as far as the main idea is mentioned indirectly by talking about issues which are not directly related to the central idea. In contrast, Persian language alike English writing states the writer’s position in introduction in order to elaborate on it in the rest of the essay. In English rhetoric, as stated by Christensen (1963), the topic sentence is the sentence “whose assertion is supported or whose meaning is explicated

or whose parts are detailed in a paragraph” (P.236). To clarify the point one of the essays written by Persian students is provided to show how the writer locates the thesis statement in his writing.

Introduction	Removing Final Exam Having courses based on formal exams may have some advantages, but its disadvantages are significantly more. <i>First of all</i>, one or two exams cannot evaluate students' weaknesses and strengths. By studying well at the night before the exam you can get a wonderful grade; however, you haven't participated in class or haven't done the assignments that your teacher has given each session. <i>In addition</i>, there is the possibility of becoming sick or happening of bad events which would lead to less preparation for the exam and as a result getting an awful grade or even failing the exam. <i>Besides</i>, for some students exams are potentially stressful and this stress decreases their performance or even worse they can't manage these stress and lose their control. <i>To sum up, holding one or two formal exams can't be helpful because its demerits are more than its merits.</i>	Thesis Statement (Writer's Position)
Body Paragraph		Support of Writer's Position
Conclusion		Restatement of Writer's Position

Regarding the body section of the above example, all the essays elaborate on the central idea in order to support writer's position. None of the writers follow the pattern of circularity or spiral style because in this style as mentioned before the text lack the sequential cohesion. Moreover, the text circles around the main point in different direction. However, Persian writing analyzed in this study did not indicate such a style. In contrast, alike English language every part directly related to the central idea in a straight line from the beginning to the end. In the previous example, the entire cohesive tie in the body paragraph support writer's position. In other words, the writer supports the main idea directly with the help of cohesive ties in order to support the main idea. In the conclusion part, the writer then restates the main idea to end an essay. Another example in different genres is provided to illustrate the point more clearly.

Introduction	How safe is Iran in comparison to London and New York? I wish that tourists looked for facts and reliable statistics about their destination rather than just listening to some rumors. In spite of all the attempts to make Iran and Iranian look as if they're a vicious and uncivilized society, statistics show that the converse is true. <u>Based on some researches, New York and even London, surprisingly, outnumber Tehran in much kind of crimes.</u> <i>For instance</i> , while the number of pickpocketing in Tehran is about 1000, it reaches 5200 when it gets to London and up to 8700 in New York; there's also mugging, which occurs around 3400 times per month in London, almost four times more than in Tehran, which is about 800, and the number of mugging in New York is 6250.	Thesis Statement (Writer's Position)
Body Paragraph	<i>Moreover</i>, with the police being careful about people not carrying guns, and weapons being prohibited in Iran, reported cases regarding shooting and bank robbery are fewer than in the other two cities. For instance, there are 10 similar cases per month in Tehran, 250 cases in London and 10 times more in New York (around 2400); <i>however</i>, the only thing that might look a little frightening is the number of car accidents taking place in Tehran. <u>All in all, if a visitor chooses Tehran instead of London, he's actually chosen a safer place for his/ her holiday.</u>	Support of Writer's Position
Conclusion		Restatement of Writer's Position

All the essays written by students follow the same pattern. As it is obvious, this style is alike the English style. Therefore we can say that a rhetorical preference of Persian language is linearity. As such the essays were all analyzed to see whether they fit the seven features stated by Monroy and Scheu (1997). As there is only one thesis statement in each single essay, we can say that the Persian language has the feature of Thematic Unit (TU). Moreover, in the body paragraphs the thematic sentences relate to the main idea, thus Thematic Progression (TP) is present as well. Furthermore, each paragraph is related to each other aiming to expand and illustrate the main idea. As a result, Paragraph Unity (PU) is present in Persian writing. Personal tone (PT) also exists because the writers talk about the thesis statement in a consistent point of view. The fifth feature of linearity, Inter-paragraph cohesion (CO) is present as well since there are linkages between paragraphs in a co-referential way. Concreteness (CON) and Sentence Simplicity (SS) are also present in Persian writing as far as the writers mostly use concrete words rather than abstract and at the same time they use more simple sentences rather than complex ones.

V. DISCUSSION

From the initiation of contrastive rhetoric, English discourse pattern is described as linear, direct, and logical and languages in east such as Chinese, Korean and Japanese are characterize as circular, indirect and non-linear (Yung, 1994; Harris, 1997). This linearity/circularity dichotomy in contrastive rhetoric field implies that the culture of the east and the west and their respective rhetorical traditions differ profoundly and fundamentally. Such a view mostly is detrimental as it is liable to essentialize and construct “static, homogeneous, and apolitical images of the rhetorical patterns”. (Kubota & Lehner, 2004, P: 9) of written Chinese and English and rules out the possibility of any rhetorical similarities across the two cultures. However, Persian language in the east, in contrast to other eastern countries, follows the pattern of linearity which exists in most western countries. It should be mentioned that, non-linearity of eastern countries as stated above do not mean that they are not linear at all. Cahil (2003) for instance reveals that indirect/spiral style of Chinese and Japanese writing named as (zhuan/ten)“turn” is not a move of circularity or digression but rather an expansion development of preceding idea. This feature can be found in linear languages such as English as well.

The finding in this study has direct pedagogical implications for EFL teachers. As Persian rhetorical discourse is alike English language and does not differ significantly from that of English and at the same time Persian students prefer directness in text and paragraph organization, therefore both ESL and EFL teachers can easily explain rhetorical pattern of English in order to make this unconscious knowledge tacit and obvious for Persian learners to follow in their writing.

This study also suggests some areas worthy of further research. How students are taught to write at school and how they learn to structure a text still remains unknown. It is suggested that more enquiry be made into students' learning experiences in writing in their native language and their perception of the difficulties in composition in their native language. Finally, for the purpose of EFL/ESL writing instruction, it would be valuable to compare the teaching of composition in Persian and English in Iran.

VI. CONCLUSION

In light of the results of the study and the discussion of the results, two conclusions can be drawn. First, Persian students stated thesis statements at the very beginning of their writing. Furthermore, alike English writing they are direct and straightforward in their texts and paragraph organization. Second, essays analyzed from students all reveal that Persian writing alike English writing follows the pattern of linearity. Therefore, the Persian language can be classified as a linear language in which all parts relate to each other straightly and directly. This style alike pattern of English writing avoids any kind of repetition and at the same time has unity.

APPENDIXES

A. English Style

Should cloning be encouraged?

Nowadays, a lot of advances have been made in cloning technology. After mastering the techniques of cloning animals, scientists are now looking forward to the cloning of human beings. But ever since the cloning of Dolly the sheep, many questions have been raised about the likely consequences of human cloning on society. **In spite of the many potential benefits can bring, cloning is likely to violate the moral principles of human society and usher in many problems.**

Some people believe that cloning is beneficial to mankind as cloning technology can be used in medical science. For example, cloned organs can be used for organ transplants to save many lives. There would never be any worry of natural rejection [,] if the transplanted organ came from the cloned body of the [donor] patient. But it is an outrageous idea to clone human beings like cattle for the sole purpose of harvesting organs from them. If this were to come true, there would then be a new class of cloned 'slaves'. It is something no sane person in the 21st century could in good conscience tolerate. The days of slavery are long gone in history.

It has also been argued that cloning can help infertile couples to have children. But even if the technology were available, cloned children would create problems for human society. The existing social system based on blood relations would be upset. Father and son, and mother and daughter would also be each other's siblings. This is hardly something we can adjust to easily.

As we can see, even if cloning is potentially beneficial to mankind, it can equally pose great risks and problems we may not be ready to face. Before we have clear answers to these questions, scientists would be ill advised to press on with cloning.

Introduction

"Writer's Position

Support of Writer's Position

Conclusion
Restatement of Writer's Position

B. Korean Style

Ki	The Ministry of Home Affairs is planning to strengthen the period of training for public officials from 3 days to 6 days per year in order to solidify the spirituality of the public officials. The training is to be conducted at the Spiritual Cultural Institute which is rendered in English as the Institute for Korean Studies.	Beginning of argument
Sung	A new meaning of "national" is attached to the word "spiritual". Perhaps this comes from the term "spiritual culture". A member of the Korean Alphabet Society complained that the architectural design of the Institute for the Korean Studies resembles a Buddhist Temple and thus is not Korean. This is not so because Buddhism, though imported from India, is a Korean religion. Likewise Christianity is a Korean religion.	"Loose" Development of argument
Chon	Any attempt to label what is national and what is foreign fails. Perhaps too much emphasis on nationalism may do more harm than good. Instead of inspiring nationalism we should be appealing to universal reason and proper moral conduct. The civil spirit must take precedence over the national spirit.	Main point of argument Concepts indirectly connected with the argument
kyul	I am reminded of this when, changing trains at the subway, I witness the rush to occupy seats on route to the sports centre where the Olympic Games are to be held. How do we enhance the nation's prestige through a sports event? As a teacher, I am partly responsible for this situation. Spiritual poverty is best observed in a metropolitan area like Seoul. Why is our public transport system so multi-layered with standing buses at the bottom, then regular buses, and finally taxis which move constantly to catch more passengers? Once you catch a taxi you have to listen to the loud radio controlled by the driver. "Dear administrators please do not talk about spiritual things unless you are interested in implementing concrete ethical conduct."	Conclusion of main theme

C. Japanese Style

Ki	It is said that it is written at the entrance to a store in a tourist area somewhere, "Fee for asking the way, one time, 100 yen." This is a story which appeared in the column "Koe" of this newspaper. It's a fact that the world has become a difficult place to live in, but I think it is the reason that the storekeeper gives us, "It's become so much of a pain that I've acted this way."	Beginning: Introduction of theme
sho	While the experience of asking is only one on a particular day from the perspective of the one who is asked, it might be 20 times, or it might be 50 times. Among these, there are probably people who leave without saying thank you, and those who ask the road from the inside of their cars. In the midst of his being busy there are probably people who ask the way in a rude manner. He probably even feels like saying, 'Just leave me alone.'	Development: Expansion of Introduction
ten	It's not only talk of asking the way: recently the habit of asking questions easily is spreading: Looking it up in the dictionary. Searching for a number in a telephone book. Looking at a map. Don't we ask too often without doing those things we should do? Since even I go around asking people questions too often, I can't say very much, but in an overpopulated country like Japan, especially when you are asking questions, isn't it necessary to understand that your question is one of a 1,000 or one of 10,000? There may be cases where the one who is asked, facing 1,000 or 10,000 people, is forced to provide 1,000 or 10,000 times the service. It worries me that people might not have a strong sense of consideration. There are other examples of lack of consideration too. One person throws away a cigarette butt on the station platform. The one who throws this away may think that it is not very important, but if 1,000 or 10,000 people throw them away, the platform will be filled with cigarette butts.	Turn: Additional or background information related to main theme
ketsu	On garbage collection day, when someone throws away something that is still good, it can easily mean that it will swell to 1,000 or 10,000 times that. Swelling expenses to cover the costs of cleaning up cigarette butts and trash may lead to increases in railway fares and taxes.	Conclusion

D. French Style

The first point to which I would like to call your attention is that nothing exists outside the boundary of what is strictly human. A landscape may be beautiful, graceful, sublime, insignificant, or ugly; it will never be ludicrous. We may laugh at an animal, but only because we have detected in it some human expression or attitude. We may laugh at a hat, but we are not laughing at the piece of felt or straw. We are laughing at the shape that men have given to it, the human whim whose mold it has assumed.

I wonder why a fact so important has not attracted the attention of philosophers to a greater degree. Some have defined man as an animal that knows how to laugh. They could equally well have defined him as an animal which provokes laughter; for if any other animal or some lifeless object, achieves the same effect, it is always because of some similarity to man.

Digression

E. German Style

The Carlist War

To attempt to understand the Carlism of the 19th century which was nominally a doctrine concerning the rightful heir to the Spanish throne, it is essential to understand the Liberalism that was so popular in certain political and social circles at the time; and what this Spanish Liberalism signified to the prosperous, rural Basques. Furthermore, the fanatical Carlism of Navarra which was centered around the religious reunification of Spain must be distinguished from the more pragmatic Carlism of Vizcaya and Guipuzcoa which revolved around the preservation of the fueros. Before we start, however, it might be useful to examine very briefly two topics; the rural conditions of the Basques, and the differences between the four Spanish Basque provinces. As Gerald Brenan has put it, rainfall is a critical factor in Spain, and in the Basque provinces rainfall is ample. An even distribution of resources combined with regular rainfall produced in the Basque provinces a large and prosperous yeoman class. Agrarian reformers attributed the prosperity of the Basque countryside to the caserio, the rural, the self-sufficient farmstead, which is the most prominent feature of the Basque rural landscape. The caserio, the concrete symbol of the Basque family, was founded on the small landholding which consisted of about ten to fifteen hectares. The caserio was an autonomous and self-supporting unit. Social and economic links between caserios were weak. Augmenting this system of small farms were communal forest and grazing lands which played an indispensable role in maintaining the general affluence of the Basques. In the Basque region a person's first loyalty was always directed toward the farmstead rather than toward a village which in the Spanish sense hardly existed. But this view of the typical Basque countryside based on the caserio was by and large confined to Guipuzcoa and Vizcaya. In Alava and parts of Navarra the land is dryer, villages tend to replace farmhouses as the focal points, the presence of a landed gentry as evidenced by castles and fortresses is a more marked feature, and the Spanish crops of vines and wheat become more prominent. Some differences between the four provinces can be traced to geographical factors. Vizcaya and Guipuzcoa have been isolated from the rest of Spain by the Cantabrian mountain range; and historically have been more oriented toward the sea and the rest of Europe. Navarra, on the other hand, is cut off from France by the Pyrenees on one side, is separated from Guipuzcoa and Vizcaya by the Cantabrian, and merges with Aragon to the south. Alava, landlocked like Navarra, blends gradually into Old Castile, and has the climate and appearance of the Castilian meseta. Of further note is the fact that both Navarra and Alava have remained, unlike the two other Basque provinces, almost completely rural and isolated from industrial centers until the last ten to fifteen years. Having said this much we can now turn our attention to the opposed ideologies of Liberalism and Carlism...

Discontinuity:

Discussion of main theme is left unfinished

Marked Digression:

signaled by preview in the end of previous paragraph;

for providing background information and analysis

Return to main theme

F. Thai Style

Introduction	<p>If someone asks, "Where is the Thai identity?" or "What is the Thai identity?" I think many people would have to think about it for a while before they could answer. This is not because there is no Thai identity, but rather, because Thailand is a country in which there are a lot of what we call "identities". The words "never mind" may be considered one of the Thai identities. I don't think there is any country in the world where people use the words "never mind" in every situation like Thai people do. "Have you eaten yet?" We answer, "Never mind."</p> <p>"Here is the bathroom. Are you looking for the toilet?" ... "Never mind." These are only some examples. Our Thai "never mind" does not only mean "don't mention it" as used by people in other countries, but it also has various other meanings. However, this is not the only identity we have; we also have many other identities.</p>	Main argument
Claim 1: "Never mind" as one of the many Thai identities	<p>Thailand is not only one hundred or two hundred years old, but it has been a country a long time. Besides, it is one of the countries which is independent and has a distinct identity which includes, for example, language, culture, art, habits, and even beliefs in holy things. One of these beliefs that we have had since ancient times concerns the construction of "spirit houses". It is believed that each piece of land has a guardian spirit, who must be honoured if the human occupants want to enjoy peace and prosperity. A spirit house is usually erected somewhere in the compound, often in the garden but sometimes on the roof in the case of large commercial properties like modern condominiums.</p>	Restating of main argument)
Claim 2: Belief in "Spirit house" as another example of Thai identities	<p>At present almost every Thai household has a spirit house of "Saan Phra Phum", which is a small house-like shrine dedicated to the spirits of the home. The shrine practically faces north and lies outside the shadow of the main house. Simple "Saan Phra Phum" may be in the form of a very small Thai-style house, made of wood, while more elaborate ones may resemble small temples. In either case, these are kept supplied with regular offerings of fresh flowers, incense sticks, and sometimes food to insure the continued protection of the spirit. Such offerings are also made at major road intersections where car accidents have often occurred, in hotel gardens, and anywhere else the people perceive there is the dwelling of a guardian spirit.</p>	Restating main argument
Conclusion	<p>Both the words "never mind" and the belief in the "spirit house" I have mentioned above are just some different examples of Thai identities. Yet, as I have said before, these are not the only identities we have, we also have many others.</p>	

G. Listing Pattern

It is a condition of acceptance of advertisement orders that the proprietors of The Guardian Weekly do not guarantee the insertion of any particular advertisement on a specified date, or at all, although every effort will be made to meet the wishes of advertisers; further, they do not accept liability for any loss or damage caused by an error or inaccuracy in the printing or nonappearance of any advertisement. They also reserve the right to classify correctly any advertisement, edit or delete any objectionable wording or reject any advertisement.

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H. Arabic Style

- We face two serious problems in my country.
1. The first problem is that
 - A. a. we import many things from other countries and
 - b. we cannot depend on ourselves in producing the things we need.
 - B. We import different kinds of food, electric materials, cars and clothes.
 2. The second problem is that
 - A. a. we depend on one source of income and
 - b. that is the oil.
 - B. Our national economy depends on it.
 - C. a. We have a lot of revenues each year from oil export
 - b. that come to us from selling this material.
 - D. a. It is not good for our country to depend on one source and
 - b. we have to vary its resources.
 - 1a. We can solve the first problem by building many factories and
 - A. we have to develop our soil to be useful for agriculture.
 - B. We have to educate people to serve and to develop our country.
 - 2a. We can solve the second problem
 - A. by seeking for other resources that we have in our country
 - B. not to depend on one source like oil.
 3. Finally
 - A. we will become a developed country and
 - B. we can insure our future and our life.

I. Spiral Pattern

Chris Eubank's 10-year unbeaten run came to an end in the Green Glens area at Millstreet, Co Cork, when Dublin's proudest fighting son, Steve Collins, beat him on a unanimous points decision to claim the WBO supermiddleweight crown. Eubank was knocked down in the eighth round and he then floored Collins in the tenth, but the Irishman was undisturbed. It was Eubank's first defeat in 44 bouts, 20 of which were WBO title fights. Collins said later: "I had no doubt I'd win. I'm the best pound-for-pound fighter in the world and no one can prove me wrong."

J. Scatter Pattern

Britain's Richard Nerurkar, winner of the 1993 World Marathon Cup, was pipped at the post in the Dong-A International Marathon in Seoul when he recorded a time of 2hr 11 min 3sec - five seconds behind the winner, Lee Bong-ju of South Korea. Mexican Andres Espinosa was third.

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A Study on the Non-English Majors' Use of Metacognitive Strategies in English Learning

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Abstract—With the deepening of education for all-round development, modern education pays more and more attention to how to make students learn with lesser time and energy but being efficient, which, undoubtedly, involves study of a series of problems concerning learning strategies, and theories related to metacognitive strategies are the most suitable and supporting theories to learning strategies. The research aims to discuss what metacognitive strategies are usually used by non-English major students as well as how these metacognitive strategies function. The research has been carried out in the form of a questionnaire, about 100 non-English majors from Yuncheng University attended the questionnaire. The results show that metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies always work together. And with the help of these metacognitive strategies, students can find suitable ways to learn the language, they can think and work more independently, making learning plan in a more reasonable way, which help them become the host of learning, and be a successful learner. The author hopes that her research findings may be of some significance in English teaching and learning although there are still some deficiencies and the need of further research.

Index Terms—metacognitive strategies, questionnaire, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *The Background of the Study*

In recent years, more and more researchers in the field of education have paid attention to learning instead of teaching, to students instead of teachers. And learning strategies start to attract their attention, too. In the studies about learning strategies, researchers began to realize the importance of metacognitive strategies and found that it's very important for English learners to use proper metacognitive strategies in their learning process. Bandura (2001) maintains that the quality of students' knowledge about how to learn influences their engagement in learning, and consequently, their learning achievements. Therefore, as instructions guiding students in their learning, metacognitive strategies are of great importance in English teaching and learning research field. Students are suggested to use proper metacognitive strategies in their English learning, which can help learn the language more efficiently and better.

However, in the actual practice of English learning, most students are not quite skillful at using learning strategies. They probably neither have successful learning strategies nor know how to use them properly. Therefore, on the basis of the researches done in the field, more attention should be paid to the study of metacognitive strategies and more work needs to be done to find out the current situation of students' knowledge and ability to use these strategies. Therefore, here in this paper, the author will carry out a study on the current situation of metacognitive strategy application among non-English majors through a questionnaire, and try to find out the relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and students' English grades and performance in English learning. She hopes that her findings can offer some help for students to have good command of metacognitive strategies and then learn English with lesser time and energy but efficiently.

B. *The Aim and Significance of the Study*

The aim of education is to help students learn to think. Each process of education has to be the natural process which initiated by students' cognitive and emotional experience. The cultivation of the metacognitive monitoring competence has been treated as a useful way to teach students how to study and help teachers improve their teaching quality, and then the capacity of metacognitive monitoring can train students in their learning to think, learning in different scenarios and choosing effective learning strategies to enhance self-learning. Metacognitive strategies not only enriched and developed the theory of cognitive psychology theoretically, but in practice played an important role in developing students' intelligence and teaching students how to learn. Knowing the cognitive strategies, the students can quickly get used to higher professional education and become people who know how to study. That is to say, students can develop their ability to analyze and solve problems independently in learning English and value their own progresses objectively. As for teachers, it is of positive significance to apply metacognitive strategy to classroom-based teaching in that it can help students to extricate themselves from mechanical learning into autonomous learning.

C. *The Structure of the Study*

The paper consists of six parts. The first part introduces the background, significance, and structure of the study. Part two mainly presents the literature review which is related to the theory about learning strategies, metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies; it is a major theoretical part of this article: it states the classification of leaning strategy, and introduces the definition, the classification, as well as the function of metacognitive strategies. Part three states the research methodology and designing, including the research purpose, subjects, research instrument, and research procedure and data collection. Part four aims to analyze the results, which may be helpful, to some extent, for students to learn English well, and aspiring for teachers to improve their teaching quality. Part five is the implications of the study, the author puts forward some suggestions for both the students and the teachers. In the last part, the author draws the conclusion of the thesis. Besides, some limitations of the study and suggestions on the further research were also given in this part.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1987, O'Malley and Chamot put forward three categories of learning strategies according to the information-processing theory, and they thought that metacognitive strategies play a important role in the improvement of English grades and the ability of autonomous learning. In 1996, in China, Wen Qiufang firstly discussed the regulatory function of metacognitive strategies. Other researchers also pay attention to the metacognitive strategies later, and they affirm the role of metacognitive strategies. Recently, the importance of learning strategies, especially metacognitive strategies has attracted great interest among researchers, teachers and linguists in English teaching field. Students also want to learn English efficiently and well. Thus, the study on metacognitive strategies domain is significant. In this part, the classification of learning strategies is stated in brief. Moreover, the definition, the classification, and the function of metacognitive strategies are also introduced.

A. *The Classification of Learning Strategies*

In 1970s, some researchers such as Rubin (from the United States), Naiman, Frohlich and Todesco (from Canada) began the research of second language learning strategy (Chamot and O'malley, 1990). Since then, second language learning strategy has gradually become a hot topic. In recent decades, many researchers have pointed out that it is impossible to achieve satisfied teaching effect only by one good teaching method, no matter what kind of method it is, whether it is grammar, translation, communicative, or the direct method etc. So when they study pedagogy, they also focus on the study of how to learn.

Chamot (1987) said that "learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information." Rubin (1987) thinks that "learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly."

Nowadays, learning strategies are mainly divided into three major categories, they are: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies (Brown and Palinscar, 1982; Chamot and O'malley, 1990).

1.1 Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are more directly related to a specific task or a learning object and may not be applicable to different types of tasks, they refer to the steps or operations used in problem solving, which need direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials. They have an operative or cognitive-processing function. They may be limited to the special type of task in the learning activity. Typical strategies that have been discussed in the cognitive category for listening and reading comprehension are:

- (1) rehearsal, or repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard;
- (2) organization, or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes;
- (3) inference, or using information in oral text to guess the meaning of the new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts;
- (4) summarizing, or intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained;
- (5) deduction, or applying rules to understand language;
- (6) imagery, or using visual images to understand and remember new verbal information;
- (7) transfer, or using known linguistics information to facilitate a new learning task;
- (8) elaboration, or linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known information. (Liu Runqing and Wen Xu, 2011)

1.2 Metacognitive strategies

According to Oxford (1990), metacognitive strategies refer to the "overall control over the learning process through reasoning, planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation." (P. 43). As the focus of this thesis, detailed discussion on metagonitive strategies will be given in the below in 2.2.

1.3 Social/Affective strategies

Social/Affective strategies refer to strategies involving the interaction with other people or the management of affection. Like metacognitive strategies, they are thought to be more applicable to various tasks (Chamot and O'Malley,

1990). Social/affective strategies concern the ways in which learners choose to interact with other learners and native speakers. The strategies that would be useful in listening comprehension are:

- (1) cooperation, or work with one or more peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity;
- (2) questioning for clarification, or asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrase, explanation and/or examples
- (3) self-talk, or using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task. (Liu Runqing and Wen Xu, 2011)

B. Metacognitive Strategies

2.1 Definition of Metacognitive strategies

As has been mentioned in the above, metacognitive strategies refer to the “overall control over the learning process through reasoning, planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation.” They are knowledge and regulation about cognitive phenomena, the knowledge enables individuals to “plan, sequence, and monitor their learning in a way that improves performance.” (Oxford, 1990, P.43).

Metacognitive strategies do not like the confinement of cognitive strategies, they are more universal among various tasks. So, it’s natural that they have the highest superiority.

Metacognitive strategies make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute attempts to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluating. They have an executive function. (Liu Runqing and Wen Xu, 2011).

The following form can explain the concept of metacognitive strategies well.

Metacognitive strategies	
strategies	description
plan/organize	Before beginning a task: - set goals - plan the task or content sequence - plan how to accomplish the task (choose strategies) - preview a text
monitor/identify problems	While working on a task - check your progress on a task. - check your comprehension as you use the language. Do you understand? If not, what is the problem? - check your production as you use the language. Are you making sense? If not, what is the problem?
evaluate	After completing a task: - assess how well you have accomplished the learning task. - assess how well you have used learning strategies. - decide how effective the strategies were - identify changes you will make the next time you have a similar task to do.
manage your own learning	- determine how you learn best. - arrange conditions that help you learn - seek opportunities for practice. - focus your attention on the task.

2.2 The Classification of Metacognitive Strategies

A. Oxford (1990) pointed out three sub-strategies for Metacognitive Strategies: centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, and evaluating your learning.

B. Anderson (1991) subsumed these strategies into five steps: preparing and planning for effective learning, selecting and using particular strategies, knowing how to monitoring strategy use, learning how to orchestrate various strategies, and evaluating strategy use and learning.

C. According to Brown and Palincsar (1982), these strategies involved reflecting, planning, and monitoring in the process of learning as well as self-evaluating after the learning activities.

From the above classifications of metacognitive strategies, we can see all of them involve planning and evaluating of learning, which shows that in the process of English learning the planning and evaluating are really important.

2.3 The Function of Metacognitive Strategies

In general, using these metacognitive strategies properly, learners can promote their learning autonomy. Metacognitive strategies can help students learn English with lesser time and energy but more efficiently, helping them finding suitable ways of learning. Besides, in this way, they learn to think and learn independently, make plans reasonably, and then become the host of learning and a successful learner.

People often say that a good plan is a half of success. When students use metacognitive strategies, they often make a plan. For example, they may set the amount of finishing tasks or the goals of accomplishing, the ultimate time of finishing the task, planning how to accomplish the task. Studying English with these plans, students can learn with full attention and achieve the goals and finish the tasks in time. They also can take easy to finish them, because they already have planned the procedure.

Using metacognitive strategies, students can check their progress on a task, if the progress is too slow or too quick, they can make relative adjustments. Students also check their comprehension when they use the language. Do they understand? If not, what is the problem? Through these checking, students can learn English well.

After finishing a task, students will assess how well they have completed the learning task and how well they have used learning strategies. They will decide how effective the strategies were, and in order to improve themselves, they will identify the changes they need to make the next time when they have a similar task to do. Then, they will choose the best strategies to finish similar task next time. With these experiences, students can learn English easily and excellently.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

In this paper, the author adopts the ways of questionnaire to study non-English majors' application of metacognitive strategies in English learning. In this part, the design of the questionnaire, the research purpose, subjects, research instrument, and research procedure and data collection will be introduced.

A. *Research Purpose*

This study aims to learn the application of metacognitive strategies in English study among non-English majors in Yuncheng University, and the relations between the use of metacognitive strategies and students' English grades. The author aims to investigate the following questions: 1) whether the subjects use any metacognitive strategies in their English learning; 2) what are these metacognitive strategies; and 3) what's the function of these metacognitive strategies? And the author hopes that the study can enlighten students in English study, and then students can learn English easily and effectively through metacognitive strategies.

B. *Subjects*

The study involved a sample of 100 non-English major students at Yun Cheng University. The students were randomly chosen. Most students have been studying English for about 8 years (English is their foreign language), with 3 years at junior high school and 3 years at senior high school respectively, and 2 years at college.

C. *Research Instrument*

The study mainly adopt the form of questionnaire, as the most widely used method in empirical research, questionnaire is so convenient. The questionnaire is sorted out by the author herself.

The questionnaire includes 3 parts. The first part contains information of students, including name, major and their scores of CET4 and CET6. The second part includes 33 items, the 33 items is classified into 3 categories, the items are the questions in appendix (item 1-7 are about planning strategies, 8-28 controlling strategies, and 29-33 evaluating strategies). After every topic, there are 5 answers, they are namely "completely or nearly completely don't fit me"; "often don't fit me", "sometimes fit me", "often fit me", "completely or nearly completely fit me". Because Chinese is the students' mother tongue, and in order to let the participants understand the survey items correctly, the questions was designed in Chinese instead of English. In the third part, there are several outlines; students can write some metacognitive strategies that they think are very useful to them.

D. *Research Procedure and Data Collection*

The author designed and made the questionnaire in advance. In classroom for individual study, the questionnaire paper were handed out to the subjects, then collected after they have finished.

Before the students answer the questionnaire paper, the author made clear the purpose of her study and the way to answer the paper. In the end, all the questionnaire papers were collected and valid. After that, data were collected on the basis of the questionnaire and analyzed.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This part presents the current situation of the application of metacognitive strategies in English study among non-English majors in Yuncheng University, which are mainly investigated through the 33 items in the questionnaire, among which item 1-7 are about planning strategies, 8-28 controlling strategies, and 29-33 evaluating strategies. The relations between the use of metacognitive strategies and students' English grades has also been presented here.

A. *Analysis of the Current Situation of the Application of Metacognitive Strategies*

TABLE 1
THE APPLICATION OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH STUDY

Categories of metacognitive strategies	Item	Number and percentage of each answer on the basis of the 3 categories					
			completely or nearly completely don't fit me	often don't fit me	sometimes fit me	often fit me(%)	completely or nearly completely fit me(%)
planning	1-7	number	0	0	99	201	400
		percentage(%)	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.29	0.57
controlling	8-28	number	148	402	655	600	295
		percentage(%)	0.07	0.19	0.31	0.29	0.14
evaluating	29-33	number	343	140	10	7	0
		percentage (%)	0.69	0.28	0.02	0.01	0.00

In the first table, the author describes the number and percentage of each answer on the basis of the 3 categories. For example, we can see that the total number of the answers for questions 1-7 is 700, among which the number for the answer “completely or nearly completely fit me” is 400. In the same way, the number for this answer is 295 from its total number of 1100 for items 8-28, and 0 for items 29-33. Then, the author calculates each answer’ percentage of the 3 kinds of categories respectively on the basis of number of each answer. For example, the number of “completely or nearly completely fit me” is 400 for items1-7, and there are 700 answers from item1-7, so, the percentage of “completely or nearly completely fit me” is 0.57 by the means of 400/700. We can know from the table that the percentage of the answer of “completely or nearly completely fit me” is 0.00 from item 29-33, and the item 8-28 is only 0.14, and the item1-7 is 0.57. So, the author finds that the students we investigated do not have a good command of metacognitive strategies. In addition, the table tells us that students usually make a plan when they learn English, which has been shown from the percentage of the condition “often fit me” is 0.29. “Completely or nearly completely fit me” is 0.57, which is the highest percentage from items1-33. But students can not monitor and evaluate their learning well when they learn English, which can be seen from the statistics about item 29 to item 33, the percentage of “completely or nearly completely fit me” is 0.00, and “often fit me” is 0.01. Besides, although many students can make plans when they learn English, the percentage of “completely or nearly completely fit me” is not up to 0.6. All in all, the students we investigated are not good at mastering metacognitive strategies.

B. *Analysis of the Relations between Metacognitive Strategies Use and Students’ English Grades*

TABLE 2:
THE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE USE OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND STUDENTS’ ENGLISH GRADES

English grades	The conditions of English grades when students choose the 5 answers which answer is most				
	completely or nearly completely don't fit me	often don't fit me	sometimes fit me	often fit me	completely or nearly completely fit me
excellent					√
good				√	
middle		√	√		
pass					
bad	√				

Table 2 is the correlation between students’ English grades and the use of metacognitive learning strategies. What we can see from table 2 is that when a student’s English grade is bad, he/she chooses “completely or nearly completely don’t fit me” most; when a student’s English grade is at middle level, he/she chooses “often don’t fit me” or “sometimes fit me” most; when a student’s English grade is good, he/she chooses “often fit me” most; when a student’s English grade is excellent he/she chooses “completely or nearly completely fit me” most. From the above table we can know that students’ score is related to their application of metacognitive strategies in general. And, we also can draw the conclusion that there is a positive relation between metacognitive strategies and English grades, and the findings prove that the more metacognitive strategies they use the higher level of English competence the students have, and the higher scores they get. It shows that there is a positive relationship between the application of metacognitive strategies and English ability.

C. *Summary*

From the above analysis we can see that the subjects of the survey who have been investigated do not have a good command of metacognitive strategies. In addition, there is a positive correlation between English grades and the use of metacognitive learning strategies. Of course that is not always the absolute case. It does not mean that your English grades must be excellent as long as you use all kinds of metacognitive strategies. But the absolutely thing is that if you do not use metacognitive strategies, your English grades must be bad. Therefore, we may draw such a conclusion that we should use metacognitive strategies in English learning; these strategies can help us learn English more efficiently and better. Just as a proverb says “good ways are half of success.”

V. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the above empirical research findings, we have claimed that ineffective students do suffer from lack of some kind of knowledge about metacognitive strategies. Therefore, enhancing learners' metacognitive strategies is necessary in the vocational college English teaching and learning. Teachers should take measures to arouse students' interest in English and foster their metacognitive strategy knowledge. In consideration of the above results of the questionnaire, there are some suggestions for English teachers as well as foreign language learners.

A. *Suggestions for Students*

As for the students, at first, students should practice to use metacognitive strategies in learning English. In order to learn English easily and effectively, students are required to master some metacognitive strategies and then use them in their learning process. These metacognitive strategies may enable the students to check what they know and what they do not know, thus realize their own problems and gain confidence. With the knowledge, learners can learn English better. Besides mastering certain metacognitive strategies, learners can learn more autonomously under reasonable self-regulation.

B. *Suggestion for Teachers*

Teacher should try their best to help students develop a more reflective and self-directed approach to learning their new language. Teachers also guide college students to improve and expand their knowledge about learning so that they may become autonomous in the learning of their new language. Flavell (1979) addressed that knowledge about metacognitive strategies is the basis for learning process. With the metacognitive strategy knowledge, they can arrange their learning process in a smooth way and handle all kinds of learning problems easily.

Therefore, teachers should improve students' strategy awareness and the implementation of the strategy training in English teaching. The application of metacognitive strategy and cognitive strategy is beneficial to autonomous learning, to be up to the standard of English Course Requirements for non-English Majors. In order to fully exploit the latent potentialities of college students, in the course of putting the cognitive tactics into effect, the student centered, meaningful training model should be emphasized, promoting writing together with reading. Because the society is always developing and the study models are always changing, English learners must learn to how to learn. Therefore, it's very necessary to train students' metacognitive ability. It's necessary to develop English learners' metacognitive awareness, to combine metacognitive strategy with cognitive strategy and social-emotion strategy, and to train the metacognitive strategy directly and explicitly. An significance of the current research on self-regulation is to improve students' self-regulated learning in schools. The direct way to promote self-regulated learning is that teachers teach students learning strategies, and the indirect way is to create a learning environment that enables students to practice self-regulation.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

It turned out that successful language learners own their special learning ways. Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) were probably among the first researchers who brought up the idea of successful language learners, perhaps, the idea can help us understand the nature of language learning better, meanwhile, it can make us learn language quickly and easily.

Metacognitive strategies are one major type of learning strategies, the ways to achieve them is to plan, monitor, and evaluate. They can help language learners do better and facilitate their learning process.

In order to learn the application of metacognitive strategies in English study among non-English majors in Yuncheng University, and the relations between the use of metacognitive strategies and students' English grades. The author investigated 100 non-English majors' students in Yun Cheng University by means of a questionnaire. According to the results of the investigation, the author finds that the students who have been investigated do not have a good command of metacognitive strategies. In addition, there is a positive correlation between English grades and the use of metacognitive learning strategies. The author hopes that her findings will be helpful for both students and teachers in the school where she carried out the study and further more it may be helpful to promote the effect of English teaching and learning in other colleges and universities.

Of course the study has its own limitations. Firstly, as the limitation of time and energy, the present study only conducted the non-English majors and leaving the English majors unexplored, so inferences and conclusion draw from the results of the study may unsuitable to other population with different background. Hope more study may focus on metacognitive strategy. Secondly, the number of the subject is 100 which is relatively small in the present study. Therefore, it is not sure if the results of the present study would occur with a much larger number of subjects in foreign language context. Besides, the study carried out only in one college. So the findings of the present study could not be applicable to the whole Chinese context. Thirdly, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire is not enough. More energy and time should spend to modify and improve it.

Besides, the conclusions generated from this present study are not final results. It is just a little step in the course of metacognitive strategy knowledge. More complex and difficult problems need to be solved. For example, do good learners develop the metacognitive strategies in a natural way? How do students gain their metacognitive strategies? Is there any rule that students can follow in the use of metacognitive strategies? ...The author hopes that further studies would deal with these questions and metacognitive strategies in a natural way.

APPENDIX

非英语专业学生英语学习元认知策略使用现状调查表

年级: 大一() 大二() 大三()

性别: 男() 女()

你在班上的英语成绩: 优() 良() 中() 及格() 差()

下面是常用的英语学习元认知策略, 请根据数字所代表的意义, 在表格右端的数字上划一横线。所选数字一定要如实描述你的学习情况。请根据自己的实际做法填写。

谢谢合作!

1. 完全或几乎完全不符合我的情况。
2. 通常不符合我的情况。
3. 有时符合我的情况。
4. 通常符合我的情况。
5. 完全或几乎完全符合我的情况。

1. 我学习外语有明确的目标。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我详细地安排自己的学习时间、学习进程, 以保证有充分的时间学英语。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 除了完成老师的作业外, 我有自己的自学计划。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 我的自学计划通常比较简单, 一般只考虑做什么, 其他内容, 诸如怎么做什么时候做, 怎样做以及为什么要这样做, 我都不考虑。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 我很认真地制定自学计划, 计划很详细, 但不能认真、按时执行。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我经常探索适合自己的英语学习方法。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 进行某项学习活动之前, 我总喜欢想一想进行这项活动的目的是什么。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我能自觉地预习、复习。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我能专心听老师讲课。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 我在进行某项语言活动时注意力维持的时间长。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我常注意听别人(老师、同学)用英语说话。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我在听英语时, 能听出他人犯的错误。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 我在用英语时, 知道我在什么地方还未弄懂。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 我在用英语时, 知道什么地方犯了错误。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我寻找多种途径用英语。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 我尽量通过多种渠道(英文报纸、杂志、收音机、电视、因特网等)学习英语。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我积极参与英语课堂活动。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我在英语课堂活动中经常充当主要角色。	1	2	3	4	5
19. 我要分析学习任务的类型及所需要的技巧。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 面对不同的学习任务, 我能运用恰当的学习策略。	1	2	3	4	5
21. 我常与教师或其他同学交流学习外语的体会和经验, 了解他人的学习方法。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 我能在学英语的过程中发现、总结错误, 找出原因并从中有所收获。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 我常思考最佳的、最有效的英语学习方法。	1	2	3	4	5
24. 交作业、交试卷前我仔细检查。	1	2	3	4	5
25. 我听英语时, 知道什么地方没听懂。	1	2	3	4	5
26. 我常思考学习英语中取得进步的原因, 不断总结外语学习的成功经验。	1	2	3	4	5
27. 当别人听不懂我说的英语时, 我反省自己哪儿说错了。	1	2	3	4	5
28. 学了东西后, 我检查自己是否真正掌握了。	1	2	3	4	5
29. 我能正确评价自己学习英语进步的情况, 从而找出薄弱环节和改进的措施。	1	2	3	4	5
30. 我能正确评价自己的英语水平和知识的掌握情况。	1	2	3	4	5
31. 我常评价自己的学习策略, 从而找出存在的问题和解决方法。	1	2	3	4	5
32. 我常反思自己的学习活动、反思学习效果欠佳的原因。	1	2	3	4	5
33. 我根据自己的学习效果不断调整自己的学习计划, 改进学习方法。	1	2	3	4	5

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The Role of Politeness in the Employee-client Speech Interactions

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Abstract—The current investigation intends to study the pragmatic role of politeness in the interactions between employers with some clients in governmental offices. In linguistic interactions, the role of metalinguistic factors like linguistic ones are so noticeable and also can be rendered. In this study, we collected data by field method and by means of a questionnaire. Also the method of research was analytical one. The statistical society was one hundred person of the governmental clients. The results suggest that meanwhile the conversation, using face to face interactions and making utterance was satisfactory, but speech interruption was seen for 35 items, 12 items for keep client waiting, 21 items for ambiguous talking and paying enough attention to client's discourse was merely 38 items. Today the result of the study shows that the clients expect that their face to be preserved and the staff offices must implement the pragmatics strategies of politeness and face saving in format of positive and negative face in order to have a more effect on the clients. Maybe most of us didn't think so far to the point that we must speak due to the necessities, and these necessities should be found in every one's context of situation.

Index Terms—pragmatics, discourse, politeness, metalinguistic factors

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is everything; a communicative system, a thought transferor, a means to express politeness, a social quality, a basis in politics and one of the elements of forming the nations. The human beings all know at least one language. The imagination of realizing social and mental abilities without language is almost impossible. Therefore, each of us benefit from language organization and its usage (O'Grady, 1989). The study of pragmatics can be made possible in communication. There is a consensus of agreement that pragmatic knowledge is necessary in order to understand and use language (Ibid). Regarding Grice's cooperative principle, Leech (1983, p. 5) maintained that an abstract discussion of cooperative principle doesn't suffice rather it should be studied regarding politeness principle. Leech (1983) believed that the necessity of cooperative principle should be basically impinged. He continued that the cooperative principle is appropriate for the justification of the relationship between face and intended meaning, especially where semantics is difficult to comprehend. This principle, however, cannot answer the question why human beings speak indirectly. He finally concluded that Grice's cooperative principle isn't applicable alone and it should be accompanied by the principle of "polite language" or "politeness in language". By providing some examples, he asserted that the principle of politeness in language can, in most of the cases, compensate for the inefficiencies of Grice's cooperative principle.

Language has different roles, and one use it in different official or none-official styles in order to make a communication. In this regard, metalinguistic factors together with linguistic ones, like grammatical structures and lexicon and so on, have an important role in language and in make communications as a whole. The issue of the current study is that what linguistic and metalinguistic strategies (pragmatics) are used between the employers and clients within a discourse's framework that is effective in making communications? The current study searches the answer to the question that what is the role of politeness as a meta-language factor in linguistic factors between employers and clients in the governmental offices? Making communication (whether linguistic or metalinguistic) with people in office's staff, affects people's judgments about them. Various linguistic interactions can facilitate the employer-client relations, or make it difficult.

The business world is today based upon customer orientation and satisfaction to the extent that development and providing services is almost impossible without considering this. Customer-oriented organizations believe in the sentence "customer is always right". Respect for the customer has become popular in the world for many years. Indeed the difficulties in organizations are not important for the customers rather they are looking for organizations that solve their problems. Customer-oriented organization is an organization that has targeted solving these problems and they believe that customer satisfaction is both the wealth of the organization and a guarantee for the return of organization capital. With improve the discourse level in order to offer more effective services to the client and due to the importance of politeness and its effect in official discourse to have a better relationship with client, it is essential to do a more efficient research in his regard. This article tries to investigate the effects of the linguistic and meta-linguistic factors in

the discourse and discourse analysis scope, since observing politeness may have a good effect on the offering service to the clients in organizations. In this article, data collection was done through field method and questionnaires, and the survey was an analytic one. The statistical society was of 100 persons of the clients in non-private offices in five central regions that is, of north, east, west, and south and center of Tehran. The reason for choosing this statistical society, was that the variables be chosen from different kinds of cultures, so that the results be the most reliable ones.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT STUDIES

Felix and Defer (2005) did a research on the area of politeness and indirectness in the west, named "indirectness and politeness in the Mexican request". In this study, they surveyed the amount of existing anathemas among people and politeness relevance and their relations with indirectness. They don't agree with Brown and Levinson theory that says indirectness indicates politeness and made into conclusion that Mexican speakers used direct sentences in their conversations, that don't indicate impoliteness in discourse, rather suggesting a kind of an intimacy relation among them. Other research is in the field of politeness and indirectness conducted by Marti (2006) as "politeness and directness in the requests of the German - Turkish bilinguals and mono and Turkish bilinguals". He wants to know why the most Turkish people consider those who have return from Germany to their home town after years such as Marti as direct and even disrespectful. The findings of this study are based on the Blum Kulka's (1987) theories and shows that there is no linear connection between politeness and indirectness. Ogiremann (2007) studied the concepts of politeness and directness in a study titled "politeness and indirectness in cultures: A comparison of English, German, Polish, and Russian requests". After investigating the similarities and differences between English, German, Polish, and Russian culture, finally he concluded that there is more requests of Polish and Russian, compared to English and German languages, and as a whole, the two concepts of politeness and indirectness are different in various cultures.

The next study is done by Thanasoulas (1999). In his research study entitled as "Why can't a woman be more like man?", he has concluded that women most use the standard version of language and in fact the type they choose is politer than men. He defined language as a valuable social behavior that is representative of a complicated network of social, political, cultural and psychological communications in society. The difference in men and women language is rooted in the different status they take. Some linguists believe that since women are secondary in society, they choose the standard version of Language to improve their social status and value. The second reason of women's standard usage of language is related to their way of behavior in society; women need to represent appropriate behavioral patterns in society and they attempt to maintain their reputation and social value by utilizing the appropriate linguistic expressions. The third reason in their use of correct linguistic expressions is that they not only consider their own reputation in communication but also the reputation of their interlocutors is of significance for them. Therefore, they prevent any conflict and seek for building relationship with others. Another research has been done by Salmani Nodushan (2009). In this study, entitled as "Persian native speakers' requests: maintaining face implicitly", he concluded that direct requests are diminished when social distance is considerable between interlocutors and when the social distance do not exist, they tend to use direct requests as a sign for intimacy and solidarity.

Shahidi Tabar (2011) in a study entitled as "Indirectness and politeness in Turkish- Persian bilingual and Persian monolingual requests" sought to find out why most of the Iranian-Turkish speakers consider Persian speakers too straight and even impolite. He believed that to transfer pragmatic factors, a cross-cultural comparison is necessary. Other significant issues in this study are the ways of preparing the ground and polite address terms. The final research has been done by Akbari (2003). In this research entitled as "The realization of politeness principle in Persian" he studied swearwords in Persian language. He asserted that swearing has a negative relationship with education; the more the degree of education, the less the use of wear words. Thus, he concluded that educated people believe in what they say. Another finding of his study is the use of prayer words to encourage listener to cooperate with speaker. To answer the question "Do Persian speakers use the same approaches mentioned in Brown and Levinson (1987) model?" Akbari (2003) remarked "using the mentioned patterns is different in different cultures; however, in some situations, speakers of different languages treat equally". He also mooted that women use more emotional words than men.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Politeness Principals*

In every communication or human interaction particular linguistic means are used in order to show an awareness of face regarding social distance (Yule, 1996). The most valuable theory about politeness, made based on cooperative principal, is for Brown and Levinson (1987) which is focused on face maintenance of the individuals. According to this theory, everyone has two kinds of face:

Positive face: The desire to be liked and appreciated in social interactions.

Negative face: The desire of individuals not to be imposed on or intruded.

Face: The self-concept of every individual is called face (Yule, 1996). In other words, face is the image that society has of individuals.

Face Maintenance: In every social interaction, individuals behave in a way to meet their own expectations of their face or realize their "face wants" (Ibid).

Face Threatening: every expression or statement that threatens individuals' face (Ibid).

B. Politeness

Codification of observance of politeness theory is one of the most important aspects of the evolution in language (Brown & Levingston, 1987, p. 321). They were severely affected by Goffman's ideas and Grice linguistic model, meaning that they believed that the politeness phenomenon is the factor of a kind of communication that persons or different nations make with each other. Yule (1986) considers politeness as a fix concept like; polite social manner or etiquette. Linguistics, sociologists and linguistic sociologists provide various definitions of politeness. Politeness bears different meanings in different contexts. The purpose of this study is the concept of politeness in linguistic context or, in other words, linguistic politeness. Linguistic sociologists usually define politeness with face. politeness is one of the main reasons that make people sometimes express their wants indirectly; that is, saying them implicitly".

Yule (1996) defined politeness as "politeness could be considered a static concept like polite social behavior or etiquette. It is also possible to recognize various general principles for politeness in a particular culture. He believes that politeness is a concept not a nature. However, politeness is the subtlety of act and speech. Politeness is definable in both act and speech. As not stepping up against an elder one or canceling your plan due to an uninvited guest are signs of politeness (practical politeness), speaking subtly and beautifully are likewise signs of politeness (lingual politeness). Besides, politeness is not different in different cultures rather politeness definitions vary in them. Politeness, thus, is an exact, beautiful and subtle act or speech." Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 62) mentioned two kinds of politeness raised from the concept of face. Positive face: including the need of individuals to be liked and accepted in various groups. Negative face: the need of the individuals to be independent, free and not to be imposed on by others.

C. Situational Context of Language

"Situational context" was first introduced by Malinowski (1923), the Polish anthropologists who lived most of his life in England. By situational context, Malinowski mooted a particular theory about meaning and language. In his study of meaning, situational context was the basis of his approach. He believed that the meaning of every utterance is represented in its situational context so that he correspond meaning to usage (Aghagolzadeh, 2001, p. 22, cited in Dinneen, 1967, p. 300). Firth (1950) posited that meaning is the "role" in the "context". In other words, the meaning of a sentence or expression isn't composed of the meanings of every single word rather it is the role the sentence plays in a specific context. Firth was almost affected by Malinowski who posited the concept of situational concept previously. Firth (1950) considers situational context not only as a means to express meaning but also as a descriptive language methods. He likewise has considered grammar another way of describing language, of course with different form and similar abstract nature since linguistics composes a hierarchy of such methods dealing with context. According to Firth, all the linguistic explanations, including phonology, grammar and also situational context, represent meaning. Another Firth's achievements of linguistic theory are his influence on linguistic sociology. According to him, the point of significance in linguistics is language in its real usage. Firth remarked that language usage is one of the important aspects of human life and it has significant role in social communications.

D. Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis is that how the sentences in the (spoken and written language) cause producing the larger meaningful unites like: text, dialogue or interview. Cook (1989, p. 6) says: Discourse Analysis is a search to find whatever that gives cohesion to the discourse. He believes that discourse approach of face-to-face conversation type, is an analytical method that typically is included in the range of micro discourse analysis not (macro)'s one.

E. Pragmatics

Van- dijk (1989, p. 189) believes that the main purpose of Pragmatics is the study of the relationship between the linguistics elements and their users. In his opinion, pragmatics is a part of a linguistic theory. Crystal (1992, p. 310) calls the study of language in term of the users as Pragmatics. He believes that Pragmatics is the choice of the sentence structure according to the restrictions in the use of language in the social interactions and the effects that this choices have on the other participants in the communication on the behalf of the speaker.

F. Grice Principle

Grice (1957) introduced four fundamental principles as dialogue strategies about the way of language usage in peoples' communications. All of these principles make cooperative principle.

The four strategies are as follows:

1. Quality principle: try to speak honestly and reasonable in your turn of speech, means that avoid to say whatever you suppose a lie and don't say something that you haven't enough evidences and reasons.
2. Quantity principle: the share of yours in the conversation must to be appropriate and of adequate information, speak not much more and not much less than it is necessary.
3. Communication principle: try your speech be related to the topic, i.e. speak related to the topic.
4. Manner principle: speak clear, concise, regular and to the point.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

For analyzing the data, a questionnaire was designed that consist of linguistic and metalinguistic factors based on pragmatics and politeness principles and also Grice fundamentals. This questionnaire can be effective for the way employer - customer interact. Then each of the 100 participants are asked to evaluate their interaction based on the questionnaire's questions. After that, the answer to the questions will be collected and stratify and the number also the percentage of the effective factors was obtained. As in the table 1 are shown. It should be noted that each factor including linguistic and non-linguistic was evaluated by positive or negative values.

TABLE 1:
EFFECTIVE FACTORS IN THE EMPLOYEE-CLIENT SPEECH INTERACTIONS

Row	Effective Factors	Linguistic	Metalinguistic	Value	Number	Percentage
1	face to face interactions		*	+	89	%89
2	greetings	*		+	87	%87
3	making utterance	*		+	62	%62
4	turn taking in discourse	*		+	52	%52
5	tolerance in listening to discourse		*	+	41	%41
6	paying enough attention to client's discourse		*	+	38	%38
7	speech interruption	*		-	35	%35
8	conversation on phone meanwhile interacting		*	-	28	%28
9	ambiguity	*		-	21	%21
10	being talkative	*		-	17	%17
11	smiling		*	+	14	%14
12	lingering		*	-	12	%12
13	staff joking with each other in their discourse	*		-	5	%5
14	struggling among staff	*		-	2	%2
15	quantity (talk to clients less than necessity)	*		-	2	%2

As it can be seen in the table, the highest percent of using efficient factors was related to greetings that this positive value was done in the mount of 89%, and the lowest was related to struggling during discourse with just 2%. Using face to face interactions was satisfactory, but speech interruption was seen approximately high. Speech production also was seen by the employers and they observed turn taking in the speech to the right rate.

V. CONCLUSION

Bing honest in speech (observing the first Grice's principle) is very crucial. Speak in an equivocal manner and also with sarcasm (violating the fourth principle) make clients annoyed. Speaking as needed, (observance of the second rule) and related to the subject (observance of the third rule) is of the most important concerns of the clients during official discourses. Any kind of joking speech such as; a joke or prank among the employers in front of the client (violating negative politeness) is an impolite deed. Thus every correct discourse ought to be done considering the age, education and social condition of the client in offices, and this will not occur unless interact with clients face to face and observe politeness in the discourse. Employers are to use proper turn takings and on time utterance production. Pay less attention to the client shall be a lack of respect. This can be speaking to a colleague or telephoning. It had better for staff to speak related to the subject during the speaking to the client (observance of the third rule). It has two reasons as: 1- Avoid making any mistake in the administrative affairs. 2- Avoid make any interference in others private affairs (observing negative politeness). According to what we gained from the surveys conducted, every wait for questioning from the part of customers is considered kind of impoliteness. They don't like to wait so long when talking to employees. Moreover, eye contact and face to face interaction is of significance for them. They usually choose an employee who smile, respect them and speak very politely. They get angry with the employees who don't understand them more than once and take it as sign of impoliteness. They also hate speaking vaguely and ironically since everything needs to be clear in administrative situations. It is expected of employees to transfer everything completely to customers.

After the data analysis and statistical study have been done, results suggest that all of the clients in non-governmental offices believe that face to face interactions, turn taking, and among the linguistic roles: making utterance, meta lingual and paralinguistic factors should be use while giving services to the clients. They expect the employers to use proper observing politeness strategies and face saving in format of positive and negative politeness in pragmatics to make better impressions. Following conducting the current study we hope that the politeness principles to be revised, in order to governmental offices do better in offering services to their clients, and this study can make the best response to the both employer and client, and leads to the both consent. At last, it can be added that the results and findings of this study can be used in organizations, ministries and companies that dealing with the clients, and can make an impression on the administrative discourse improvement.

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Attitude and Motivation in Learning a Local Language

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Abstract—Some studies have been conducted to relate motivation with second /foreign language learning. Belmechri and Hummel (1988) introduced intensity and desire in exploring motivation in the acquisition of a second language. In some studies motivation was classified into integrative and instrumental (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Ely, 1986; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; and Sung and Padila, 1998), while some other studies motivation was classified into extrinsic and intrinsic (Dornyei (1994; Ramage, 1990; and Noels et al. 1999). Unlike the concept of motivation introduced by Oller et al.(1977 and Spolsky (1969), who did not separate attitude from motivation in language learning motivation in language learning in the study is separated from attitude. This study attempted to investigate how individual differences with regard to attitude and motivation are correlated in language learning. The participants in this study consisted of 75 students of a university in Indonesia who have been learning Lampungese language, a local language, since Elementary School. The data of attitude and motivation, which were collected through questionnaires, were analyzed by undertaking correlation analyses. The findings show that attitude and motivation was significantly correlated. The pedagogical implications were also provided in this study.

Index Terms—attitude to language, attitude to language teaching, attitude to native speakers, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation term

I. INTRODUCTION

The relationship between attitude and motivation seems to be challenging, in that different researchers have arrived at different findings. This has been due in part to different concepts and definitions of attitude and motivation and the relationships between them. In this study three types of attitude were assumed to affect language learning strategies through motivation. The three types of attitude were (1) attitudes to language, (2) attitudes to language teaching to be learned, and (3) attitudes to native speakers of a language.

It was assumed in this study that attitude affected motivation but did not directly affect language achievement. Consequently, attitude was seen not as a component of motivation but as independent factor that influences SLA through motivation (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). The role of motivation in learning a foreign language is not questionable; some studies (Lukmani, 1972; and Olshtain *et al.*, 1990) have shown evidence of the relationship between motivation and language proficiency. Nevertheless, different results have been provided about the role of motivation in language learning and different studies have also proposed different types of motivation. As cited in Dornyei (1994, p.213), studies on the role of attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning have been dominantly inspired by Gardner and Lambert. In their initial study, Gardner and Lambert (1972) did not separate attitude from motivation; attitudinal variables were viewed as potential determinants of motivation. Later, Gardner (1983 and 1991) formalized the concept by explicitly separating attitude from motivation. The studies on attitude and motivation, however, have arrived at different presentation of findings in relation to language learning (Oller, 1982; Els *et al.*, 1984; Au, 1988; Skehan, 1989; and Belmechri and Hummel, 1998).

Different from the studies that viewed motivation in general (Wen and Johnson, 1997; and Olshtain *et al.*), in some studies students' motivation is classified into two types: instrumental and integrative motivation (see Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Ely, 1986; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; and Sung and Padilla, 1998). Instrumental motivation is defined as the desire to achieve proficiency for practical reasons while integrative motivation is defined as the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the second language (Krashen, 1988, p. 22). The latter has often been held to be superior to the first (Gardner, 1985, p.83). The two types of motivation have been commonly used in studies on motivation related to language learning.

In this study, motivation for learning a language was assumed to involve a) the reason for learning a language and b) the degree of intention (desire) to learn a language and intensity (behavior) in learning a language. The reasons why

students learned a language usually placed them into either integrative or instrumental motivation. In contrast, students' motivation in this study is dichotomized into internal behavior (intrinsic) or external behavior (extrinsic) connected with the reasons for learning a language. The classification consisting of intrinsic versus extrinsic seems more appropriate than that consisting of integrative and instrumental. This dichotomy was measured by referring the reason they were learning a language provided in the motivation questionnaire. The classification of motivation consisting of intention and intensity, and intrinsic versus extrinsic orientations is not new. Belmechri and Hummel (1988) conducted a study to measure intensity and desire in exploring motivation in the acquisition of a second language among high school students in Quebec City. Nevertheless, a classification consisting of integrative and instrumental motivation has been more popular in the context of foreign language learning (see Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Ely, 1986; Oxford and Shearin, 1994; and Sung and Padila, 1998), Dornyei (1994) and Ramage (1990) classified motivation into extrinsic and intrinsic. In this study the students' motivation was classified based on the reasons for learning a language whether the reason (s) are internal to the behavior (intrinsic) or external to the behavior (extrinsic). By intrinsic is meant motivation the interest in learning a language for its own sake and by extrinsic motivation is meant the interest in the language as means to other goals (Ramage, 1990, p.208). Ramage investigated factors that influence the decision to continue or discontinue foreign language study and provides data that intrinsic motivation emerged as a stronger contributor than did extrinsic motivation (p.207-8).

Unlike the concept of motivation introduced by Oller *et al.* (1977 and Spolsky (1969), who did not separate attitude from motivation in language learning, in this study, motivation in language learning is separated from attitude. How attitude, which has two sub components, is correlated with motivation, which also has two sub components. Attitude was considered primarily to be directly related to motivation and viewed as motivational support and not as a factor that has a direct effect on L2 learning, while motivation was considered to have a more direct effect on L2 learning strategies. Not many researchers on language learning have conducted studies in this field and some believe that attitude is not separated from motivation in language learning as mentioned earlier. Among the few researchers who have conducted studies on the role of attitude in language learning as separate from motivation are Kuhlemeier *et al.* (1996) and Svanes (1988).

This has been due in part to different concepts and definitions of attitude and motivation and the relationships between them. In this study two types of attitude were assumed to affect motivation. The two types of attitude were (1) attitudes to English and attitudes to English as a subject to be learned, and (3) attitudes to native speakers of English.

Attitude was seen not as a component of motivation but as independent factor that influences SLA through motivation (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995). The role of motivation in learning a foreign language is not questionable; some studies (Lukmani, 1972; and Olshtain *et al.*, 1990; Zhao, 2015) have shown evidence of the relationship between motivation and language proficiency. Nevertheless, different results have been provided about the role of motivation in language learning and different studies have also proposed different types of motivation. As cited in Dornyei (1994, p.213), studies on the role of attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning have been dominantly inspired by Gardner and Lambert. In their initial study, Gardner and Lambert (1972) did not separate attitude from motivation; attitudinal variables were viewed as potential determinants of motivation. Later, Gardner (1985) formalized the concept by explicitly separating attitude from motivation. The studies on attitude and motivation, however, have arrived at different presentation of findings in relation to language learning (Oller, 1982; Els *et al.*, 1984; Au, 1988; Skehan, 1989; and Belmechri and Hummel, 1998).

This study is meant to explore how language attitude is correlated with motivation in learning the language. Theoretically, the result of the study is expected to response whether language attitude and motivation or the two variables are separate in language learning, and practically, the result of the study is expected to suggest language teachers how to deal with attitude to the language their students learn in order the students to have high motivation in learning a language.

II. METHODOLOGY

The participants of this study were 89 university students who had been enrolled at a university in Indonesia. The reason for selecting such a sample was that all subjects were learning Lampungese language, a local language in Indonesia. The students have been learning the language at school since they study at Elementary School. The questionnaire developed to measure language attitude consisted of 30 items. This questionnaire was arranged in a Likert- Style format. Most of the items for the questionnaire were newly developed by referring to concepts of attitude, while some items were adapted from Gardner's study (1974). The responses of strongly agree got the highest score (5) and those of strongly disagree got the lowest score (1). The questionnaire assessing motivation consisted of 40 items. In this questionnaire, students responded to statements by choosing one of three choices which were arranged ordinally. The answers are scored 3 for the highest motivated behavior and 1 for the lowest motivated behavior. Some items are negatively worded while some others are positively worded. In motivation questionnaire some items were based on the theories of motivation, while some others were also adapted from Gardner's study (1974). The questionnaire was translated into and answered in the Indonesian language.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Reliability of the Measurement

To increase the internal consistency of the hypothesized scales, Cronbach Alpha coefficients of internal consistency were computed for the scales. *Language attitude* (30 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$) consists *attitude to language and language learning* (20 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$) and *attitude to native speakers* (10 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). *Motivation in language learning* (40 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$) consists *desire to learn a language* (20 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$) and *intensity in learning a language* (20 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$).

Generally, the results of the internal consistency of the measurements in this study are regarded as high and the questionnaires are acceptable for the analysis to explore the correlation between attitude and motivation in learning a language.

TABLE 1:
RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURES

Scales	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha (n=89)
Language attitude	30 items	.80
Attitude to language and language learning	20 items	.82
Attitude to native speakers	10 items	.86
Motivation	40 items	.88
Desire to learning a language	20 items	.90
Intensity in learning a language	20 items	.86

B. The Correlation of Attitude to Motivation

As described earlier, attitude has two sub-components: *attitude to language and language learning*, and *attitude to native speakers of the language* and motivation also two sub-components: *desire to learn a language* and *intensity in learning a language*. Since in this study attitude has two sub-components and so does the motivation, it will be specifically investigated how the sub-components of attitude are related to motivation and the sub-components of the motivation as well. To address the issue, correlation analysis was undertaken.

The result of correlation analysis provided in this study shows how a combination of the components of attitude was significantly correlated with motivation even though not strong ($r = .26$, and $p < .05$). *Attitude to language and language learning* was significantly correlated with *desire to learn a language* with $r = .33$, $p < .01$. This component of attitude was also significantly correlated with *intensity in learning a language* with $r = .34$, $p < .01$. While the first component of attitude was significantly correlated with the sub-components of motivation, the second component of attitude: *attitude to native speakers* appeared to be not significantly correlated. This sub-component of attitude was very weakly (and not significantly) correlated with the two components of motivation: *desire* and *intensity* ($r = .04$, $p > .05$ and $r = .11$, $p > .05$ respectively).

To explore whether the first sub-component: desire to learn English was related to the second sub-component: intensity in learning English, a correlation was computed. The two sub-components had a statistically significant correlation ($r = .41$, $p < .01$). From a theoretical point of view, the correspondence between desire and intensity can be explained with the theory of *reasoned action* that a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) a behavior is the intermediate determinant for that action (Ajzen, 1985, p.12). The desire or intention to learn English affects the intensity or behavior in learning English. In other words, the intensity (behavior) in learning English can be predicted from the intention to learn English. They seem to have a close and predictive relationship as suggested in this study.

That the sub-component *attitude to language and language learning* is correlated with both of the sub-components of motivation may imply that the two individual variables have a cause-and-effect relationship. Logically, it may be argued that it is more likely that attitude is the cause than the effect. Attitude seems to be the cause and motivation to be the effect in the relationship. This tentative answer was drawn on a theoretical ground that attitudes influence the effort that students expend to learn another language; the effort expended to learn another language has to do with actions and intentions related to the attitudinal object (Mantle-Bromley, 1995, p.373). The actions refer to intensity in this study and intentions to desire in learning Indonesian language.

TABLE 2:
CORRELATION AMONG THE COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE AND MOTIVATION

N=79	A	A1	A2	M	M1	M2
A		.58**	.89**	.26*	.19*	.25**
A1	.58**		.14	.40**	.33**	.34**
A2	.89**	.14		.09	.04	.16
M	.26*	.40**	.09		.86**	.82**
M1	.19*	.33**	.04	.86**		.41**
M2	.25**	.34**	.16	.82**	.41**	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01, * Correlation is significant at the 0.05

Note:

A = Attitude A1 = Attitude to the language and the language learning; A2 = Attitude to native speakers
M = Motivation; M1 = Desire to learn the language; M2 = intensity in learning the language

It is interesting to note that *attitude to the target language* and *learning the language* are significantly correlated with either motivation or its components while *attitude to native speakers of Lampungese* is not. It may imply that some components of language attitude, in particular attitude to the target language and attitude to learning the target language is a part of motivation in language learning. It may also suggest that attitude is not necessarily a part of motivation in learning a language. Probably, this also suggests that although attitudes to native speakers may affect motivation in learning a language whenever learners wish to *integrate* themselves into the culture of the new language, the condition or opportunity to integrate into the culture of the target language seems very rare in Indonesia. This may also imply that language attitude to Lampungese and learning Lampungese is more correlated with motivation than is attitudes to native speakers of Lampungese. The above issues provided with the findings of this study need further research.

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The teacher may provide opportunities for the students to have positive attitude, especially attitude to Lampungese and to Lampungese learning. Hopefully, by having the students with positive attitude, the Lampungese teachers can provide opportunities for the students to have high motivation. The individual differences in attitude and motivation can be expected to produce greater frequency of learning strategy use, which has been investigated and revealed in many studies to be significantly correlated with language achievement and contribute to the success.

APPENDIX 1. ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. There are no right or wrong answers since many people have different opinions. We would like you to indicate your opinions about each statement by ticking the alternative below which best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Can't decide	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Lampungese is necessary in the era of globalization					
2	Lampungese is a language with standard rule					
3	In Indonesia the use of Lampungese should be restricted.					
4	Lampungese is a popular language in Indonesia					
5	Television programs shown in Lampungese in Indonesia must be translated into Indonesian					
6	Lampungese is less important than other foreign languages for Indonesians					
7	Lampungese is a very complicated language					
8	Lampungese is a language of educated people					
9	Listening to Lampungese songs is disgusting					
10	Lampungese pronunciation is beautiful					
11	Learning Lampungese is obligatory in this province					
12	If I have children, I would like them also to learn Lampungese out of school hours					
13	I prefer to be taught Lampungese at all school levels.					
14	Learning Lampungese is interesting.					
15	Learning Lampungese makes me happy.					
16	I would rather spend my time on another language (if any) than Lampungese.					
17	Learning Lampungese is dull					
18	Lampungese class should be an optional subject					
19	Lampungese is a language worth learning					
20	Learning Lampungese can influence our way of life based on our country					
21	Native speakers of Lampungese are friendly					
22	Native speakers of Lampungese are generally well educated					
23	Native speakers of Lampungese feel too superior to other people					
24	Native speakers of Lampungese are money oriented					
25	Native speakers of Lampungese are arrogant					
26	Native speakers of Lampungese tend to intervene another country's domestic affairs					
27	Native speakers of Lampungese are trustworthy					
28	Native speakers of Lampungese are hard working					
29	Native speakers of Lampungese are considerate of the feeling of others					
30	Native speakers of Lampungese are selfish					

APPENDIX 2. MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Instruction

Please answer each of the following items by circling the letter of the alternatives which appear to most applicable to you. We hope you to be as accurate as possible since the success of this investigation depends on it.

1. Why do I learn Lampungese?. I can honestly say that I
 - a. try to kill my spare time.
 - b. am suggested by somebody else to join.
 - c. really try to learn Lampungese.
2. If my Lampungese teacher wants someone to do an extra Lampungese assignment, I will
 - a. definitely volunteer
 - b. only do it if he/she asks me directly
 - c. definitely not volunteer
3. When I hear Lampungese songs on the radio, I
 - a. change the station.
 - b. prefer to listen to the music, paying attention only to the easy words.
 - c. prefer to listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
4. If I have Lampungese homework, I
 - a. just skim over it.
 - b. put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
 - c. work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
5. When I see directions written in Lampungese, I
 - a. read them carefully and try to understand.
 - b. read them over, but give up if it gets difficult.
 - c. look for the Indonesian translation.
6. If I have a problem in understanding something while I am learning Lampungese, I
 - a. just forget about it.
 - b. only seek help just before the exam.
 - c. immediately ask the teacher for help.
7. I actively think about what I have learned in the Lampungese course
 - a. very frequently
 - b. once in a while
 - c. hardly ever
8. When I am in the Lampungese discussion, I
 - a. never say anything.
 - b. speak once a while.
 - c. speak quite often.
9. Outside of class I read Lampungese books and magazines.
 - a. quite often
 - b. once a while
 - c. never
10. After I get my Lampungese assignment back, I
 - a. always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.
 - b. look them over, but I don't bother correcting mistakes.
 - c. just throw them in my bag and forget it.
11. If an Lampungese course is offered, I will
 - a. not enroll in the course.
 - b. enroll if it is free.
 - c. definitely enroll.
12. If I have an opportunity to speak Lampungese outside class, I will
 - a. speak it most the time if it is possible.
 - b. speak it occasionally if it is necessary.
 - c. never speak it.
13. During the Lampungese class, I would like
 - a. to have only Lampungese spoken.
 - b. to have a combination of Indonesian and Lampungese spoken.
 - c. to have Indonesian spoken as much as possible.
14. If I had opportunity to meet Lampungese speaking families, I would
 - a. not go.
 - b. go only if I had nothing to do.
 - c. definitely go.

15. If I had a choice, I would like to take
 - a. a Lampungese class only.
 - b. a Lampungese and another local language class.
 - c. another local language class.
16. If there were a Lampungese speaking club here, I would
 - a. try to attend the meetings as often as possible.
 - b. attend the meeting only once a while.
 - c. not join.
17. If I knew enough Lampungese, I would watch Lampungese Television programs
 - a. as often as possible.
 - b. sometimes.
 - c. never.
18. If I had opportunity and knew enough Lampungese, I would read Lampungese books and magazines
 - a. never.
 - b. not very often.
 - c. as often as possible.
19. After I finish my Lampungese class, I will probably
 - a. make no attempt to remember the Lampungese I have learned.
 - b. try to use the Lampungese that I am very sure of.
 - c. try to use Lampungese as much as possible.
20. If there were a Lampungese television station, I would
 - a. never watch it.
 - b. turn it on occasionally.
 - c. try to watch it often.
21. Why do I learn Lampungese? I can honestly say that I
 - a. try to kill my spare time.
 - b. am suggested by somebody else to join.
 - c. really try to learn English.
22. If my Lampungese teacher wants someone to do an extra Lampungese assignment, I will
 - a. definitely volunteer
 - b. only do it if he/she asks me directly
 - c. definitely not volunteer
23. When I hear Lampungese songs on the radio, I
 - a. change the station.
 - b. prefer to listen to the music, paying attention only to the easy words.
 - d. prefer to listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
24. If I have Lampungese homework, I
 - a. just skim over it.
 - b. put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
 - c. work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
25. When I see directions written in Lampungese, I
 - a. read them carefully and try to understand.
 - b. read them over, but give up if it gets difficult.
 - c. look for the Indonesian translation.
26. If I have a problem in understanding something while I am learning Lampungese, I:
 - a. just forget about it.
 - b. only seek help just before the exam.
 - c. immediately ask the teacher for help.
27. I actively think about what I have learned in the Lampungese course...
 - a. very frequently
 - b. once in a while
 - c. hardly ever
28. When I am in the Lampungese discussion, I
 - a. never say anything.
 - b. speak once a while.
 - c. speak quite often.
29. Outside of class I read Lampungese books and magazines.
 - a. quite often
 - b. once a while
 - c. never

30. After I get my Lampungese assignment back, I
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 - b. not very often.
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39. After I finish my Lampungese class, I will probably
 - a. make no attempt to remember the Lampungese I have learned.
 - b. try to use the Lampungese that I am very sure of.
 - c. try to use Lampungese as much as possible.
40. If there were a Lampungese television station, I would:
 - a. never watch it.
 - b. turn it on occasionally.
 - c. try to watch it often.

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EFL Reading Comprehension Classes with Cultural Consciousness-raising Orientation and Multicultural Personal Traits Development

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Abstract—Investment and personality development in SL learning is gaining momentum (Norton, 2000, Norton and Toohey, 2002; Kramsch, 2005; Norton, 2010). Therefore, pedagogical aspects of identity require to be investigated to facilitate learning process. This study investigated the impact of Reading Comprehension classes with consciousness-raising orientation on Multicultural Personality Traits' development in EFL students compared with EFL students undergoing regular reading comprehension classes with no specific treatments. Eighty three EFL students in five RC classes were randomly selected. Two classes were treated as the experimental group and three classes as control group. Multicultural Personality Traits Questioner, a personality assessment questionnaire developed by Van Der Zee and Oudenhoven (2000) was used to measure their five personality features, recognized as Multicultural Personality Traits - *Cultural Empathy*, *Open-mindedness*, *Social Initiative*, *Emotional Stability*, and *Flexibility*. The analyses of the collected revealed that there was not a statistically significant increase in total Multicultural Personality Traits from t_1 ($M=268.03$, $SD=12.636$) to t_2 [$M=271.14$, $SD=11.565$, $t(34) = 1.588$, $p \leq .05$]. But there was a statistically significant value found in the scores of Cultural Empathy (CE) from t_1 ($M=55.20$, $SD= 2.67$) to t_2 [$M= 56.49$, $SD = 2.79$, $t(34) = 2.35$; $p \leq .05$].

Index Terms—EFL reading comprehension, cultural consciousness-raising orientation, multicultural personality traits development

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture are intermingled in each other and mutually serve each other. Furthermore, their collective entity constructs identity in individuals and communities alike (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003). Cultural entities are so essential to language that extraction of culture from language would lead any languages to the verge of extinction and that is why almost all language learning programs and materials either intentionally or inevitably include cultural aspects of language alongside its linguistic features. Therefore, both L1 language acquisition and L2 language learning are accompanied with cultural acquisition (Fogle 2007; Hinkel, 2006; Eglin, 2000). Hence, there exists the potential possibility that enhancing L2-associated cultural traits in L2 learners might help pave the way for their L2 proficiency achievements.

There are very strong reasons for the inclusion of culture and cultural understanding in the curriculum of the second or foreign language programs. The very first one is that language is almost nonexistent if it is void of its cultural features. A culture-free language would be just a frame with no contents and ingredients, for culture is the substance and language is the frame to provide it a manifestable shape and the possibility of exchange. The second reason for the inclusion of culture in the syllabi is that learning a second language without cultural understanding would result in an imperfect knowledge of the second language in which language learners might possess entire linguistic features of the new language, but still have problems in expressing themselves properly and making the right interpretations of the received materials. A second language speaker with almost perfect linguistic competence but little cultural understanding would sound strange, have problems in establishing meaningful communication with native speakers of the second language and authentic texts, and would construe too many misunderstandings. Therefore, the intercultural competence is what a perfect FL speaker needs next to linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competences. This reading of culture and language unanimity has constructed the theoretical foundation of this study to investigate the impact of Cultural Awareness Raising Approach in teaching Reading Comprehension classes on the EFL students by Pre and post testing their Multicultural Personality Traits developments.

a. Background

The amount of time and capital invested on L2 learning by individuals themselves, their families, institutions and states is really tremendous. Iranian TEFL community has not dealt with culture-related issues in EFL teaching and learning in the curriculums, teaching materials, and teaching strategies properly yet. As mentioned earlier, cultural ingredients of every language cannot be removed from every aspect of language teaching programs because of their ubiquitous nature in language. But this cultural aspect of EFL has not received the pedagogical, sociocultural and psychological attention and care it deserves.

There is no doubt that successful L2 learning in its totality will necessarily be accompanied by Second Culture Acquisition (SCA) (Hamers & Blance, 2000). L2 learning is, to an acceptable level, categorized into second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning (FLL), but L2 culture is altogether an acquisitional phenomenon both in SLA and FLL. Of course its intensity in SLA can reasonably be accepted to be greater than FLL but its quality is of the same kind and nature. The only difference is that the degree or amount of L2 culture acquisition in the SL context will be much greater than the FL context. Furthermore, a FL learner, living in his native language socio-cultural context, would expectedly undergo greater challenges and resistance, either consciously or unconsciously, in evaluating, gaining, and exercising his new language culture. Hence, L2 culture acquisition in any L2 learning, whether FL or SL, is an inevitable task and its various sociocultural as well as pedagogical aspects call for proper and profound understandings and management.

b. Review of the related literature

Culture, owing to its sensitive and between-the-line nature, has yielded itself very little to academic studies compared to other aspects of EFL. Of course within ESL there have been studies conducted in countries native to English language and there are also studies in the EFL area on Japanese students (Yasuko, 2003), Koreans (Ahn, 2007), and Chinese (Feng, 2009). But when cultural studies in the EFL field in the Middle East countries are searched, specifically in Iran, the shortcoming in this area compared to the other linguistic aspects of EFL is easily recognized.

L2 learning and teaching is getting richer and richer day by day by integrating greater number of variables together and defining every one of these variable's sphere of influence on L2 learning and on each other. The Grammar-translation world of L2 teaching and learning gave way to the discrete-point world of structuralists, Universalists, and functionalists. The world of competence in FL/SL that started with linguistic competence gradually developed into performance, functional or communicative competences (Bachman, 1990; Bardovi-Harling, 2002; Chomsky, 1965; Hymes, 1972; cited in May, 2009), pragmatic competence (Grice, 1989; Morris, 1994; Rose & Kasper, 2001), pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983), and now scholars are talking of intercultural communicative competence (Savignon, 2006) and Intercultural pragmatics (Wierzbicka, 2006). Intercultural competence is gaining its due credit in L2 teaching, learning and testing for it is well accepted that language without culture is nonexistent. Furthermore, "Given the dialogic nature of culture (Bakhtin, 1981), we cannot fully understand one culture in the absence of contact with other cultures" (Savignon, 2006, p.102). Therefore, at this juncture of the recognition of the developmental trend of culture in L2 teaching and learning, studies on culture in two culturally different societies of western English world and Eastern world, e.g. Iranian and its role within EFL classes and among EFL students' speech community in Iran, can be contributive both socio-culturally and pedagogically.

L2 learning is accompanied with Second Culture Acquisition (SCA) which can be either facilitating or hampering to L2 learners (Libben & Lindner, 1996). Probably some of the EFL learners in our society are having difficult times finding ways to overcome the conflicting situations between their L1 culture and L2 culture. This lack of feel-at-home context in some of the EFL learners will have its negative consequences on learners' achievements and calls for proper treatments; otherwise, our EFL programs will yield in either some linguistically competent but interculturally incompetent graduate at its best or some alienated EFL speakers who will time and again suffer from a feeling of guilt of going through a process that is bringing about some kind of erosion on their L1 culture.

Personality and self-identity is a dynamic and developmental phenomenon that in the course of life gradually gets more solidified. Regarding this dynamic nature of identity, Hymes (1974) states "Culture is transmitted, shaped, and maintained through language and dialogue" (Hymes, 1974, cited in Finnan & Swanson, 2000, p. 67). EF language learners experience this identity development in two linguistic milieus; whereas, Monolinguals' cultural identity is constructed in their L1 environment within which there exists only a monolithic cultural world.

Studies on bilinguals' biculturality reflecting the idea that some bilinguals live and behave in two cultural domains – L1 culture and L2culture – have been conducted in the second language domain (Libben & Lindner, 1996; Mariam & Kaushankaya, 2005; Yasuko, 2003). The case of learning English in a foreign language domain, which can be specific to every nation, such as Persian, Arabic, Turkish, Japanese, etc. has not been much investigated. The sociocultural aspect and the pedagogical of an enriched identity reconstruction among Iranian EFL students were investigated within Norton's (1995) Investment Model (Bahrami, 2012). The developmental trend of the Multicultural Personality Traits (MPTs) of Iranian EFL students was investigated among BA, MA, and Ph.D. students as well as the correlation between rate MPTs and their English language proficiency and it was found that there is a significant degree of correlation between MPTs development and EFL proficiency. Therefore within this understanding, this study was designed to investigate the effect of Teaching EFL with cultural orientation on EFL students' MPTs development that consequently results in higher EFL proficiency.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study attempted to investigate the impact of teaching Reading Comprehension with Multicultural Awareness Raising Orientations on the MPTs' development of Iranian students. The objective of the study was formulated in the following research question.

1. Does teaching Reading Comprehension with a Cultural Consciousness-Raising Orientation result in developing a significant level of Multicultural Personal Traits in the participants?

All possible efforts were made to use the proper and reliable measurement tools to collect the required data that could resolve the issue raised by the research question. The possibility of falling into the pitfall of prejudice and subjectivity in dealing with cultural issues was avoided by providing maximum care and placing a greater weight on its objective scale. Then the research question, was transformed and rewritten in the following null form to help carry out this research in an empirical manner.

1. Teaching Reading Comprehension classes with a Cultural Consciousness-Raising Orientation to nurture MPTs does not result in developing a significant level of MPTs in EFL students.

a. instrument

Individual's MPTs introduced by Oudenhoven and Van der Zee (2001) and Libben and Lindner's (1996) Stress Reduction Strategies were used in the EG Reading Comprehension classes. The open-end discussion sessions on the five multicultural personal traits -cultural empathy (CE), open-mindedness (OM), social initiative (SI), emotional stability (ES) and flexibility (FL)- were constructed in Reading Comprehension classes in the experimental group to help raise L2 students' awareness of these personality traits that contribute to individuals' multicultural understanding and would consequently facilitate their achievement of intercultural competence and higher English language proficiency. As proposed by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), L2 learners were helped to arrive at an "awareness" of the culture rather than accumulating bits of "information" or "knowledge" about the culture.

Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) developed by Van der Zee and Oudenhoven at the University of Groningen in the Netherlands (2001) was used in this study to measure the participants' MPTs. It is used to identify individuals' capability of adjustment to other cultures (Van der Zee & Oudenhoven, 2000; Burkard & Ponterotto, 2008). MPQ is a 91-item personality assessment questionnaire based on which participants can be rated on a 5-point likert scale, receiving a range of scores from 91-455. It measures five personality features, recognized as Multicultural Personality Traits (MPTs), which are Cultural Empathy (CE), Open-mindedness (OM), Social Initiative (SI), Emotional Stability (ES), and Flexibility (FL).

b. Participants

The 83 Participants of this experimental study comprised 71 EFL BA students in their second term at Allameh Tabataba'i University and 12 students at the School of International Relations (SIR). Normally these students are randomly assigned to different reading comprehension classes. Five RC(II) classes were randomly selected. Two classes, one at Allameh Tabataba'i with 24 students and one at School of International Relations with 12 students, were treated as the experimental group and three classes were set to be the control group. It was found that one student at the experimental group was an international student from Palestine; therefore, she was excluded from this group and there were 35 students (17 male, 18 female) left in the EG. Five students in CG failed to complete the post-test; therefore, 42 students (13 male, 29 female) were left in this group. All of the classes were taught for one semester in the spring of 2012.

c. Data Collection Procedure

This study was conducted to measure the rate of development in participants' MPTs while attending a Reading Comprehension course with cultural orientation. The control group was treated in normal traditional manner of holding Reading Comprehension classes. The study was carried out among EFL BA students going through their second term at Allameh Tabataba'i University and School of International Relations. There were five Reading Comprehension classes. These five classes were randomly assigned to the experimental groups and the control ones and were taught RC(II) for one term. At the very beginning of the term all groups took MPQ as the pretest. And at the end of the term again they were post tested to find out about the differences in the results potentially resulting from the treatment offered to the experimental groups. Table 1 presents the design of this part of this study.

Both EGs and CG had taken Reading Comprehension (II). The materials used in all classes were reading comprehension texts that are regularly used in RC classes with the aim and objective to improve students' reading comprehension skills by means of helping them with various tactics of efficient reading with comprehension plus increasing their treasury of vocabulary. But in the experimental group, MPTs were meant to be nurtured by means of raising participants' multicultural awareness. The control group was just attending regular Reading Comprehension (II) classes. The experimental groups received the special treatment meant to raise their cultural consciousness in the area of MPTs; whereas, the control groups were treated in the common conventional manner of teaching Reading Comprehension classes. Then both groups were post-tested. The amounts of change in terms of MPTs were measured between both control and the experimental groups to see whether any meaningful differences between the experimental and control groups could be recognized that could be attributed to the given treatment. The collected data of Pre-test and post-test and were analyzed by means of using SPSS 15 to see whether the treatment that the experimental group had been offered resulted in any significant differences or not.

d. Treatment applied in the Experimental Group

The experimental group and the control group both took Reading Comprehension (II). The experimental groups were treated with a Cultural Awareness-Raising Orientation. The objective of the treatment given to the experimental group was to raise their cultural awareness. In order to materialize cultural awareness in the participants in the experimental groups, the approach taken was to use every effort in the classroom activities and assignments to call students' attention to cultural aspects and help them improve their multicultural personal awareness. The following four basic theoretical

and practical aspects of teaching RC with a cultural consciousness raising orientation were executed in accordance with the descriptions provided below.

1. The approach taken toward the various aspects of this class
2. Classroom tasks and activities
3. Assignments
4. Evaluation

e. The Approach Taken in the EG

Every item in language, no matter how small, from the very small prosodic elements, to sophisticated complex syntaxes, contains and conveys some contextual/sociopragmatic meanings and intentions alongside with its semantic meaning. The contextual/sociopragmatic meanings of utterances are their cultural aspects. Therefore, in the treatment groups care and attention was taken and applied to make sure that every task and activity in this class was in line with the approach that every linguistic element has cultural dimensions without which the comprehension and interpretation of them will not be comprehensive. So, within every part and stage of this class, cultural aspects of the text were the guiding key terms for presentation and practice and evaluation.

Awareness of MPTs was initiated in this class by providing proper opportunities in the activities and behaviors of all the participants to help nurture it. MPTs cannot be nurtured in individuals without engaging in interactions with others. Every student in order to develop his MPTs need interlocutors to help bring them into existence by means of establishing social interactions. Students in the experimental group were helped to recognize the importance of the others presence and participation in providing them the possibility of exercising and improving their MPTs. Every one of the five items of MPTs is a multi-pillar construction that is in need of interlocutors to be materialized and practiced. None of the five MPTs can be exercised or materialized by individuals alone. MPTs do not come into existence alone and cannot be sustained in a mono-polar self-interest-seeking world. All these aspects of MPTs were well taken care of in the experimental group classes in classroom discussions and activities.

The complementary nature of culture in language learning, i.e. the diversity and multiculturalism in human communities that every L2 learner should be made aware of, was presented to the participants in this approach. It can be said that objective in these classes was to present reading comprehension materials with cultural orientations and the aim was to raise participants' multicultural awareness. The personality traits contributing to multicultural awareness were tried to be fostered in the EG to prepare the ground in these EFL learners for a higher and richer intercultural understanding that is expected to lead to a higher L2 proficiency achievements.

In teaching a foreign language, as linguistic elements are identified, presented, and tried to ascertain that the learners come to understand them and also employ them properly in their speeches and writings, cultural aspects of every item should also be equally treated. L2 learning, from cultural perspective, is exposed to new and sometimes different readings of the world, life and existence that require specific frames to be constructed. Sometimes, L1 cultural frames do not meet the requirements of L2 cultural items and world; therefore, L2 learners should be helped to be creative in making new frames for every new cultural theme they come across in their learning of their new language. In fact learning a new language calls for an innovative attitude and the five MPTs are the basic prerequisites for such innovations to come into existence. In the reading comprehension classes offered in this study every effort conducive to MPTs. EG participants were provided with opportunities to foster the mentioned five MPTs.

In the reading texts, every item's cultural aspects were identified and introduced in a critical and analytical manner by having the students participate in the discussions and contribute to the collectively constructed understandings. It was tried to convey the idea that every L2 learner should search for the cultural features of every item next to their linguistic and semantic features. For example, while presenting the word "pet" it was made clear that this word linguistically and semantically means just an animate noun referring to an animal kept at home by some people. But in the native English speaking communities, it has got its social and legal status to the extent that *a pet* is counted in as a family member with its own legal rights. *A pet* is no longer referred as "it"; it is given equal linguistic referent and is referred to as either "he" or "she" and is believed to deserve equal respect like the other member of the family. *A pet* has got some legal rights as well. If it is a small bird, it cannot be kept alone in a cage or it cannot be left alone at home; otherwise, the owners have to face legal persecutions for their violations of the pets' rights. Governments are responsible to pay for the attorneys to defend the pets' cases in lawsuits. Similar types of cultural features accompany every linguistic element and these aspects of English language were treated appropriately in the experimental RC classes.

It should be made crystal clear that raising cultural consciousness and nurturing multicultural personality traits is not teaching culture of any specific speech community; rather it is nurturing an attitude in language learners to arouse their cultural attentiveness and consciousness towards the reception and recognition of new cultural values. The EG's RC class attempted to broaden the EFL learners' viewpoint in their approach towards learning a new language by means of directing them to create the socio-pragmatic features of the new words rather than finding their best Persian equivalents. If EFL students mean to learn a new language in its perfect holistic and get well aware of its cultural aspects, they essentially need to broaden their approach to equate a bird's view and deepen it to touch a feeling of a philosopher's.

f. Classroom Tasks, Activities and Assignments

All the classroom activities possessed a discursive nature and were presented in a dialogic and interactional manner and were not just seeking satisfactions at the comprehensive level, but rather going further to help foster a broad band capability in sharing mutual perspectives with the native speakers. Students were encouraged to take adventure in presenting their even diverse viewpoints. Participants were guided to develop their own insight and understanding of the diversity of viewpoints in every human community. A brainstorming type of communal gathering were managed to dominate the classroom with no preference already established, except the fact that diversity is a real piece of human communities.

The manner of treatment in the EG was believed to have a greater effect than transfer of knowledge and data on MPTs. As Planken, Van Hooft, and Korzilius (2004) have found cultural awareness can best be achieved by language learners' "participation" in cultural acts rather than focusing "primarily on internalizing knowledge". Therefore, the generation of the concept of MPTs and its development and promotion were materialized through the trend presented, practiced and established in the classroom activities rather than preaching it. And it was the teacher's responsibility to set a perfect example of MPTs in the deeds conducted in the classroom rather than lecturing the students on the merits of possessing MPTs.

The scope of classroom tasks in this experiment was meaning-based and interactional. It was tilted towards raising participants' awareness of sociopragmatic aspect of the linguistic forms by means of implementing the Noticing Hypothesis. Once the new material was presented and its comprehension was achieved, the teacher would present an objective, scientific and academic understanding of the issue under discussion and prepare the ground for everyone in the class to enjoy his/her right of voicing his/her own reading, interpretation and analysis of the issue. All of the participants were practically witnessing everyone's chance of expressing his/her viewpoints and being respected and challenged by the others and providing the others with equally the same right. This type of classroom activities was expected to help nurture all personality features of MPTs in the EG's students.

Regarding the classroom activities and the available time, the reading materials, as far as their reading comprehension was concerned, were managed to be covered in the 1st third of every session. This preparatory step paved the way for the following discursive activities that were the main tasks distinguishing the EG's classes from the other regular RC classes.

Manner of teaching, including all teaching activities, can be more conducive to cultural achievement than mere transfer of data and knowledge on culture. Intercultural competence can best be achieved by language learners "participation" in cultural acts and observation of cultural behaviors rather than "focus[ing] on internalizing knowledge" (Planken, Van Hooft & Korzilius, 2004, p. 309). Of course participation in cultural acts in its real sense is almost beyond an EFL context. The best possibility to take care of the shortcomings of a FL environment in nurturing sound and sane cultural awareness that will not be criticized as foreign culture inculcation is discussion-based language teaching and learning classes in which language learners will be offered chances to participate in discussions around the axis of cultural issues. The participatory nature of discussion-oriented language learning classes will help the learners to put into practice their L2 aural/oral skills and raise their awareness of cultural diversity of human communities. The quality of discussions enriched by every student's participation and contributions will help them broaden their scope of mind and come to visualize cultural issues from different perspectives. Discussion-based L2 classes can best serve the recognition, materialization and promotion of MPTs in L2 learners that is sought in most forthcoming multicultural human communities. Discussion-based language classes help development MPTs. Students' participation and contributions of their viewpoints will materialize their meaningful integration into the cultural system and can guarantee the achievement of "cultural awareness-raising" and "production" (Planken, Van Hooft & Korzilius, 2004, p. 312). Ten passages about CE, SI, OM, ES, and FL were prepared and used in EG to raise their cultural consciousness and improve their MPTs.

Participants in the experimental groups were informed of the theme and subject of every session's text and were given the text a week earlier. They were assigned to go over the text and come to class rich and prepared for discussions. Every student was given a chance to present his/her viewpoints that were used to initiate the ensuing whole-class discussions. The students' participations were given credits as well as the content of their viewpoints. The reading subjects were presented along a continuum somewhere on which every human being might decide to fall and find his interests. The aim pursued was to assist the participants to develop an understanding that the real world is not a black and white dichotomous world and there are many greyly tinted areas between black and white.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Finally, MPTs of the EGs and CGs were compared by means of applying an Independent-sample t-test for the comparison of the means between experimental and control groups' posttests. Then every one of the subsets of MPTs was also compared in the experimental and control groups to find out the effects of applied treatment in every one of the subcategories of MPTs. Pretest and posttest scores of the experimental groups were also compared by means of applying a paired t-test of means to see if any meaningful difference between the two could be identified.

TABLE 1:
PARTICIPANTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL PART OF THE STUDY

Experimental Groups	Control Groups
35 EFL BA students taking Reading Comprehension (II) + Teaching centered on nurturing Cultural Awareness	42 EFL BA students Taking regular Reading Comprehension (II) + No special treatments

As mentioned earlier, EGs and CGs were both pre and post tested on their MPTs. The results found for the EG are presented in table 2. As indicated in bold figures, EG students' MPTs raised from 268.03 to 271.14 from t_1 to t_2 . Then this was analyzed through a t-test comparison of means (Table 3) and it was found that:

- There was not a statistically significant increase in MPTs scores from t_1 ($M=268.03$, $SD=12.636$) to t_2 [$M=271.14$, $SD=11.565$, $t(34) = 1.588$, $p \leq .05$].
- There was not a statistically significant increase in OP, SI, ES and FL scores of all participants from t_1 to t_2 .
- But there was a statistically significant value found in the scores of Cultural Empathy (CE) from t_1 ($M=55.20$, $SD=2.67$) to t_2 [$M=56.49$, $SD=2.79$, $t(34)=2.35$; $p \leq .05$].

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EG'S MPTs IN POST AND PRE-TESTS (N=35)

Pairs	MPTs	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Post Multicultural Personality Traits	271.14	11.66	1.97
	Pre Multicultural Personality Traits	268.03	12.63	2.13
Pair 2	Post Cultural Empathy	56.49	2.79	.47
	Pre Cultural Empathy	55.20	2.67	.45
Pair 3	Post Open-Mindedness	55.23	3.17	.53
	Pre Open-Mindedness	54.37	2.77	.46
Pair 4	Post Social Initiative	54.91	3.78	.64
	Pre Social Initiative	54.60	4.44	.75
Pair 5	Post Emotional Stability	52.31	4.88	.826
	Pre Emotional Stability	52.14	4.92	.83
Pair 6	Post Flexibility	52.20	3.28	.55
	Pre Flexibility	51.71	4.03	.68

TABLE 3:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST STATISTICS MPTs BETWEEN POST AND PRE-TESTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Paired Variables	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean			
Pair 1	Post MPTs & Pre MPTs	3.11	11.60	1.96	34	.12
Pair 2	Post & Pre Cultural Empathy	1.28	3.23	.54	34	.02*
Pair 3	Post & Pre Open-Mindedness	.85	3.01	.50	34	.10
Pair 4	Post & Pre Social Initiative	.31	5.07	.85	34	.71
Pair 5	Post & Pre Emotional Stability	.17	4.17	.70	34	.810
Pair 6	Post & Pre Flexibility	.48	3.51	.59	34	.42

The effect size for the above t-test was calculated and the eta-squared value was found to be .069.

Having conducted pre and posttests on MPTs of the CGs, an independent samples t-test comparison of means was conducted between EG's and CG's MPTs. The results found, as presented in Table 6, were as follows:

- There was no significant difference in scores for participants in the experimental group ($M=271.14$, $SD=11.66$) and the participants in the Control group [$M=268.26$, $SD=14.16$; $t(75) = .96$]. The magnitude of the difference in the means was small ($\eta^2 = .012$).
- There was not a statistically significant difference in CE, OP, SI, ES, and FL scores of experimental and control groups.
- The effect size for the MPTs in the above t-test was calculated by means of applying eta squared formula and it was found to be .012.

Therefore the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL GROUP'S MPTs IN POST AND PRETESTS (N=42)

Groups	Variables	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	
						Statistic	Std. Error
CG Post-test	Post MPTs	237	295	268.26	14.16	.03	.36
	Post Cultural Empathy	47	61	55.33	3.29	-.50	.36
	Post Open-Mindedness	45	65	54.48	5.49	.04	.36
	Post Social Initiative	44	65	54.71	4.39	.10	.36
	Post Emotional Stability	44	65	52.12	4.19	.44	.36
	Post Flexibility	44	60	51.62	2.93	.14	.36
CG Pre-test	Pre MPTs	236	294	267.95	15.08	-.03	.36
	Pre Cultural Empathy	43	63	55.17	4.14	-.54	.36
	Pre Open-Mindedness	43	68	54.48	5.75	.16	.36
	Pre Social Initiative	44	66	54.76	5.04	.35	.36
	Pre Emotional Stability	43	66	52.07	4.92	.38	.36
	Pre Flexibility	44	60	51.48	3.28	.20	.36

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' MPTs AND ITS SUBCATEGORIES IN POST-TEST

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	SD
Post Multicultural Personality Traits	Experimental G.	35	271.14	11.66
	Control G.	42	268.26	14.16
Post Cultural Empathy	Experimental G.	35	56.49	2.79
	Control G.	42	55.33	3.29
Post Open-Mindedness	Experimental G.	35	55.23	3.17
	Control G.	42	54.48	5.49
Post Social Initiative	Experimental G.	35	54.91	3.78
	Control G.	42	54.71	4.39
Post Emotional Stability	Experimental G.	35	52.31	4.88
	Control G.	42	52.12	4.19
Post Flexibility	Experimental G.	35	52.20	3.28
	Control G.	42	51.62	2.93

TABLE 6:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST MPTs BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' MPTs

Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances /EV assumed		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.
Post MPTs	1.53	.21	.96	75	.33	2.88	2.99
Post CE	.822	.36	1.63	75	.10	1.15	.70
Post Op M	9.928	.00	.71	75	.47	.75	1.05
Post Social Initiative	.582	.44	.21	75	.83	.20	.94
Post Emotional Stability	2.920	.09	.18	75	.85	.19	1.03
Post Flexibility	1.007	.31	.82	75	.41	.58	.70

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The findings on the effect of teaching Reading Comprehension classes with a cultural consciousness raising orientation on developing MPTs indicated that there was *not* a statistically significant increase in the MPTs scores from T₁ to T₂ in the EGs. But it was found that CE of the participants gained significant difference from T₁ to T₂. Therefore, it can be concluded that the direct teaching of MPTs in EFL classes will not result in developing higher MPTs. The achievements of this study are suggestive of the fact that MPTs' development, having essentially a cultural nature, is a subject residing between the lines and do not yield itself to be subject *to* teaching for they are themselves subject *of* teaching. MPTs, like culture that gradually results in identity, are not nouns to gain the right of their possession or ownership, they are verbs to be witnessed and acted out.

Gaining personality traits and personalizing them in identity construction, even in the context of the first language, is a lifelong process; therefore, in the context of L2 learning that brings about the possibility of exposure to a second culture a rather long time is required to test the impact of personality traits acquired in L2 milieu.

a. Theoretical and Pedagogical Implications

The findings and the concluding discussions of this study indicated that cultural elements are not readily identifiable and cultural development is not easily achievable through direct teaching. Furthermore, the idea of teaching culture to quicken the materialization of investment in the new language through which L2 learning can be facilitated has its pros and cons in the pedagogical spheres. Supporter of this idea might favor its implementation at any cost and opponents might oppose it altogether.

Culture acquisition is a gradual long-term process that has the potential capability to have significant impacts on L2 learners' personal ontological perspectives so it does not yield itself easily to short-term experimental studies.

Experimental cultural studies require tracing the developments at least on a time span of a generation, long enough to engrave certain specific impressions on the mind of the participants. If the second terms freshmen participants of this study could have been traced after four years of their studying EFL and their outgoing-MPTs be compared with their incoming-MPTs, it could have provided much more generalizable results.

b. Suggestions for Further Research

- The idea that how bilinguality and multiculturalism, which can truly be the dire need of the modern world of the global village, can be integrated with national educational curriculums in a way that it will not have negative influences on national language and culture sounds fascinating. How can bilinguality and biculturalism be practiced in a manner to enrich students' understanding of their own national language and culture and resolve the concerns that states might have towards these phenomena?

- This study tried to find out the impact of teaching RC classes with a cultural consciousness raising orientation on developing MPTs in EFL students. This study can be furthered to find out the impact of teaching EFL classes with a cultural consciousness raising orientation on every one of the four language skills.

- The freshmen EFL students, at the beginning of their EFL studies, can be pretested to measure their in-coming MPTs. Then after four years of their studies their outgoing-MPTs can be measured. Finally, their MPTs change can be correlated with their academic achievement records and their EFL proficiency accordingly.

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Strategies to Promote Sri Lankan Students' Cross-cultural Adaptation in Chongqing Normal University—Based on Chamot's Learning Strategies

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Abstract—With the development of “One Belt And One Road” strategy, foreign students' cross-cultural adaptation in China becomes a hot topic. By questionnaire and individual interview, the research aims to explore the situation of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chinese cultural context and finds the 4 main factors which influence their cross-cultural adaptation: Individual factors, language barriers, individuals' interaction with local cultural context and different social behavior. Then, based on O' Malley and Chamot's learning strategies, the research gives relevant advice to improve Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptability.

Index Terms—Sri Lanka, students, learning strategies, factors, cross-cultural adaptation

I. INTRODUCTION

The research of language learning strategy firstly dated back to 1960s, which is almost descriptive study. The representative researches use interview, observation and questionnaire to discover the learning strategies used by successful learners, and conclude their common characteristics (Rubin, 1975; Naiman et al., 1978). Then, Ellis (1994) is focusing on the using condition of the good language learners' using strategies in order to popularize these strategies to poor language learners. In China, about the researches of the strategies of cross-cultural adaptation have included Vietnamese students (Ke Lin & Xia Lv, 2005), Japanese students (Yuanyuan Xie, 2010), foreign students from southeast Asia in China (Yaoke Xiao & Lufang Chen, 2012), foreign students from Central Asia (Hongyu Liu & Zhuochao Jia, 2014), etc.

The definition of learning strategy and the classification of learning strategy still aren't unified after 30 years research. Chamot (1987) had an deep-going cognition about learning strategy, which he thought that learning strategy was the techniques, approaches and other conscious behaviors employed by learners in order to optimize learning process, reinforce the memory of language knowledge and information knowledge.

The classification of learning strategy is varied as well. There are three typical categories currently. O'Malley and Chamot (1985) classify language learning strategy into meta-cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and sociopetal strategy. Meta-cognitive strategy includes advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and functional planning. Cognitive strategy includes resourcing, repetition, grouping or classifying, inferencing, utilizing images, auditory representation, utilizing keyword, associating, transforming, note taking, brief summary, re-associating and translation. Sociopetal strategy includes question or clarification, cooperation and so on.

Because of the development and requirement of “One Belt And One Road” strategy which put forward by Ministry of Education of the Peoples Republic of China in 2013, the Sri Lankan research center has set up by Chongqing Normal University in order to broaden the channels of international education. Up to now, there are more than 80 Sri Lankan students studying in Chongqing Normal University.

While, there are few researches investigating Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in China, let alone in Chongqing. Therefore, the survey takes Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University as an example, aiming to analyze influencing factors of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing and discover the relevant strategies according to O'Malley and Chamot's learning strategy theory, which will enrich the research about Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation, especially in Chongqing. The research will strengthen the development of

education for foreign students in Chongqing and help Sri Lankan students to learn Chinese better and easier and gain the acknowledgment and enjoyment of Chongqing culture.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Subjects & Purpose & Significance

This research largely involves 80 experimental students who are studying in Chongqing Normal University. The survey aims at collecting the data about study, daily life and social communication of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University, finding the factors which influence their cross-cultural adaptation deeply, and providing learning strategies to help them adapt better in Chongqing. Based on O'Malley and Chamot's learning strategies, the research try to promote Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University, at the same time, respond to the national strategy "One Belt and One Road" and upgrade Sri Lankan students' understanding and recognition of Chinese and Chongqing culture.

B. Methods & Questions & Contents

Questionnaire and individual interview were adopted in this research. There were 80 Sri Lankan students finished the questionnaire. And then the research group chose 30 students of different age, gender, living time in China and Chinese language level randomly to attend the individual interview. The questionnaire, which were divided into two aspects: language learning and cultural customs, is consisted of 20 questions based on the social-cultural theory of Searle & Ward and John W. Berry. The research groups were divided into three groups to do the survey. The research used on-site dispatch and on-site recycling in the process of issuing and filling in the questionnaire to ensure the reliability and validity of the survey. With 80 questionnaires distributed and 80 valid questionnaires collected, the effective rate was as high as 100%. The individual interview was semi-structured and its contents including the learning situation, daily life, social communication and adaptability to Chongqing people's social behavior, as shown in table 1.

TABLE 1
INTERVIEW CONTENTS

Aspects	Items
Learning situation	Chinese language learning, language exchange, learning content, teaching methods
Daily life	Diet, homesickness, accommodation, traditional art and festivals
Social communication	Cultural discrimination, interpersonal communication
Adaptability to Chinese social behavior	Living habits, civilized etiquette, traffic rules awareness

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Basic Information

The sample reflects the general situation of Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University. The basic information of these students is shown in table 2:

TABLE 2
BASIC INFORMATION

Contents		Number	Proportion(%)
Gender	Male	24	30
	Female	56	70
Career plan	Hometown	66	82.5
	Chongqing	12	15
	Undetermined	2	2.5
Chinese language level before coming to China	HSK3	13	16.25
	HSK1-2	19	23.75
	Chinese language training or optional courses	37	46.25
	Not at all	11	13.75

The number of girls is more than twice that of boys, which demonstrates the gender ratio is unbalanced. Among these students, the youngest is 17 years old, the oldest is 28 years old and the average age is 21.5. And all of these students are studying for bachelor's degree. There are 70% Sri Lankan students' Chinese language are primary level, and up to 13.75% students haven't learned Chinese before coming to China. On the whole, Sri Lankan students who are studying in Chongqing Normal University just have primary Chinese language level. Therefore, language will be a large difficult for them to overcome.

B. Factors Influence Sri Lankan Students' Cross-cultural Adaptation

Through the data, research members find 4 main factors that hinder Sri Lankan students from adapting Chinese culture better:

(1) Individual factors

First, Cross-cultural adaptation has a certain stage, the length of time is an important factor. It is found that Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University experience at the beginning of a short honeymoon period, that is, the curiosity of new things, they will find in life, learning and social communication and a lot of difficulties, which will produce negative emotions. Students who came to China for 7-12 months were worse than the cross-cultural adaptation of Chinese students for 1-6 months, while students who came to China for 18-24 months felt a discomfort of the culture. These findings are consistent with U-curve adaptation theory.

Then, the proficiency of Chinese language has a crucial influence on the cross-cultural adaptation of Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University studying in China. At the beginning of the coming year, they feel that Chinese pronunciation is difficult. Most Sri Lankan students have not studied Chinese before they come to China, so Chinese is starting from scratch. In the survey, a number of students talked about their feeling early in China, even if the HSK level reached the intermediate level but the spoken language ability is still very low. The level of learning language affects the level of their language, academic and social interaction, but also affect the students in the Chinese cultural connotation of understanding, such as proverbs, idioms, allusions, etc.

Last, for the majority of students, reading is undoubtedly an important part of Chinese learning, expanding the input, which is also a good way to improve the level of Chinese effectively as soon as possible. A large amount of reading can not only improve the proficiency of Chinese, but also allow students to understand China's rich and colorful culture, so as to better adapt to the environment and culture in China. The survey also shows that students of Sri Lanka who have a large reading capacity would be simpler than those who rarely read in the aspect of studying Chinese. Vocabulary and reading are particularly crucial for language learners. Therefore, students should read more Chinese books and be encouraged to be confident.

(2) Language barriers

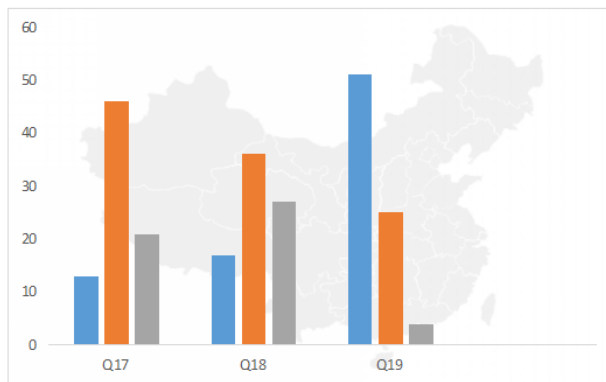
Language obstacle is one of the most primary and critical issues for foreign students to adapt social life and daily study when they arrive in a non-native country. So are Sri Lankan students. The native language of Sri Lankan students is Sinhalese, and their second language is English. Hence, Chinese as Sri Lankan students' third language is apparently difficult for Sri Lankan students to understand and learn. According to the survey, though 86.25% of 80 Sri Lankan students had touched Chinese before coming to China, 60% of them are still at a lower level, with which they still have big problem to understand the courses in class and the conversations and situations in daily life. Therefore, it is extremely critical for them to know and employ Chinese learning strategies to surmount Language obstacle to adapt the daily study and social life in China.

First, Sri Lankan students have insufficient Chinese vocabularies according to the survey. Chinese is one of the principal factors to the understanding and mastery of collocation, grammar, rhetoric, and the crucial situations or teachers' courses. Moreover, Chinese intonation and pronunciation are so complicated that they would easily lack of confidence in mastering Chinese. In addition, some Chinese vocabulary have many different meanings in different sentences and situations instead of a single meaning. Therefore, Chinese vocabularies are difficult for them to grasp the accurate meaning and difficult for teachers to teach as well.

Second, the survey showed that Up to 81.25% of Sri Lankan students have insufficient Chinese reading quantity. Chinese reading quantity is vital for Sri Lankan students to understand Chinese vocabularies' correct and proper usages. Reading Chinese materials is quite torturous for them not only because they cannot understand each Chinese word, but also because they cannot understand the meaning without connect each sentence and the situations in Chinese reading materials which are not the ones they acquainted. While reading in China is particularly crucial for them in dialy life and study, they will have problems when surf the internet, buy products they need and read current affairs. Hence, Chinese reading materials are extremely critical for them to gain a better understanding of Chinese and adapt to the study and life in China.

Third, as we all known, language is meant to be spoken. Sri Lankan students who are studying in Chongqing Normal University seldom use Chinese to talk with each other, they usually have conversations with Sinhalese which is their native language or English. Only 6.25% of them consider that they can communicate with others in Chinese fluently. Of course, Chinese as the third language for Sri Lankan students is a tremendous difficulty to speak and communicate with. Whereas if they don't have courage or chance to have conversations with others, no matter classmates, teachers or their Chinese friends, they will certainly be hard to adapt to the social life and study life in China.

(3) Individuals' interaction with local cultural context



Q17: How many Chinese traditional festivals do you know?
 Q18: How many Chinese traditional cultures do you like?
 Q19: For the places of interests in Chongqing, I've been to () of them.

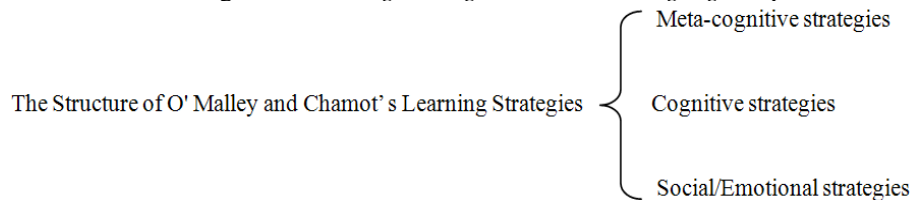
Sri Lankan students are lack of individual interactions with Chinese and Chongqing cultural context. Xiyang Yang and Jiahui Liu (2009) stated that, cultural shock is people's psychological reactions to another unfamiliar cultural environment. In layman's terms, a person from one place to another, the original familiar set of symbols, customs, behavior patterns, social relations, values, etc. replaced by another set of new unfamiliar symbols, customs, behavior patterns, social relations, values, etc. and thus have a psychological loss, confusion, anxiety, and even fear. The survey shows that some Sri Lankan students who have just arrived in Chongqing are not sure about the new environment. So, they always choose to escape the local cultural communication. And a large part of the students prefer to communicate in the small circle of their own people. This quietly shows that they encountered a cultural shock in the interaction with Chinese and Chongqing culture. Social engagement is closely related to cross-cultural adaptation. From the author's knowledge of the situation, Sri Lankan students' enthusiasm to participate in the local social and cultural life is not high and passive participation was more than active participation. 63.5% of Sri Lankan students went to a few local spots, only 5.75% of the students travelled 6 to 9 or even more spots. Regarding to Chinese traditional art and festivals, 57.5% of Sri Lankan students have knowledge about 4 to 6 traditional festivals, and 45% of the students were interested in traditional Chinese art, such as shadow play, drama, etc. Whether it is Chinese language learning or interaction with Chinese culture, active participation is clearly able to help them adapt to China better and get more social support.

(4) Different social behavior

For Sri Lankan students, different living habits, behavior, customs and rituals between Sri Lanka and China caused great distress to cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University. In Sri Lanka, nodding means “no”, shaking head means “yes”. The meaning of nodding and shaking head is opposite to that of China's. This typical different behavior leads to many misunderstandings and distress for Sri Lankan students studying and living in China. At the same time, in Sri Lankan customs, people use the right hand to eat and accept. While, in China, people accept things with both hands to show respect and polite. In terms of living habits, in Sri Lankan, three meals a day are separated by a long time, breakfast is generally 6:30, lunch after 13:00, dinner at 21:00 or so. These different social behavior led to the fact that Sri Lankan students who studying in China have great difficulty in learning and living in China, meeting with instructors or teachers and communicating with Chinese.

IV. RELEVANT STRATEGIES

O' Malley and Chamot (1985) divided the learning strategies into meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/emotional strategies in *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*.



A. Cognitive Strategy--Improve Reading and Learning Proficiency

As O'Malley and Chamot (1985) stated, there are several branches of cognitive strategies, they are reference, repetition, grouping, classification, reasoning, use of images, auditory reproduction, the use of keywords, association, transformation, inference, taking notes, summary, re-combination, and translation. For reading, it is mentioned before that a lot of reading is helpful for Chinese learning. However, how to make limited reading to achieve higher efficiency. It is necessary to use appropriate learning strategies, such as cognitive strategies.

Classification: Teachers should firstly teach students to classify articles, such as the category of narration,

argumentation, exposition and so on. Secondly, teachers summarize the characteristics of these types of articles and summarize the common characteristics of each type. When students are reading, they can classify the category of writing first, which is in order to know the characteristics of these kind of writing and to make reading easier understood. So Sri Lankan students need to identify, distinguish and reorganize their learning materials, and need to practice Chinese materials repeatedly.

Association: When the reading material itself is of great significance, teachers should teach Sri Lankan students to use the internal contact strategies-- association, such as metaphor, analogy, similarities and differences. In the teaching of reading, teachers should mainly try the following kinds of internal connection strategy. (1) grasp the "blank" to start associate. For example, the author writes articles that tend to omit some of the episodes due to a need. So teachers should let the students to fill in the "blank" in order to practice their imagination as well as understanding. (2) Reading method. Teachers can let the Sri Lankan students read an article on their own, students can choose how to read this article, read fast or read slowly, which words should be read stress, etc., and then ask students why they choose this way of speaking, which is good for their comprehension and the association of effective promotion of the old and new knowledge between the links.

Repetition and taking notes: Sri Lankan students also need to find ways to remember and use Chinese knowledge. For example, when learning new words and new sentences, they can repeat by oral and handwriting exercises, or making sentences into different contexts used to help new words and new sentences to understand. Alternatively, learners are encouraged to learn the completion of the task when they read a new article, try to write down the notes and focus on notes. There is an old saying in China, that is, "The palest ink is better than the best memory". Taking notes can not only facilitate the memory, but also conducive to understanding. And then try to summarize the highlights, and to try to mark the priorities of the paragraphs. When they do this, they are using cognitive strategies.

B. Meta-cognitive Strategy--Cultivate Vocabulary and Oral Language Skills

Meta-cognitive strategy has many atomic strategies which includes planning in advance, directing concentration, choosing attention, self-management, self-monitoring and self-assessment, etc. The language obstacles mentioned above need proper learning strategies to decrease blocks to help Sri Lankan students who study in Chongqing Normal University to adapt better.

First, based on insufficient Chinese vocabulary, Sri Lankan students should plan and organize in advance, each student can set up their own vocabularies learning goals daily, weekly or monthly under teachers' direction. Then, self-monitoring and self-management will become an vital factor for Sri Lankan students to carry out their plans of Chinese learning made by themselves. If Sri Lankan students lack an effective self-monitoring and self-management, it will greatly reduce their Chinese learning achievements. Afterwards, they should make a self-criticism about their vocabulary learning methods and cultivate the habit of regular review. When errors occurred on memorizing or using vocabulary, they should be adept in discovering the deviation and errors autonomously in concrete context when applying vocabularies. Besides, learn vocabularies in contexts is an effective approach for foreign students to learn to understand and apply target Chinese vocabularies as well as enhancing learning effects (Yan Fang, 2005). Therefore, it is the most fundamental problem to strengthen the guiding methods for Sri Lankan students to make effective use of learning Chinese vocabularies in context, which needs them to use the metacognitive strategies that are directed attention and selective attention to pay special attention to learning vocabulary in context and it will restrict the practical effect of vocabulary learning.

Second, because of the under-use of Chinese during the daily life Sri Lankan students who study in Chongqing Normal University, according to the factors above, they actually lack of confidence or courage which is the key to communicate with others with Chinese and chances which is the assister to help the speakers have opportunities to express themselves and they will have more experiences to open their mouth in public (Xinqing Wang & Mengying Li, 2013). Hence, if they intend to break through this language obstacle, they should firstly build their confidence and have courage to speak Chinese without fear of making mistakes both by their self-monitoring of controlling their nervousness and fear of making mistakes. As for chances, there are plenty of methods to help Sri Lankan students to create opportunities, as foreign students, they can exchange to teach native language with Chinese students, organize Chinese speech contest with the premise of self-management and hold sharing meeting that can share interesting things happened at their sides. At ordinary times, when they contact your classmates or your teachers, they should try their best to use Chinese to send or reply message. If they think they can, they even can use Chinese to call with their own self-evaluation. All these strategies mentioned above are beneficial for Sri Lankan students to defeat this language obstacle.

C. Social/Emotional Strategy--Increase Interaction with Chinese Culture and Learn Empathy

In the Chinese environment, in addition to learning Chinese in the classroom, they will communicate with Chinese people at any time and solve learning and living problems in Chinese. Therefore, the social/ emotional strategy is most commonly used for Sri Lankan students to study and live in China.

Firstly, Sri Lankan students should increase interaction with Chinese and Chongqing culture. In the amateur life, students can go with Chinese students to visit the local red tourist attractions, taste the local food and understand the city's history so that they can adapt to China and Chongqing culture better and better. At the same time, students in Sri

Lanka should take participate in social activities other than their own nationals and use Chinese as far as possible. And the school can offer all kind of cultural exchange activities. It can also help them get more Chinese learning and exercising opportunities, making more Chinese friends, getting more social support and improving their cross-cultural adaptation and communication skills.

Secondly, they can adjust their motivation and emotions to get out of cultural shock. In a foreign country, Sri Lankan students will inevitably appear homesickness, anxiety and other negative emotions. And the best way to alleviate is to slow down their anxiety as much as possible, seek help to the teacher and Chinese students. Schools' manage should be diversification as much as possible for foreign students and set up a dedicated student psychological counseling room to understand the student's psychological condition. In order to reduce anxiety, arising from the understanding of uncertainty when learning and using Chinese, students can use the "ambiguity tolerance" strategy, which helps them accept new things easier and have an optimistic attitude.

Moreover, they can be empathy to understand local culture. Because of the differences in cultural customs, pace of life, taboos, etc. Sri Lankan students should stand in the position of the target language country's language, , culture and the folk to communicate and think. Try to look at culture from the perspective of Chinese people, look at things from the Chinese point of view, understand the Chinese people's values, to adapt to the pace of life in China as far as possible. Take a tolerant, non-evaluation of the attitude to look at the behavior of Chinese people, which can effectively avoid the ethnocentrism and cognitive inherent patterns and prejudices. At the same time, in this process, Sri Lankan students can learn and understand Chinese and Chongqing local cultural practices, etiquette, taboo and so on more penetrate and clear. Which will improve their cross-cultural adaptability and cross-cultural communication skills.

V. CONCLUSION

The problem of cross-cultural adaptation is becoming more and more crucial with the increasing number of foreign students from Sri Lanka. And cross-cultural adaptation research has been given much more attention than previous times. The research mainly analyzes the factors of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University. The factors mainly include Individual factors, language barriers, individuals' interaction with local cultural context and different social behavior.

So this study aims to help improve Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adapting ability by analyzing the factors of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation and giving some useful strategies based on O'Malley and Chamot's learning strategies, such as carrying out some reading-sharing activities, holding a lot of parties of traditional Chinese culture, setting up a series of optional courses concerning Chinese traditional arts and food. However, there are a few disadvantages, for instance, the data would be more reliable if increased the scale of research. We hope to make up for these shortcomings in future research and make the research more detailed, objective and accurate. In short, Sri Lankan students encountered a cultural conflict, but harvest a lot of useful experience for their own growth.

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The Impact of Individualized Homework Assignment on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Motivation

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Abstract—This study was designed to investigate the effectiveness of applying individualized homework assignments on Iranian intermediate level EFL learners' motivation. To achieve this objective, 60 learners in the 16-21 age range who were studying at two private language institutes in Rasht, Iran, were selected from 122 participants based on their performance on QPT. The participants were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. A pretest piloted before with an accepted reliability index was administered to both groups. Next, the experimental group received the treatment for 20 sessions (doing homework materials specifically designed based on each learner's interests and preferred learning style). Meanwhile, the control group received a placebo which was the use of exercises in the workbook of the coursebook *American English File 3* (Second Edition) as homework assignments. The posttest of motivation was then administered to both groups. The results showed significantly higher scores on motivation test for experimental group at the end of the course. Based on the findings of this study, language teachers can utilize individualized homework assignments to motivate their learners for doing their homework more willingly.

Index Terms—individual differences, individualized homework, learning styles, learners' interests, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

In the first half of the 20th century, under the heavy shadows of structuralism and behaviorism, the dominant idea in applied linguistics was that making changes in methods of teaching or the teacher's skills will be enough for creating a better environment for learning and eventually make learners more successful. In other words, focus of attention mostly was on language itself, not on persons who are learning that language. Today it has been generally accepted that teaching does not just depend on teacher's knowledge, or on the language system itself. There are some factors and variables that depend on learners' genetic predispositions or their family situation, or in another word, 'environmental, social, and affective factors'. In a post-method world, a pedagogy system hardly can be effective if it does not acknowledge the learners' feelings and their unique characteristics. As Kumaravadivelu (2006) emphasized, nowadays methods, mostly learner-centered methods, "are principally concerned with learner needs, wants and situations" (p. 91). It is understandable why a teaching method which acknowledges each learner's unique personality and his/her personal interests could be more effective; If the learners feel that the learning process is more in accordance with their characteristics and their personality and comprises activities and tasks in favor of their special interests, they would probably become motivated. The importance of knowing about learners' situations and wants and different characteristics, therefore, is immense. Most teachers gradually understand these differences in their learners during the course and sometimes they don't know about most of them even by the end of the course. But nevertheless, good teachers know that each and every one of their students are unique.

Individual differences, or as Robinson (2003) classified them, affective factors and cognitive factors, are always with learners. This includes all the time they spend outside the classroom or school, the time which they spend with their friends and families, the time they do extracurricular activities, and the time they spend on their homework. Cooper (1989) in his influential study, achieved interesting results about homework. He suggested that Individual differences among students play a large role because homework occurs in situations that give students more discretion concerning when and how (and, indeed, whether) to complete an assignment. Therefore, for designing material for homework, as well as for in-class activities, material developers or teachers should pay attention to these affective and cognitive factors. This implies that designing learner-based tasks or activities specifically for homework could make learners motivated to do their homework and thus become more effective learners.

Aside from considering learners' personality and their interests in designing materials, there is yet another ID factor which could help material developers and teachers. Lots of researchers studied the role of learning styles and cognitive styles in second language learning and acquisition (e.g. Dunn, DeBello, Brennan, Krinsky, & Murrain, 1981; Ehrman,

1996; Keefe, 1979). The results of these empirical studies imply that a harmony between learners' learning style and the teaching method might help them to be more successful in language learning.

The results of another important study by Wong and Nunan (2011) showed that 40% of more effective learners reported spending between 1 and 5 hours a week on English out of class, as completing tasks, doing activities, or doing homework. Twenty-nine per cent of more effective learners spent their time on English in places other than the class more than 10 hours a week. In case of less effective learners, none of them spent more than 10 hours a week out of class, while about 70% of them spent less than 1 hour a week on English out of class. Of course, they brought up the important question about the direction of influence; Do effective learners spend more time on homework and practicing out of class because they like it and they are successful at it, or is it the other way around, they are good at it exactly because they spend more time out of class on practicing English? Whatever the answer to this question is, one thing is certain; the effective learners usually spend more time on homework and practicing.

Giving homework assignments to the learners will keep them engaged with their learning and reinforce it, and here the problem reveals itself. Learners usually lack genuine interest and enthusiasm for doing homework. Gardner and MacIntyre (1992) proposed that individual differences act in both formal and informal language learning situations. Formal situations refer primarily to classroom settings where direct language instruction is provided. Informal situations, on the other hand, refer to language acquisition contexts where learning is incidental to some other activity. In such contexts, the exposure to the language can be considered voluntary. Once an individual has decided to enter informal situations, both cognitive and affective variables will operate (cited in MacIntyre, 1999, p. 49). Homework, or take-home assignment, as the name suggest, will most likely be taken place in informal situations, so individual differences could affect in it even more.

We know that most of the learners hate doing homework, so can we somehow make learners more enthusiastic about it? Does acknowledging learners' individual characteristics and interests help teachers to modify their teaching methods and classroom activities, and eventually make them more interested in learning? Although family could play the role of authority, but not as effective as the real thing, because the family may lack the teaching skills and the knowledge required for necessary help. If the learners become personally interested and motivated, they will become more self-regulated and they would self-correct.

Tomlinson (2013) used the terms 'Humanization', 'Personalization', and 'Localization' repeatedly and emphasized on the important role of these processes in adapting and developing modern materials for language teaching. Admittedly developing materials for every one of the activities and tasks in the classroom is a very hard and complicated job, but doing it just for homework assignment could be a practical and manageable task. The term 'Individualized Homework' is being coined to refer to such homework assignment. This study sought to provide a framework for designing or adapting the material for homework assignment based on the individuals' a) Preferred learning style, and b) Personal interests and passions or 'wants'. In addition, it tries to find out if this kind of homework designing can eventually make the learners more motivated for learning language.

The following null hypothesis were formulated:

H₀: Using individualized homework does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' motivation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Individual Differences and Language Learning*

Dornyei (2005) gives a history of individual differences and explains that Sir Francis Galton (1822-1911) was the first to study individual differences (IDs) scientifically and consequently put individual difference factors on the research agenda. 'Binet-Simon Intelligence Skill' which was introduced in 1905, Ann Anastasi's (1958) book named *Differential Psychology* which was somehow a summary of individual differences studies in psychology, Carrol and Sapon's (1959) practical aptitude test (MLAT) which aimed to predict the learners' degree of success in language learning, and Gardner and Lambert's (1959) study on motivation, were some of the important studies in this field. These studies and the extensive amount of literature about them which were published in the next decades made other researchers realize that the learners themselves are important parties in the learning process, so the attention to the learners and their individual characteristics gradually increased. Lots of literature about different factors of individual differences and the relationship between them and second language learning and their implications for language learning stake-holders were published recently (Birch & Hayward, 1994; De Raad, 2000; Dornyei, 2005; Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Ellis, 2008; Eysenck, 1994; Robinson, 2002; Skehan, 1989; Ushioda, 2013; Wong & Nunan, 2011).

Now, what does 'Individual Difference' exactly mean? Dornyei (2005) defines individual differences as "enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree" (p. 4). Individual differences comprises factors like motivation, intelligence, aptitude, learning style, anxiety, creativity, etc. Skehan (1989), Robinson (2002, 2003), Dornyei (2005), and Ellis (2008), each proposed their own list of the most important ID factors. This study, mostly deals with two important individual differences; learners' 'learning style' and 'motivation'.

The concept of 'learning style', as Ellis (2008) mentions, originally came from general psychology. The term 'learning style' for the first time was used by Thelen (1954), although the term 'cognitive style' was proposed by

Allport (1937) which basically means how your personality affects your way of living and adapting with the environment around. Keefe (1979) proposes that finding out about a person's learning style can help us to prepare the proper instruction for that person on a much more scientific and reliable basis.

A learning-style model "classifies students according to where they fit on a number of scales pertaining to the ways they receive and process information" (Felder, 1988, p. 674). To explain the concept of learning style, a lot of models have been proposed during the last decades. These models mostly are based on psychological theories and try to give an independent framework for studying this concept. Some of these models were primarily designed for specific disciplines like engineering or mathematics, while most of them were designed to study the learners' learning process in general. Some of these models which were used for learning process, and language learning process in specific, are 'The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)', 'Kolb's learning style model', 'Felder-Silverman learning style model', 'Dunn and Dunn learning style model', 'Fleming's The VARK model', and 'Reid's perceptual learning style model'. Reid (1987) for instance, distinguished four perceptual learning styles. They were visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learning. Felder (1988) also divides the ways people receive information into three categories or three modalities. In this study, Felder's division of learning styles is used as the basis. According to him, three modalities are: 'visual', using pictures and symbols, sights, models and diagrams, videos and films; 'auditory', using words, voices and sounds; and 'kinesthetic', using five basic senses, mostly touching, tasting and smelling. According to him, "an extensive body of research has established that most people learn most effectively with one of the three modalities and tend to miss or ignore information presented in either of the other two" (p. 676). Felder (1988) then describes each one of these modalities. Visual learners "remember best what they see... If something is simply said to them they will probably forget it". Auditory learners "remember much of what they hear and more of what they hear and then say. They get a lot out of discussion, prefer verbal explanation to visual demonstration, and learn effectively by explaining things to others" (p. 676). As for kinesthetic learners, we can say that they prefer to experience what they want to learn through senses other than visual and auditory senses. They like to be engaged physically with the topic, like touching, smelling, tasting, working with their hands and moving their bodies. This way they can learn and remember the lesson better.

The other ID factor used in this study is motivation. The importance of motivation in second language learning and acquisition is clear for most of the language learning stakeholders around the world nowadays. Lack of motivation can directly affect learning and decrease the learner's language achievement. This compels us to search for contemporary ways to make learners more motivated and hopefully to improve the quality of their learning process. To this end, investigating the parameters which affect learners' motivation level is required. Lots of factors can have effects on motivation. Researchers have been studying and theorizing about motivation and factors that affect it for so long (Au, 1988; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 2005; Gardner, 1980, 1985, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997).

Williams and Burden (1997) try to see motivation through a constructivist perspective. They explain that:

A constructivist view of motivation centers around the premise that each individual is motivated differently. ...therefore what motivates one person to learn a foreign language and keeps that person going until he or she has achieved a level of proficiency with which he or she is satisfied will differ from individual to individual. (p. 120)

Dornyei and Skehan (2003) believe that motivation studies should pursue the basic question "why humans think and behave as they do" (p. 614). Important point to remember is that motivation is not constant but a changeable construct. Dornyei (2001) emphasizes on the dynamic and temporal nature of motivation. It is different from time to time, or as Dornyei and Skehan (2003) assert, "... is associated with a dynamically changing and evolving mental process" (p. 617). Aptitude and intelligence are said to be fixed cognitive attributes of the learner, motivation and anxiety, on the other hand, can often be changed and shaped through teacher intervention. In fact, it is not unusual for students to become more motivated with better attitude toward learning language as they progress.

B. Learners' Interests and Homework

What the learner's learning needs are is not necessarily the same as what they think their needs are. While the learning needs and target needs for a given intermediate classroom may be the same, each learner's view of his/her needs may vary from the others. Richterich (1984) commented that "... a need does not exist independent of a person. It is people who build their images of their needs on the basis of data relating to themselves and their environment" (p. 29).

It is really important for the material designers and teachers to understand the learners' wants and what they feel about the learning process. To this end, designing materials could be based on the learners' interests and passions.

Homework assignment, undeniably, is an important part of learning process. North and Pillary (2002) state that homework makes up a significant part of the workload of many language teachers, yet seems to be surrounded by silence and not much attention was given to it in literature. Cooper (1989) defines homework as "tasks assigned to students by school teachers that are meant to be carried out during non-school hours" (p. 7). Wong and Nunan (2011), as it was mentioned before, reached data which indicates that more effective learners have a much greater propensity for self-direction, independent learning and autonomy than less effective students. Now we know that spending some quality time for practicing language out of class has a strong long-term positive effect on learner's achievement. Therefore, we can indeed claim that homework, which is a kind of out-of-class activity, could reinforce and enrich the learners' knowledge. Of course the real challenge is finding a way to design more interesting and appropriate homework assignments so it could encourage the learners to spend even more time on it or at least motivate them to do the usual amount of assignments.

Having this on mind, this study tries to acknowledge the personal differences of the learners and find a way to differentiate between them and then by making them actively involved in their learning process, improve their motivation. To reach this goal, it makes sense that learners' interests and their preferred learning style would be influential factors. Dunn, DeBello, Brennan, Krinsky, and Murrain (1981) pointed out that "we can no longer afford to assume that all students will learn through whichever strategy the teacher prefers to use" (p. 1).

III. METHODOLOGY

The design of the present study is true experimental. Like all true experimental studies, this study comprises the necessary stages like pretest, pilot study, and posttest, and has all its necessary characteristics including randomization, experimental and control group, treatment, and placebo.

As the first step, based on the scores obtained in QPT (Quick Placement Test), 75 Iranian intermediate EFL learners were chosen. Then, 15 students were randomly assigned to the pilot study and the remained 60 participants were again randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group; each group with 30 participants. A pretest (motivation test) was administered to the participants of both groups. For the next step, a structured interview with three questions to identify participants' favorite topic or their interests, and a learning style survey were executed on the participants in the experimental group. Next, the individualized versions of the homework were designed. These alternative homework assignments, or 'individualized homework assignments', were developed according to the learners' interests and their learning styles and were equivalents for the usual homework assignments which were assigned to the control group. The participants of the experimental group received a 20-session treatment, which was assigning individualized homework to them. At the end of the treatment, a posttest, which was the same motivation test but with shuffled items, was administered to both groups to measure and analyze the impacts of the treatments on the experimental group.

Internal consistency reliability or Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (named after L. J. Cronbach) was recalculated for this study. According to this calculation, the Cronbach's Alpha for pretest and posttest came to .74 and .72 respectively, which are considered acceptable according to reliability standards recommended by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994), and Dornyei (2007). As for learning style survey, the Cronbach Alpha came to .71.

A. Participants

The participants were 41 male and 19 female EFL learners between the age of 16 and 21 at two private institutes, in Rasht, Iran. 122 learners were submitted and then were homogenized through QPT. The participants with the QPT scores between 30 and 44 were considered intermediate and selected as the main sample. Then, by using a randomizer computer application, they were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Both groups' participants were interviewed individually and were asked about their interests and passions (whether they like art, sports, or other topics), and the learning style survey was also administered to them. After the pretest (Dornyei and Taguci's (2009) Motivation test), the participants in experimental classes received the individualized equivalents of usual homework assignments of *American English File 3* book during a 20-session course. These individualized homework assignments were prepared based on participants' interests and their preferred learning style before starting the course.

B. Procedures for Data Collection

To test the homogeneity of the participants, QPT (Version 1) was administered. When it was certain that the groups were homogeneous, both experimental and control groups followed the same syllabus, which was the first three lessons in the coursebook *American English File 3 (Second Edition)*. As for homework, all of the 30 participants in control group received the same and usual homework which was mostly based on the workbook of the coursebook, but each one of the participants in experimental group received their own individualized version of homework assignments based on their unique interests and learning style, which was developed and prepared before the course started. The writing, reading, listening, grammar and vocabulary exercises and activities in homework assignments were different for each learner. For example, for students with 'visual' learning style, and based on their genuine interest which could be art or sport or others (e.g. *videogames*), extracts of conversation from movies, or interviews with famous singers or actors, or even extracts from reporters' conversation between two halves of a football match, were chosen according to the related lesson. For 'auditory' students, audio extracts from movie conversations and TV live shows (e.g. *'Inside Actors Studio' TV show*) and also radio reports of sport events were used. To 'kinesthetic' learners, the activities like pantomime, and projects like making albums of different artists with related pictures and information were assigned. It is needless to say that all exercises or activities were designed as equivalents of exercises and activities which were given to the control group. The course continued for 20 sessions, three hours a week.

At the end of the course, a posttest which was piloted before with a reliability index higher than .7, was administered to the participants to measure their progress during the course. The posttest and the pretest was actually the same test with rearranged items to control the potential testing effect. Next, with the help of an independent samples t-test, the means of the two groups in the posttest were compared with the alpha level set at 0.05. The lowest and highest scores for the pretest and the posttest were zero and 456 respectively. Finally, with running a paired samples t-tests, the means of both groups were compared.

IV. MATERIALS

The required data for this research was mainly collected quantitatively. Except the three-question structured interview for recognizing the interests of the learners, the rest of the data gathered by standard questionnaires. The following instruments were used in this study.

A. *Pretest*

The First step was using QPT and creating two randomly assigned groups with 30 intermediate level learners in each of them. Next, Dornyei and Taguchi's (2009) motivation test was used as the pretest in this study and was administered before the course started. The purpose of this pretest was to recognize the participants' motivation level and the initial differences among the groups with respect to their motivation. The motivation test consisted four parts and included 76 items overall with scales from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' for statement-type items or part 1 and part 3, and 'not at all' to 'very much' for question-type items or part 2, with scores 1 to 6 respectively. Dornyei and Taguchi's (2009) motivation test in English version is presented in Appendix A.

B. *Learning Style Survey*

To identify the learning style preferences of the learners, Cohen, Oxford, and Chi's (2003) 'The Learning Style Survey' created by the University of Minnesota was administered. The test consisted 11 parts, but for the purpose of this study, the first part which included 30 items and could identify the learners' physical sense preferences was chosen. The scales were from 'never' with the score zero, to 'always' with the score 4. After translation of the 30-question questionnaire to Persian, three English translation specialists confirmed its face and content validity. This way, the Persian version of the questionnaire was prepared and given to the learners. The original version of the learning style survey is presented in Appendix B.

C. *Structured Interview*

In this study a structured interview with three questions was administered. These questions aimed to recognize the learners' field of interest (art, sports, or others), (see Appendix C).

D. *Posttest*

After the 20-session treatment and at the end of the course, which was about three months, Dornyei and Taguchi's (2009) motivation test was again administered as the posttest but the whole 76 items were rearranged. This rearrangement was necessary in order to control the possible testing effect.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The estimated values for Cronbach's Alpha for the pretest of motivation came to ($\alpha = .72$), for posttest of motivation came to ($\alpha = .74$), and for learning style test came to ($\alpha = .71$) which were considered acceptable according to the reliability standards recommended by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994). To select subjects who were nearly at equal level of language proficiency, the Standardized Oxford Quick Placement Test (Version 1) was given to (N = 122) EFL learners. Before introducing the treatment, a pretest including 76 items was administered to all the participants in the control and experimental groups. The purpose for administering the pretest at the beginning of the study was to examine the learners' motivation level and also to set a baseline measurement to compare it with the results of the posttest in the end of the course. For the pretest of motivation, the means for the experimental group and the control group were (X-experimental group = 301.80), and (X-control group = 309.13), respectively. The mean score of the control group was (7.33) points higher than that of the experimental group.

After establishing the normality assumption and administering the pretest, and before starting the course, an independent samples t-test was run to compare two groups and confirm that there are no statistically significant difference between them. The results are available in Table I.

TABLE I
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRETEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
	Equal variances assumed	1.028	.315	.704	58	.484	7.333	10.422	-13.528
Equal variances not assumed			.704	56.32	.485	7.333	10.422	-13.542	28.208

The independent samples t-test displayed the results of the Levene's test for the equality of variances. This attempted whether the dispersion of scores for the two groups was the same for the pretest scores. The outcome established the correct t-value for the interpretation of scores for the test. Since the Sig. value for Levene's test was higher than (.05), the first row in the table, which referred to Equal variances assumed, was utilized for explaining the results of the pretest. In Table 1, the significance level for the Levene's test was (.315) which was higher than (.05). This meant that the assumption of equal variances had not been violated for the pretest scores. Moreover, since the value in the Sig. (2-tailed) column was higher than the cut-off of (.05), there were no significant differences in the mean scores of the motivation test for the control and experimental groups. In other words, the control and experimental groups were almost at the same level of motivation at the beginning of the study. The main objective of the present study was to determine the impact of assigning individualized homework on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' motivation level. The hypothesis was that the aforementioned homework materials does not have any statistically significant impact on EFL learners' motivation. After 20 sessions of treatment, the posttest of motivation was administered to both control and experimental groups.

An independent samples t-test was run to compare the two groups after the treatment. The results are shown in Table II.

The results revealed that the significance value of the Levene's test was ($P=.683$). Since this rating was higher than .05, it will be assumed that the control and experimental groups had equal variances; therefore the first row of the table was reported. Since the significance value Sig. (2-tailed) was lower than .05, it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups concerning their level of motivation in the posttest. These findings supported the results of descriptive analysis in which there was a difference between the two groups regarding the mean scores, i.e. the experimental group outperformed the control group. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected suggesting that there were in fact statistically significant differences between the two groups at the end of the study. In other words, assigning homework materials based on the learners' learning style and interests instead of using the same not-individualized materials for all the learners has statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' motivation level.

In order to examine the participants' progress within groups, two paired samples t-tests were conducted, which highlighted the differences in the posttest of motivation. The results of paired samples statistics are reported in Table III.

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR POSTTEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.169	.683	-2.103	58	.031	-20.333	9.686	-39.534	-.981
Equal variances not assumed			-2.103	56	.031	-20.333	9.686	-39.540	-.973

TABLE III.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	CONTROLpretest-	309.13	30	43.706	7.980
	CONTROLposttest	304.87	30	39.663	7.241
Pair 2	EXPERIMENTALpretest-	301.80	30	36.719	6.704
	EXPERIMENTALposttest	326.07	30	34.785	6.351

The mean score of the control group for the motivation test was not improved, while the mean score of the experimental group increased from ($M=301.80$) in pretest to ($M=326.07$) in posttest. In order to find out if these differences between pretest and posttest scores of motivation were statistically significant, paired samples t-test was run to the results of both groups. The results are presented in Table IV.

TABLE IV.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRETEST AND POSTTEST

		Paired Differences				T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	CONTROLpre-CONTROLpost	4.267	14.802	2.702	-1.260	9.794	1.579	29	.125
Pair 2	EXPERIMENTALpre-EXPERIMENTALpost	-24.267	19.881	3.630	-31.690	-16.843	-6.686	29	.000

As depicted in Tables III and IV, no improvement is seen for control group, but experimental group had improvement in the posttest of motivation. Based on the results of paired samples t-test, the improvement in the

experimental group was statistically significant ($P_{\text{experimental group}} < 0.05$), but this was not the case for control group ($P_{\text{control group}} > 0.05$). In other words, the experimental group made a noticeably higher progression as compared to the control group in posttest of motivation

VI. DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study are in line with the framework of cognitive psychology which emphasizes on making learners more actively involved in their learning process. Constructivists like Piaget (1966, 1972), and Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) basically believe that making the learners involved in their own learning process can have great positive effects on the quality of their learning. In this study, it was shown that using individualized homework assignments designed based of each learner's characteristics have positive effects on the learners' motivation, which confirmed constructivists' point of view.

There have been always controversies about learning style studies. Some researchers have a cautious attitude toward such studies, and some even reject them completely. Most of these criticisms come from the very researchers who have done a lot of studies in this field and proposed some of the most important models and theories about learning styles. In order to have a fair look to this field, it is necessary to review some of these criticisms here.

Kolb (1981) brilliantly warns us against putting learners into stereotypical categories and treat them accordingly and at the same time being insensitive to the context in which they are living or studying. Schmeck (1981) also believes that the context is very influential and many of learners can change their strategies according to the contextual demands. This emphasize on the role of context was again reminded by Dornyei and Skehan (2003) who describe learning style as "a predisposition may be deep seated", but at the same time "imply some capacity for flexibility... to meet the demands of particular circumstances" (p. 602). Felder (1996) brings out another interesting point and explains that it is not desirable for learners to just master one of the learning styles and forget about the others. He emphasizes that in any professional capacity, you need to have ability in all learning style modes. For example, to achieve success in learning second language, it is better if the learner develop both 'verbal' and 'visual' skills. So the teachers should help learners to improve all their learning skills, instead of focusing on just one of them.

Another important criticism is that because of the origin of learning style studies which was in general psychology, global psychological instruments primarily were used to measure them, and these instruments "may not be well suited for identifying the specific nature of learning styles that influence language learning" (Ellis, 2008, p. 659). Ellis (2008) also mentions that these learning styles might be situation-specific.

To summarize, if we are going to help the learning process by making the learning experience enjoyable for the learners, acknowledging the learners' individuality, especially their learning style, could be the answer. Ehrman et al. (2003) explains that it is very much possible to make language learners more relaxed and comfortable if we could just let them work and learn in their own preferred learning style, instead of forcing them to learn in a specific, usually not in accord with their learning style, way just because it is being used in the classroom.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study attempted to examine the effectiveness of using individualized homework in improving motivation level of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The findings of the study showed that using individualized homework has positive effects on the learners' motivation. Based on the results of this study, the experimental group who received the use of individualized homework made more improvement in the posttest of motivation. In other words, the use of homework assignments based on learners' interests and preferred learning style makes Iranian intermediate EFL learners more motivated for learning. Hence, the null hypothesis proposed at the beginning of the study was rejected.

The findings obtained in this study lead to some pedagogical implications which are beneficial for different stakeholders in the field of language teaching and learning. Curriculum and materials developers, course and syllabus designers, learners, teachers, and teacher trainers are among those who can use the findings of this study to improve the condition and status of language teaching in the context of Iran. Teachers know the important role of homework in the learning process, but there are always reasons to be concerned about learners' enthusiasm for doing their homework. Furthermore, as Cooper (1989) emphasizes, due to absence of professional supervisor, there are always dangers like satiation (physical and emotional fatigue), parental interference, and cheating which concern teachers. Considering the findings of the current study, language teachers can design proper materials for homework assignment based on each learner's unique characteristic and interests. Utilizing individualized homework in EFL classes can provide tremendous opportunities for learners to improve their language achievement compared to traditional way of giving similar homework assignments to all the learners regardless of what they really like and what their learning styles are. In classes in which homework assignments are individualized beforehand and prepared based on each individual's wants and preferred learning style, learners can enjoy from learning a new language.

All in all, this study recommends applying individualized homework in EFL contexts where learners are not particularly enthusiastic about doing homework or learning outside of the classroom, or the contexts in which the majority of the learners have instrumental motivation or their motivation level is low.

Every useful study opens new directions for further studies. Further research can be expanded to a larger sample to increase the credibility of the results. In this study, only intermediate-level EFL learners were considered. Other proficiency levels can be considered in a similar research. Also, learners in this study were between 16 and 21 years old. Further studies can examine various age groups. In this study, the effects of using homework assignments based on learners' preferred learning style on Iranian EFL learners' motivation were analyzed. In further studies, researchers can check the effects of other individual differences like 'learning strategies', 'personality', and 'intelligence' on the learners' motivation.

APPENDIX A. DORNYEI AND TAGUCI'S (2009) MOTIVATION TEST (ENGLISH VERSION)

English Learner Questionnaire

This survey is conducted by the School of English Studies of the University of Nottingham, UK, to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of English. This questionnaire consists of four sections. Please read each instruction and write your answers. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you do not even have to write your name on it. The results of this survey will be used only for research purpose so please give your answers sincerely. Thank you very much for your help!

Part I

In this part, we would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by simply circling a number from 1 to 6. Please do not leave out any of items.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree	
1	2	3	4	5	6	
(Ex.) If you strongly agree with the following statement, write this:						
I like skiing very much.					6	
1. Learning English is important to me because I would like to travel internationally.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. My parents encourage me to study English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I feel excited when hearing English spoken.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to master English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I think that there is a danger that Japanese people may forget the importance of Japanese culture, as a result of internationalisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I have to learn English because without passing the English course I cannot graduate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I would feel uneasy speaking English with a native speaker.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I like the atmosphere of my English classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. My parents encourage me to take every opportunity to use my English (e.g., speaking and reading).	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I am interested in the way English is used in conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I think I would be happy if other cultures were more similar to Japanese.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I am working hard at learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree					
1	2	3	4	5	6					
18.	Studying English is important to me because English proficiency is necessary for promotion in the future.				1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	I believe that I will be capable of reading and understanding most texts in English if I keep studying it.				1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.				1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Because of the influence of the English language, I think the Japanese language is corrupt.				1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.				1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	I have to study English because I don't want to get bad marks in it at university.				1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	I find learning English really interesting.				1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.				1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Studying English is important to me because without English I won't be able to travel a lot.				1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	I find the difference between Japanese vocabulary and English vocabulary interesting.				1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.				1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	My parents encourage me to study English in my free time.				1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	I respect the values and customs of other cultures.				1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Studying English is important to me because I would like to spend a longer period living abroad (e.g., studying and working).				1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	I am sure I will be able to write in English comfortably if I continue studying.				1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.				1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Because of the influence of the English-speaking countries, I think the moral of Japanese people are becoming worse.				1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	If I met an English native speaker, I would feel nervous.				1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	I have to study English, otherwise, I think I cannot be successful in my future career.				1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	I always look forward to English classes.				1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.				1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	I study English because with English I can enjoy travelling abroad.				1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	My parents encourage me to attend extra English classes after class (e.g., at English conversation schools).				1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	I think that I am doing my best to learn English.				1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	I like the rhythm of English.				1	2	3	4	5	6

Part II

These are new questions but please answer them the same way as you did before.

Not at all	Not so much	So-so	A little	Quite a lot	Very much						
1	2	3	4	5	6						
(Ex.) If you like "curry" very much, write this:											
Do you like curry?				1	2	3	4	5	6		
43. Do you like the music of English-speaking countries (e.g., pop music)?						1	2	3	4	5	6
44. Do you like to travel to English-speaking countries?						1	2	3	4	5	6
45. How important do you think learning English is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?						1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Do you like English films?						1	2	3	4	5	6
47. Do you like the people who live in English-speaking countries?						1	2	3	4	5	6
48. How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?						1	2	3	4	5	6
49. Do you like English magazines, newspapers, or books?						1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Do you like meeting people from English-speaking countries?						1	2	3	4	5	6
51. How much do you like English?						1	2	3	4	5	6
52. Do you like TV programmes made in English-speaking countries?						1	2	3	4	5	6
53. Would you like to know more about people from English-speaking countries?						1	2	3	4	5	6

Part III

The following items are similar to the ones in Part I.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree						
1	2	3	4	5	6						
54. It would be a better world if everybody lived like the Japanese.						1	2	3	4	5	6
55. Studying English can be important for me because I think I'll need it for further studies on my major.						1	2	3	4	5	6
56. I think the cultural and artistic values of English are going at the expense of Japanese values.						1	2	3	4	5	6
57. I am sure I have a good ability to learn English.						1	2	3	4	5	6
58. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.						1	2	3	4	5	6
59. I would get tense if a foreigner asked me for directions in English.						1	2	3	4	5	6
60. Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests.						1	2	3	4	5	6

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6
61.	I really enjoy learning English.				6
62.	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.				6
63.	I think that, as internationalisation advances, there is a danger of losing the Japanese identity.				6
64.	Studying English is important to me because with English I can work globally.				6
65.	I am proud to be Japanese.				6
66.	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.				6
67.	Studying English is important to me because, if I don't have knowledge of English, I'll be considered a weak student.				6

Part IV

Please provide the following information by ticking (✓) in the box or writing your response in the space.

Gender: Male Female

Nationality: Japanese Non-Japanese

Age: 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 other: _____

Year of study: 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th other: _____

Major: _____

English teacher *Have you ever had or do you have a native English-speaking teacher?*
 Yes No

Overseas experiences: *Have you spent a longer period (at least a total of three months) in English-speaking countries (e.g., travelling, studying)?*
 Yes No

English ability: *Please rate your current overall proficiency in English by ticking one.*

- Upper Intermediate level and over**— Able to converse about general matters of daily life and topics of one's specialty and grasp the gist of lectures and broadcasts. Able to read high-level materials such as newspapers and write about personal ideas.
- Intermediate level** — Able to converse about general matters of daily life. Able to read general materials related to daily life and write simple passages.
- Lower Intermediate level** — Able to converse about familiar daily topics. Able to read materials about familiar everyday topics and write simple letters.
- Post-Beginner level** — Able to hold a simple conversation such as greeting and introducing someone. Able to read simple materials and write a simple passage in elementary English.
- Beginner level** — Able to give simple greetings using set words and phrases. Able to read simple sentences, grasp the gist of short passages, and to write a simple sentence in basic English.

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX B. LEARNING STYLE SURVEY (ENGLISH VERSION)

Learning Style Survey: Assessing Your Own Learning Styles

Andrew D. Cohen, Rebecca L. Oxford, and Julie C. Chi

The Learning Style Survey¹ is designed to assess your general approach to learning. It does not predict your behavior in every instance, but it is a clear indication of your overall style preferences. For each item, circle the response that represents your approach. Complete all items. There are 11 major activities representing 12 different aspects of your learning style. When you read the statements, try to think about what you usually do when learning. It typically takes about 30 minutes to complete the survey. Do not spend too much time on any item—indicate your immediate feeling and move on to the next item.

For each item, circle your response:

- 0 = Never**
- 1 = Rarely**
- 2 = Sometimes**
- 3 = Often**
- 4 = Always**

Part 1: HOW I USE MY PHYSICAL SENSES

1. I remember something better if I write it down. 0 1 2 3 4

2. I take detailed notes during lectures. 0 1 2 3 4
3. When I listen, I visualize pictures, numbers, or words in my head. 0 1 2 3 4
4. I prefer to learn with TV or video rather than other media. 0 1 2 3 4
5. I use color-coding to help me as I learn or work. 0 1 2 3 4
6. I need written directions for tasks. 0 1 2 3 4
7. I have to look at people to understand what they say. 0 1 2 3 4
8. I understand lectures better when professors write on the board. 0 1 2 3 4
9. Charts, diagrams, and maps help me understand what someone says. 0 1 2 3 4
10. I remember peoples' faces but not their names. 0 1 2 3 4

A – Total:

11. I remember things better if I discuss them with someone. 0 1 2 3 4
12. I prefer to learn by listening to a lecture rather than reading. 0 1 2 3 4
13. I need oral directions for a task. 0 1 2 3 4
14. Background sound helps me think. 0 1 2 3 4
15. I like to listen to music when I study or work. 0 1 2 3 4
16. I can understand what people say even when I cannot see them. 0 1 2 3 4
17. I remember peoples' names but not their faces. 0 1 2 3 4
18. I easily remember jokes that I hear. 0 1 2 3 4
19. I can identify people by their voices (e.g., on the phone). 0 1 2 3 4
20. When I turn on the TV, I listen to the sound more than I watch the screen. 0 1 2 3 4

B – Total:

21. I prefer to start doing things rather than checking the directions first. 0 1 2 3 4
22. I need frequent breaks when I work or study. 0 1 2 3 4
23. I need to eat something when I read or study. 0 1 2 3 4
24. If I have a choice between sitting and standing, I'd rather stand. 0 1 2 3 4
25. I get nervous when I sit still too long. 0 1 2 3 4
26. I think better when I move around (e.g., pacing or tapping my feet). 0 1 2 3 4
27. I play with or bite on my pens during lectures. 0 1 2 3 4
28. Manipulating objects helps me to remember what someone says. 0 1 2 3 4
29. I move my hands when I speak. 0 1 2 3 4
30. I draw lots of pictures (doodles) in my notebook during lectures. 0 1 2 3 4

C – Total:

Part 1- Total:

The format of the Learning Style Survey and a number of the dimensions and items are drawn from Oxford; other key dimensions and some of the wording of items comes from Ehrman and Leaver:

Oxford, R. L. (1995). Style Analysis Survey. In J. Reid (Ed.), *Learning styles in the ESL/EFL classroom* (pp. 208-215). Boston: Heinle & Heinle/Thomson International.

Ehrman, M. E. & Leaver, B. L. (2003). Cognitive styles in the service of language learning. *System 31*: 393-415.

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APPENDIX C. STRUCTURED INTERVIEW (FOR IDENTIFYING LEARNERS' FIELD OF INTEREST)

In the name of God

This interview aims to find out about your personal interests and passions in life. It consists of three structured questions. Please answer each question sincerely with details and elicit about them. This is not a test, so we do not have any 'right' or 'wrong' answers. The results of this interview will be used only for research purposes and can help your language learning. This interview will be recorded for further analysis.

Thank you.

Question 1: Which one of the following exercises is your favorite and you are better at it? Explain why do you think that is?

- A) Writing exercises
- B) Reading Comprehension exercises

C) Listening exercises

Question 2: Which one of the following is your favorite field?

A) Art B) Sport C) Others

-If you chose 'Art', do you prefer 'Music' or 'Movies'? Explain.

-If you chose 'Sport', do you prefer 'Football' or other sports? Name it.

-If you chose 'Others', please explain.

Question 3: If you practice in your field of interest, for example play a musical instrument or play in a sport team, please talk about it.

Thank you for your time.

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Problems of Speech Perception Experienced by the EFL Learners

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Abstract—Most native speakers of English modify complicated sequences in connected speech in order to simplify the articulation process. This habit has created problems in the part of EFL learners as they are not trained enough to extract word sequences from the running speech. As a consequence, misperception occurs, which often leads to the failure in the listening comprehension. This article is intended to prove that such a problem is not solely triggered by the native speaker factor. Other factors might play pivotal roles, too and need to be carefully examined. In light of this interest, a secondary research aimed at revealing factors causing speech perception problems was carried out. The research result shows that problems of speech perceptions experienced by the EFL learners were mostly caused by their phonetic knowledge and phonological competence, besides lexical and syntax knowledge.

Index Terms—connected speech, speech perception, misperception, listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Problems of speech perception experienced by the EFL learners listening to native speakers of English are real and need to be investigated thoroughly. Though the common reason has been justified in many research studies, that the prime cause of the failure in the listening process is the failure to extract word sequences spoken by native speakers of English, it is important to examine further if there is any other aspect of language which might play significant role too in such a situation.

To approach problems of speech perception, it deems necessary to consider common views shared by Segui, Freuenfelder, and Halle (2001) and Collins (2008) that there has often been a ‘clash’ between what is conveyed by native speakers of English and what is perceived by the EFL learners while listening. This discrepancy can be the point of departure to find out the problem of speech perception. Therefore, to discuss problems of speech perception experienced by EFL learners, one needs to talk about what is going on in the listening process and what factors cause misperception in the part of the EFL learners in such a process.

Listening to an utterance is essentially a matter of data processing and interpretation of acoustic signals carried out by the listener once he receives the information in a communication event. The process begins with the reception of acoustic signals followed by the identification of speech sounds in the form of both of segmental and supra-segmental (Kent and Read, 2002, p.12). During speech sound identification, the synchronization of background knowledge, knowledge of the context of the situation, and knowledge of the language is automatically activated in the listener’s cognitive domain and proceeds in such a way, synthesizing speech sounds and then interpreting them into specific meanings according to the message contained in the acoustic signal received (Bejar, 2000, p.4).

However, the process is not that simple. When the acoustic signals are received in the sensory register, they are not automatically processed in the brain. It depends on whether the listener can transform the acoustic signals into visual representation or not; and whether the visual representation has the pictorial quality or not. If the transformation of acoustic signals into visual representation succeeds, and thus produce a good pictorial quality, the identification of speech sound will be easily executed. Conversely, if the transformation experiences difficulty, the process of visualizing sound will suffer. In this situation, the incoming acoustic waves will remain stationary in the station buffer (Rozenzweig and Leiman, 1982; cited in Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1994, p.287). Common people term this as “buffering” or “loading”.

In the EFL situation, “buffering” is most likely affected by the difficulty of extracting word sequence from the running speech uttered by the native speaker of English. It explains Bond’s (2006) statement, reprimanding that “in everyday conversation, speakers employ various reductions and simplifications of their utterances, so that what they say departs in significant ways from the clarity norms found in normal speech of laboratory recordings” (p. 290). Bonds (2006) elaborated further, that to restore the halted process, a listener must use up all the skills he has so as to facilitate his sense of perception to decode the meaning intended by speaker. Therefore, the interlocutor must be skillful in assimilating the acoustic signals and the discovery of the intended meaning” if he wants to be able to perceive the utterance (Sebastian-Gales, 2006). Implied in such a statement is the fact that various factors do play role in the process of listening experienced by EFL learners. So, what factors are involved in the problem of speech perception and what is the most pivotal one directly related to it?

Research studies have proven that problems of speech perceptions experienced by EFL learners can be caused by

many factors, such as the exposure to the language being studied (Brown, 1990), short term memory (Jacquemot and Scott, 2006; Ohata, 2006), language knowledge, situation knowledge, background knowledge (Bejar, 2000), multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983), meta-cognitive ability (Pierce, 2003), cognitive ability (Teasdale and Barnard, 1993), and others. However, the immediate factor which is directly associated with problems of perception is the ability to perceive speech sound (Goh, 2000; Bond, 2006; Sebastian-Gales, 2006; Ingram, 2007; Vandegrift, 2007).

Consistent with what has been shared by Goh (2000); Bond (2006); Sebastian-Gales (2006), Ingram (2007), and Vandegrift (2007). this article contends that in the heart of perception problems, phonetic and phonological competence plays a significant role in the identification of speech sound by the EFL learners.

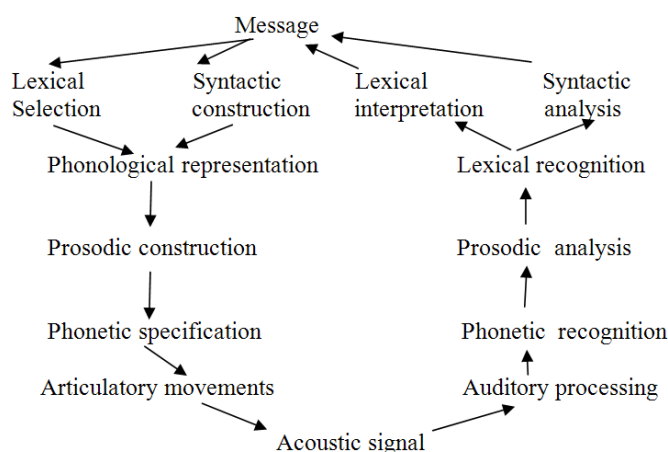
II. THE ROLE OF PHONETIC AND PHONOLOGICAL COMPETENCE IN THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPEECH SOUND

To have a better picture of the role of phonetic and phonological competence in the identification of speech sound, following is presented a detailed explanation about what is actually going on in the brain when listening is in progress.

Listening is a mental process that takes place in the human brain in response to the coming stimulus in the form of an acoustic signal (Kent and Read, 2002) that carries messages brought into the temporal lobe to the cortex. Process of listening is not as simple as "plugging ear" then all the information conveyed by the interlocutors fills short-term memory slot of the listener and then suddenly understands the messages received. According to Hewlett and Beck (2006, p.17) to be able to decode meaning conveyed by the interlocutors, one must exert all his ability to capture the acoustic signals with the aid of the language knowledge, knowledge of the context, and the ability to anticipate the direction of the subject. Thus, according to Hewlett and Beck (2006, p.17) the listening process takes place inferentially by a combination of bottom-up and top-down, in that bottom-up deals with a person's knowledge of the language; while top-down is related to the context of the knowledge and direction of anticipation made by the listener.

According to Kent and Read (2002, p.12) in the process of listening there are three domains interconnected with one another, namely the realm of physiology (the physiologic arena), acoustic (the acoustic arena), and perception (the perceptual arena). The realm of physiology is related to the articulation of sound, which is how the sound is made by the interlocutors. The realm of acoustic covers aspects of physics of sound, such as how many frequencies vowels have; how many milliseconds the sound of a spoken phrase is strung (connected); and how the sounds of certain syllables-syllable are connected (viewed with the help of the spectrogram); and the realm of perception is related to the perception of speech sounds that determines whether the process of understanding the spoken text takes place correctly or creates misperceptions which resulted in the failure of decoding the meaning of the message (Kent and Read, 2002).

To that end, in order to decode the meaning, one must know in detail the relationship between the components above, or more specifically, about what happened when communication is taking place, starting from how the message is delivered by the speakers and how the message is digested and understood by those who listen. Knowledge of such a detailed picture is needed by the EFL learners because if there is difficulty in understanding the process of information, the difficulty can be traced back to the part where the difficulty arises and what causes the trouble. The following is the theory of speech sound transfer process from the point of view of linguistics that is described by Kent and Read (2002, p.13).



In the chart, Kent and Read (2002) described that the communication process begins with the selection of words in accordance with the messages to convey by the speaker; at the same time he must determine the appropriate sentence structure that supports the meaning of the message contained in the words he has chosen. The words selected require utterances which match the messages, associated with the sentence structure by considering aspects of prosody, and then sound specification is formed and ready to be articulated to become a message in the form of acoustic waves. Once the acoustic signal reaches the ears of those who listen, the process of this listening comprehension commences.

The process is initiated with phonetic recognition and at the same time the analysis of prosodic aspects to have the

clear picture of what words uttered by the speaker (lexical recognition). The intended meaning of the words that have been detected is sought by considering the sentence structure captured. If the words used in the speaker's sentence structure are the same as the ones captured by the listeners, it can be said that the information is accurately detected as conveyed by the speaker. In this case, there occurs accurate perception to the speech sounds conveyed the speaker. By contrast, if there is a difference of meaning or there is a difference in the message delivered by the speaker, it can be said there occurs misperceptions of speech sounds (Kent and Read, 2002).

Misperception of speech sound may occur in syllables, words, or the relationship between words in a sentence. Such misperceptions commonly occur in an oral communication using a foreign language as the language of communication. This is due to the influence of the pattern of speech sound articulation, prosodic features, foreign language syntactic constructions of the target language that are not the same as the source language (Kent and Read, 2002).

What has been outlined by Kent and Read (2002) and Hewlett and Beck (2006) indicates that phonetics and phonological competence do play a crucial role in the speech perception during the listening process. It is imperative, then, that these competences be acquired by all the EFL listeners in order that they can listen better to the English speech sound.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Not much has been known about the influence of phonetic and phonological competence to the process of speech perception. To see it more closely, the following is presented three research studies underlying the importance of phonetic and phonological competence to the identification of speech sound. The first part deals with the problems of speech perception experienced by native speakers of English (NS) understanding other native speakers of English (NS). The second part deals with the problems of speech perception experienced by non-native speakers of English (NNS) understanding native speakers of English (NS).

Native speakers understanding Native speakers

Speech perception problems experienced by the same L1 users, namely native speakers of English understanding other native speakers English was reported by Bond (2006). In his longitudinal study, entitled "Slips of the Ear: Errors in the perception of casual conversation", Bond (2006) asserted that

In everyday conversation, speakers employ various deductions and simplifications of their utterances, so that what they say departs in significant ways from the clarity norms found in formal speech or laboratory recordings. Both listeners and speakers are sometimes engaged in other tasks while carrying on a conversation, distracted, or preoccupied with their own ideas, so listeners vary in the amount of attention they pay to speech. Not surprisingly, sometimes listeners fail to understand what a speaker has said. Instead, a listener perceives, clearly and distinctly, something that does not correspond to the speaker's intended utterance. (Bond, p. 290).

Problems of speech perception experienced by native speakers of English were reported to occur when listeners failed to perceive unstressed vowels. These vowels are normally modified in order for the speakers to simplify the articulation process. As a result, the quality of vowels in unstressed syllables may be misperceived or may even be perceptually lost or added (Bond, 2006, p.293). Look at the example below:

- (1) Grammar Workshop → Grandma workshop
- (2) Attacks in the ear → a tax on the ear
- (3) Dec writer → decorator
- (4) I teach speech science → I teach a speech signs

The failure to perceive (1) is mainly because the listener did not pay attention to the focus of the conversation so that, instead of perceiving /'græmə'wɜ:kʃɒp/ <grammar workshop>, he caught /'grænma:'wɜ:kʃɒp/ <grandma workshop>. Indeed, the phonetic distance is not far, but the lexical meaning changes as it formed another 'word sequence' which is not intended by the speaker in the running speech. Problem of perception as occurred in (2) is caused by vowel quality misperception which normally occurs in function words. The misperception of function word affects the perception of other surrounding words which then leads to global error in the sentence heard. Meanwhile, problem of perception in (3) indicates that the listener failed to detect a word boundary and altered the phonological shape of the word by reporting a spurious medial syllable; and the failure to perceive (4) shows the inability of the listener to identify the speech sound in that a syllabic nasal loses its syllabicity.

Problems of speech perception do not only occur in the failure of perceiving certain vowels having weak stresses but also certain vowels having strong stresses. The following is an example of misperception in vowel having strong stress:

- (5) It's like a math problem
- (6) It's like a mouth problem.

Error in which a stressed vowel is replaced by a very different vowel such as /ɪts 'laɪk ə ,mæθ 'prɒbləm/ to /ɪts 'laɪk ə mauθ 'prɒbləm/ is highly unusual, in that "the misperceived vowel is not in a phonetic environment which affects vowel quality and, second, in that the phonetic distance between the target and the misperception is considerable" (Bond, 2006, p. 292). Stressed vowel should have been clear to the ear of the listener and should not create problems to the listener as what Pisoni (1981; cited in Bond 2006) stated that stressed syllable provide "an island of reliability", that is, reliable phonetic information which listeners use to interpret the stream of speech.

In a nutshell, the perception of speech sounds does not always run smoothly. Listeners often mistakenly perceive the

information conveyed by the interlocutor. Only after they hear further information to other information, they realized they have experienced a misperception on the previous information. In the concluding remark Bond (2006) summarized that there are six factors causing the failure of the perception of speech sounds, among other things: (1) the phonetic knowledge, (2) knowledge of phonology, (3) knowledge of vocabulary, (4) knowledge of structure, and (5) knowledge of semantic and pragmatic. These five factors either individually or jointly can cause failure of speech perception.

However, the samples studied by Bond (2006) were native English speakers. The difficulties experienced by native and non-native speakers will not be the same. According to Bond (2006) the misperception experienced by native English speakers is typical; namely when the subjects hear the information, they are also at the same time being preoccupied with other things that fulfill their thoughts.

Failure of perception experienced by non-native speakers of English may also be caused by the same thing as experienced by native English speakers, but open the possibility of other causes such as limited English ability, the difference of the characteristics between the source language and the target language in terms of speech patterns and the inability to identify the speech sound.

Non-native speakers understanding native speakers' utterances.

Research conducted by Goh (2002) about difficulty of understanding speech sound experienced by non-English speakers in China shows the important things that can be learned by anyone who is interested in the problems of difficulty of listening to the speech sound of English as a foreign language. Goh (2002) suggests the importance of inferential abilities as the catalyst for bottom-up and top-down process of listening to English as a foreign language. Goh (2000, 2002) reported the difficulties faced by Chinese students in understanding spoken English texts.

In a research report entitled "A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems", Goh (2002, p. 45) explains the difficulties faced by Chinese students at three stages of cognitive processes, which include the stages of perception, parsing, and utilization. Perception is the stage where the listeners perceive information by paying attention to the sounds they listen to (bottom-up process); parsing is the stage of input processing in the form of sound to look for meaning in short term memory. While utilization is the stage of synchronization of background information with the meaning of the sounds heard from the memory he had in long term memory networks (top-down).

Goh's research results (2000, pp 185-206) showed that difficulties of listening to the speech sound of English as a foreign language experienced by the students occurred in the three stages mentioned. In the early stage, the problem encountered is mainly phonological in nature, such as (1) the difficulty to shape or recognize the word which was already known before; (2) difficulty to recognize the following parts when recognition process is in progress; (3) difficulty to capture segments heard; (4) difficulty to catch the beginning of the text; and (5) difficulty to concentrate on running speech.

Difficulties in the mid stage or parsing includes (1) difficulty remembering what they listen to; (2) the difficulty of constructing meaning from the utterances that are heard; and (3) difficulty catching up parts because of the problems in the previous stage. Lastly, difficulties in synchronizing stage background knowledge which include (1) the difficulty of processing messages despite the familiarity of the words heard; and (2) difficulty grasping the basic idea of the message received. Thus the influential factors in the process of listening by Goh (2000, p. 201) is no longer purely limited to language skills, but leads to the ability to process the existing language in the cognitive domain.

What is this research about?

What has been outlined Bond (2006) and by Goh (2000, 2002) indicates that speech perception problem is experienced by both native speakers and non-native speakers of English, with somewhat different causes. Native speakers' failure to understand other native speakers is mainly because of their mind being, at the same time, preoccupied with other things that fulfill their thoughts; while the speech perception problem experienced by the non-native speakers of English is to a certain degree caused by the same problem as experienced by native speakers of English; but mostly, it is related to the mastery level of the language learned and the influence of their mother tongue. Interestingly, however, both Bond (2006) and Goh (2000, 2002) mention phonetics and phonology as the key issue of the speech perception problems.

In response to the Bond (2006) and Goh's (2002) findings, it is crucial to investigate further what aspect of phonetics and phonology causing problems of speech perception in the listening process. This research was intended to do so, namely examining problems of listening to English speech sound seen from micro level perspective, by researching the ability of the subjects to detect the element of intonation phrase, among other things proclitics, enclitics, interval clitics and tonics. This research at the same time was also meant to answer the speculation that problems of listening experienced by native non-native speakers of English is merely a matter of vocabulary problems. The speculation is based on the common believes that (1) vocabulary is the heart of language (Lewis, 1993, p. 89); (2) vocabulary is a prerequisite of success in the process of listening to the speech of foreign language (Segalowitz and Segalowitz, 1993); (3) vocabulary is fundamental in the process of foreign language information (Hayashi, 199, p. 151); (4) vocabulary is necessary for a verbal communication because without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed (Wilkins, 1972, pp. 111-112).

IV. METHODS

The present research used 3 research instruments including: (1) TOEFL, (2) Listening test in two versions, and (3)

Speech Perception Test. The first instrument, namely TOEFL was used to discriminate language proficiency levels of the subjects ($n=30$) so that all the selected subjects could represent the expected range of score from the lowest (31) up to the highest (68). The second instrument, listening test with two versions was meant to find out the different result between listening to a narration with its transcript on it and to a narration without any transcript on the text. This test was intended to find out whether the problem of listening was barely due to the lack of vocabulary or was closely related to the insufficient knowledge of phonology among the subjects. The third instrument, namely speech perception, was adopted to investigate the role of speech perception in the process of listening comprehension. For this purpose, the subjects were assigned to listen to eight sentences spoken by a native speaker of English to test subjects' ability to detect the 'tonicity' and 'tonality' represented by six elements of clitics and tonics and two mixed elements of clitics and tonics, forming connected speech. While listening, they were required to jot down every string of word they heard. All the sentences they wrote were analyzed to find out some possible slip of the ears on the 'onset', 'middle tonic', and 'tonic' (tonic elements), and 'proclitic', 'interval clitic', and 'enclitic' (clitic elements). The misperceptions occurred reflect problems faced by the subjects in comprehending the intonation phrase they listened to. To make it easier to locate the misperceived part, a model of speech perception proposed by Cauldwell (2002) accompanied with spectrogram was employed. After misperception was identified a comparison of phonetic/phonological explanation of both languages was made to explain the cause of misperception, and a summary was drawn to justify the role of speech perception ability in listening comprehension.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following is the result of the listening test from the second instrument, namely listening test in two versions: version A and version B with a total number of 30 subjects participating in the research. The subjects being studied represent all students having the range of score of 31-68 on the TOEFL Listening section, as grouped by the TOEFL test, the first instrument of the research.

Paired Samples Statistics

TABLE 2
PAIRED T TEST OF THE LISTENING TESTS

	Score of <i>Listening</i>	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Version B	55,7333	30	7,66961	1,40027
	Version A	49,9667	30	9,12550	1,66608

The data in the above table shows that the average score of listening without transcripts of 30 respondents was lower, ie 49.9667 than listening scores accompanied with transcripts, which reached 55.7333, or there is a difference of 5.7666. The significant difference between the two groups is illustrated in the following table

TABLE 3
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PAIRED T TEST

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Version A - Version B	9,766	29	,000

The data shown in table 3 above indicates that the difference of the scores achieved in the test accompanied by transcripts and the one without transcripts was significant. It is shown by the Sig. (2 - tailed) = 0.000 or <0.05 .

With reference to the evidence of test data that showed a negative trend in the test version A in comparison with the results of the listening test version B, it can be concluded that the difficulty faced by the subject of research is not solely caused by the limited vocabulary of the subject but is related to phonological abilities of the subjects as well.

Another result, which was based on the data obtained from the third instrument ($n = 30$) showed the occurrence of misperceptions on the onset by 40%, middle tonic 36.66%, 76.66% tonic, proclitic 80%, interval clitic 73.33% and enclitic 76.66%. These results prove that 'tonicity' or the stress pattern in the English language is the cause of the difficulties in the process of understanding English speech sound. Other evidence in this study is that the 'tonality', which is a combination between the elements that make up the connected speech in a speech stream is also a difficulty in the process of listening to the English speech sound. Data show that in tonality made up of elements of onset-interval-middle tonic, the misperception reached 96.66% while tonality made up of middle tonic-interval-tonic reached 90%. This figure reflects the difficulties faced by the subject in listening to connected speech.

The results also show that the tonicity and tonality spoken with the speed of 160 words per minute have triggered the speech compression, speech sound changes as a result of assimilation and elision of certain consonants or vowels. The changes of the sound quality are difficult to predict because the production of words, rhythm and stress, and all things related to the phonological aspects are of speaker controlled. The listeners can only receive and understand the speech that he listens to without having the control of it.

Problems of perceiving English speech sound, thus, is not solely caused by the limited vocabulary of a person but are also related to the ability to perceive speech sound phonologically. The results of the listening test version A and B shows that the subject of research consistently shows higher results on test A rather than test B. The implication of these findings is that one who does not have the ability to perceive speech phonologically will have difficulty understanding

English speech sound.

The ability to perceive speech sound becomes an important key in the process of understanding English speech sound because this ability is closely related to the decoding process of acoustic signal in the event of an oral communication. The process is complicated because it involves elements of sound, changes in the quality of certain vowels and consonants as a result of the assimilation of speech caused by weak and strong stress, speech rhythm and tempo of speech compression. When the decoding process takes place smoothly then speech perception was running correctly. Conversely when the process of decoding speech sound doesn't run as it should, misperceptions occurred.

From the statistical data showing the speech perception problems, there is evidence that the problem of inaccurate perception of speech sounds is not only found in the elements having weak stress (clitic) such as proclitic, interval, enclitic but also the elements having strong stress (tonic) such as onset, middle-tonic and tonic. The data show a correlation between the number of misperception on the elements of clitic and the adjacent tonic

That is, when there is a misperception on a clitic, the chance of the occurrence of misperceptions on the nearest tonic is high. This event occurs because the dynamics of clitic and tonic is volatile following the tonicity and tonality on the sentence heard.

The significance of these findings is that the process of assimilation of sounds on the intonation phrases that are connected to one another potentially trigger a misperception. Nevertheless, the event of this sound misperceptions remains difficult to predict as how the speech sound was articulated is entirely under the authority of the speaker. Theoretically, content words get stronger stress than the function word; syllable stress tends to fall in a regular tempo; and the vowels are articulated as they are depicted in the theory of phonetics and phonology. But the results of this study prove that the speakers are not always bound by such rules or conventions. It is not uncommon that the speaker put a stress on the words which are, in theory, not commonly given; speaker put stress on the syllables in irregular rhythms; and speakers pronounce vowel sounds and consonant without following the pattern as described by the experts of phonetics and phonology. These events reinforce the view of Brazil (1996) that the speech sound in the event of mutual communication tends to be speaker-controlled, purpose-driven, interactive, cooperative, context-referenced, and context-changing. As a result, the difficulty of perceiving speech sounds accurately occur in all elements, namely elements having weak stress and elements having strong stress.

The quality of the speech sound which tends to be unclear as affected by the existence of prominent and non-prominent stressed elements as seen in this study is caused by the rapid change of sound on each element. Changes in the quality of the sound and shifting stress on the elements of the intonation phrase has caused 'deafness' or speech illusion, namely the events up unreal irregularities in the speech sound in an inter language communication as a result of changes in the quality of the sound and shifting location of syllable stress.

This event is a manifestation of the inability of the research subjects to identify certain sounds that came out in an unbroken series or connected speech affected by speech compression and the articulation process of the speech sounds such as assimilation, elision, liaison, soothing, deletion, and lagging. This proves that the ability to perceive speech sound is an important part of the linguistic mechanism in the process of understanding the spoken text in English, and proves that differences in language characteristic that include differences in the characteristics of Indonesian as phonetic language and English as non-phonetic language, stress patterns, syllable and word stress, and the differences in tonicity and tonality effect the ability of the Indonesians to perceive English speech sounds.

VI. CONCLUSION

The evidence reviewed here leads to the conclusions the perception of speech sounds does not always run smoothly. Listeners often mistakenly perceive the information conveyed by the interlocutor. In the case of English native speaker listening to other English native speakers (NS – NS), the misperception occur particularly when the listeners' mind are engaged in other tasks while carrying on a conversation, distracted, or preoccupied with their own ideas, so listeners vary in the amount of attention they pay to speech. Not surprisingly, sometimes listeners fail to understand what a speaker has said. Instead, a listener perceives, clearly and distinctly, something that does not correspond to the speaker's intended utterance.

In the case of non-native speakers of English listening to native speakers of English (NNS – NS) Problems of speech perception faced by the EFL learners to a certain extent are caused by the native speaker factors. Yet, it is naïve to blame native speakers as the factors causing misperception in the part of the EFL learners. Factors other than native speakers have been sought and evidence has brought to the conclusion that phonetic and phonological competence does play a significant role in the problems of speech perception experienced by EFL learners.

In response to the speculation about the vocabulary as the sole factor of the emergence of speech perception problems this research refuted the speculation. Knowledge of Vocabulary proved to be important, but when knowledge of phonetics and phonology does not in support to it, the knowledge of vocabulary alone is simply inadequate to facilitate comprehension. These findings confirm the difficulty of speech perception as the problem related to the phonetic and phonological knowledge besides vocabulary knowledge of the listener.

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Peer- Coaching, EFL Teacher's Professional Identity Development and Students' Academic Achievements

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was two-fold: examining the effect of peer coaching on EFL teachers' professional identity and learners' academic achievement. To this end, this very mixed-methods research was designed to see the extent to which the least investigated variable in the Iranian EFL setting. Five high school EFL teachers were triangularly coached and achievements of their classes including those of 307 EFL students were investigated. The teachers received questionnaire both before and after a 12-session coaching process while being both observed and attended a think-aloud protocol reporting. Moreover, the standardized Classroom Observation Sheet was employed whilst the coaching process. The students' entry and exit academic behaviours in terms of achievements were measured prior to and after the treatment. Analyses of each set of data collected from each group indicated that peer coaching entailed statistically significant developments in many categories teachers' professional identity as well as in the students' academic achievements. Pedagogically, the findings suggest feasibility and effectiveness of conducting peer-coaching and internalizing it in our EFL educational system.

Index Terms—teachers' professional development, peer-coaching, academic achievements

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers' professional development has recently received prime attention. In contrast to the traditional methods of teaching being based on some one-shot training, nowadays most methods focus on the enhancement of teachers' skills, competencies and practices. Among such teaching mechanisms, peer coaching is claimed to enable teachers to exchange support, feedback, and assistance (Ackland, 1991). According to Reiman and Johnson (2003), peer coaching can maximize creativity among teachers and develop a disposition of collaboration and continuous improvement; a path which can ultimately to teacher's professional development.

In the past, professional development was left up on to outside providers who used to intervene through short-term events like one-day workshops (Rainville, 2007). But nowadays, the researches argue that professional development requires some factors to be more effective: it must be based on specific context, sustained over time, and connected to teachers' daily practice, and be collaborative (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Neufeld & Roper, 2003a, 2003b).

As an emerging concept, teacher's "professional identity has become a new area of research in education (Clarke, Hyde, & Jonathan, 2013). According to Epstein (1978), professional identity is essentially an integrative concept that "represents the process by which the person seeks to integrate his various statuses and roles, as well as his diverse experiences into a coherent image of self" (p. 101). Beijaard et al. (2004) hold it provides the basis for "decision making and meaning making on the part of teachers" (p.109). It fosters teacher's creativity and autonomy (Singh & Richards, 2006), facilitates achievements of transformative goals (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001), and plays a more significant role in teaching quality (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996, Beijaard et al., 2004). Lasky (2005) refers to professional identity as how teachers define themselves as teachers: e.g., answering such major questions as "who am I?", "what kind of teacher do I want to be?", and "how do I see my role as a teacher?" (Korthagen, 2004, p. 81). Vakili (2010) schematizes his own understanding of how the teacher self is constructed and also how teachers shape their selves as language teachers.

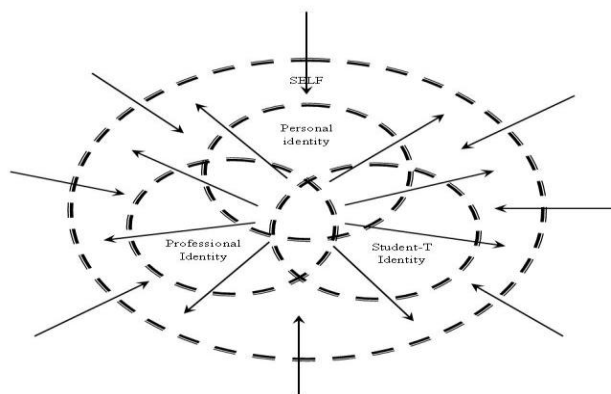


Fig. 1. Schematic Representation of the Teacher Self.(Vakili 2010)

A. Coaching

One of supposedly supported channels of developing a sense of cooperation among teachers is coaching, which is not only a “role with a job description that one person carries out in a school”, but also it is a “strategic, systemic approach to improving student learning” (Saphier & West, 2009, p. 47). Sherri (2010) considers coaching as assistance for which addresses “assessment of language, and complex challenges to learning, teaching and also through a process of inquiry that is co-constructed and dialogic, opens teachers through self-critical, exploratory, and reflective dimensions of interaction” (p. 1).

Coaching is named differently including “peer mentoring, learning-centered supervision, peer supervision, and cognitive coaching” (Pellicer and Anderson, cited in Britton, 2006, p .8) and introduced under various categories in developing organizational behavior such as “cognitive coaching, instructional coaching and peer coaching” (Beglau et al., 2011, p. 9). Similarly, four predominant types of coaching models are predominant in education including “peer coaching, cognitive coaching, literacy coaching, and instructional coaching” (Cornett & Knight, 2009, p. 196).

B. Peer Coaching

According to Neubert and McAllister (1993), peer coaching is the collaboration between two colleagues, which involves teachers in collaborative procedure that helps them to apply new instructional practices, curricula (Shower, 1982), and skills learned in workshop (Galbraith & Anstrom, 1995). Moreover, Huston and Weaver (2008) discussed peer coaching as a “collegial process whereby two faculty members voluntarily work together to improve or expand their approaches to teaching” (p.19). This kind of coaching focuses on observation, feedback and planning in collaborative way to improve new instructional technique and curriculum (Ackland, 1991; Odell, 1990; Perkins, 1998). Peer coaching is based on a number of principles identified by Robertson (2005) as follows:

- Trust: facilitates adult learning (Fielding et al., 2005; Ladyshewsky, 2006).
- Collaboration: is always relevant to growth and improvement of classroom teacher (Robertson, 2008; Ladyshewsky, 2006; Briton & Anderson, 2010).
- Conferencing: gives parents opportunity to receive feedback before and after instruction (Costa & Garmson, 2002).
- Analysis and reflection: helps the learner to process the data, alter practices, and build efficacy, self-assessment, develop a professional culture, identify issues, deepen understanding, and challenge ideas (Robertson, 2008).

C. Problem and Purpose

Contrary to the numerous studies conducted on both variables separately, there seems ample room for further studies on investigating the effects of peer-coaching not only on professional identity development (PID) of the target teachers but also on the students’ English language academic achievements. In order to fill such a gap in the literature, the study pursues two specific objectives: to investigate the extent to which the Iranian EFL teachers’ professional identity could be a function of coaching, and to examine possible improvements in EFL learners’ academic achievements in light of further professional development. To this end, the following research questions followed up in the form of respective hypotheses were raised:

1. Does peer coaching have any significant effects on professional identity development of Iranian high school EFL teachers?
2. Does peer coaching have any significant effects on Iranian high school EFL students’ academic achievements?

II. METHODS

A. Participants

Participants were five EFL female teachers and 307 Iranian students from five different high schools. The teachers' teaching experience ranged from ten to fifteen years. The students were divided into two groups: one experimental and one control. The experimental group consisted of 156 but the control group included 151 students.

B. Instrumentation

To conduct this study, the following instruments were employed:

1. **Nelson Test:** as a general proficiency test used to select a homogeneous sample of EFL learners.
2. **Researcher-made Diagnostic Test:** to measure the learners' entry behavior respectively prior to the treatment.
3. **A Researcher-made Achievement Test:** was designed to measure the learners' exit behavior after the treatment.
4. **Teacher Professional Identity Development Questionnaire:** was used to measure the teachers' professional development level both before and after the coaching, as already used for similar purpose (Douwe, Beijgaard, NicoVerloop, Jan D. Vermont, 1999).
5. **Classroom Observation Sheet:** Developed by Eugene Schaffer, Daniel Muijs, Catherine Kitson, David Reynolds, was used to record the report of coaching and teachers' professional development.

C. Procedure

The participating teachers were randomly selected and in coordination with the authorities of each school, they were encouraged to cooperate with the researchers. Each teacher used to manage one class with three hours and 30 minutes of the teaching during a week held in for two sessions per week.

Following a formal briefing session, they completed the PID Questionnaire prior to the coaching process. They also participated in a pre-observation conference thereby they shared their class and syllabus details and lesson plan. They were coached and observed for 15 sessions by one of the researchers. During the observation, the coach would watch for specific teaching and learning behaviors and record them in details. She would monitor the teachers' classroom conduct in implementing the syllabus. Furthermore, the teachers and coach had post-observation conference to talk about the classroom conduct, each of which was followed by constructive feedback. Finally, the PID Questionnaire was administered again to measure any developments in order to compare pre- and post- behavior.

As to the students, the Nelson Test and Diagnostic Test were administered to select a homogeneous group of learners and to measure the learners' entry behavior, respectively. Ultimately, the Achievement Test was administered to measure the learners' academic achievements.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Investigation of the Research Question One

The Mann-Whitney U test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' professional identity prior to the coaching process. As displayed in Table 1, the mean ranks for the experimental ($M = 6.80$) group showed a higher mean rank than that of the control ($M = 4.20$) group.

TABLE 1.
MEAN RANKS; PRETEST OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY BY GROUP

	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Pretest	Experimental	5	6.80	34.00
	Control	5	4.20	21.00
	Total	10		

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test ($U = 6$, $Z = -1.36$, $P > .05$) indicated that the pre-coaching difference between the two mean ranks observed in Table 2 was no significant.

TABLE 2.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST STATISTICS

	Pretest
Mann-Whitney U	6.000
Wilcoxon W	21.000
Z	-1.362
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.173
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.222 ^b

a. Grouping Variable: Group
b. Not corrected for ties.

However, the Mann-Whitney U test run after the coaching, as displayed in Table 3, shows the mean rank for the experimental ($M = 8.00$) group is higher than that of the control ($M = 3.00$) group.

TABLE 3.
MEAN RANKS; POSTTEST OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY BY GROUP

	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Posttest	Experimental	5	8.00	40.00
	Control	5	3.00	15.00
	Total	10		

So, based on the results of the Mann-Whitney U test ($U = 6, Z = -2.61, P < .05$) there was significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean ranks as shown in Table 4. Thus, it can be concluded that the first null-hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 4.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST STATISTICS

	Posttest
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	15.000
Z	-2.619
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.009
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.008 ^b

a. Grouping Variable: Group
b. Not corrected for ties.

Observation.

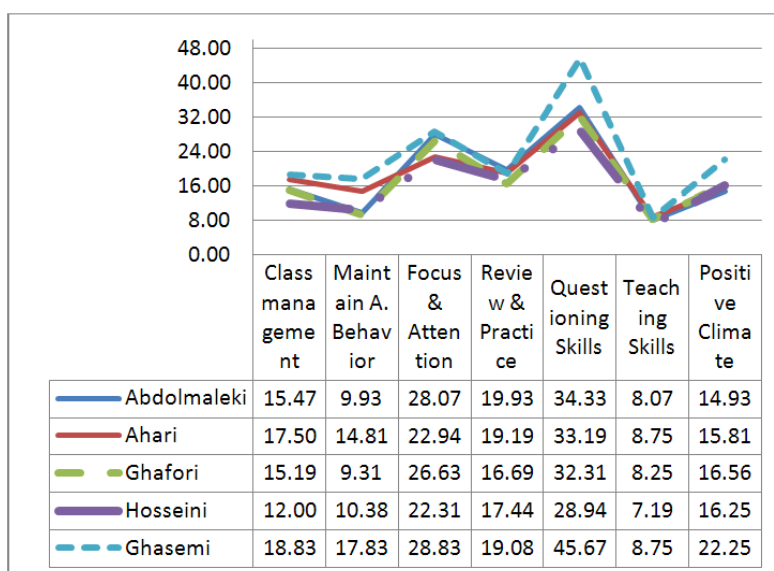
The attending teachers were also observed and their trend of their professional development on the following seven performance categories was recorded:

- Class management,
- Classroom behavior,
- Focusing and maintaining attention,
- Review and practice,
- Questioning skills,
- Teaching skills, and
- Positive classroom climate.

The observation data were also analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics (MANOVA) for each individual teacher.

Comparing Teachers' Performance.

Graph 1 numerically illustrates the whole picture of the means of the performance of the attending teachers on the seven categories of the professional development.



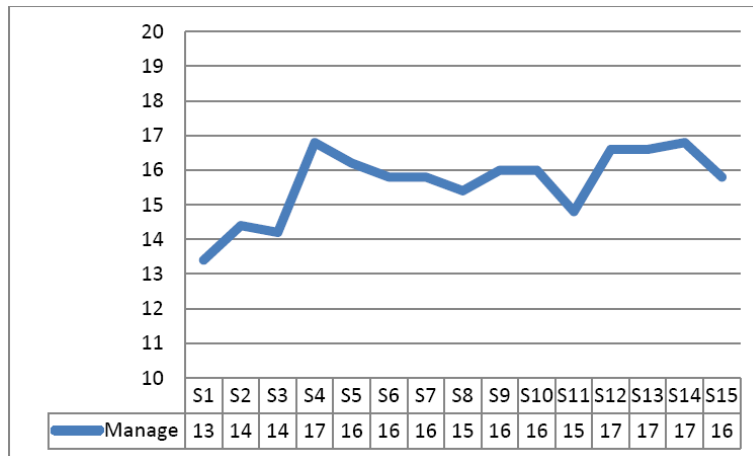
Graph 1. Classroom Activities by Teachers

Trends of Teachers' Performance over Sessions.

What follows, displays the participants' classroom conduct as represented in the seven categories over the 15-session of coaching process recorded based on the observation sheet.

Maintaining Classroom Management.

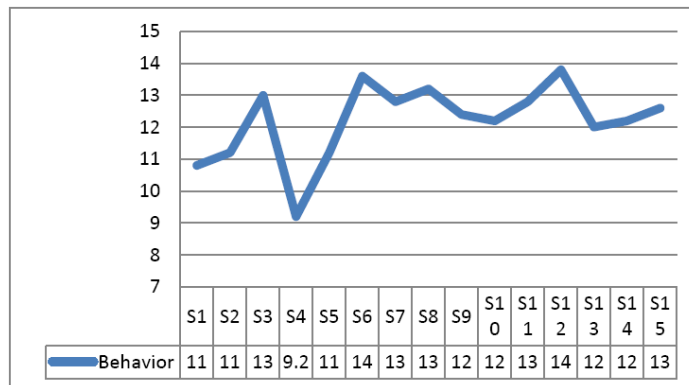
Graph 2 shows that classroom management being at the lowest level on the first session, gradually increased to its highest level on fourth session and had an almost even trend until it showed a large decrease on the eleventh session. It began to increase after the major decrease and showed an almost upward move before the last decrease on the last session. It seems that the classroom management is maintained the teachers felt downward movement.



Graph. 2. Maintaining Classroom Management over 15 Sessions

Maintaining Appropriate Classroom Behavior.

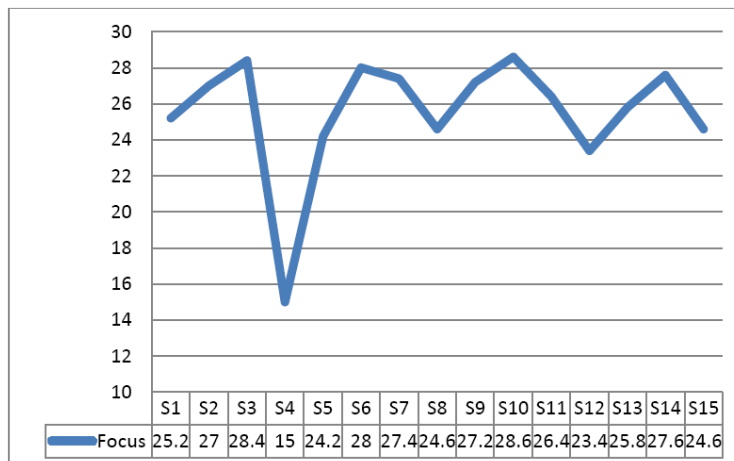
Graph 3 shows that appropriate classroom behavior showed an increasing trend over the first three sessions after which a major decrease happened. Then, it increased and showed an almost steady pattern before the highest increase on the twelfth session.



Graph. 3. Maintaining Appropriate Classroom Behavior

Focus and Maintain Attention.

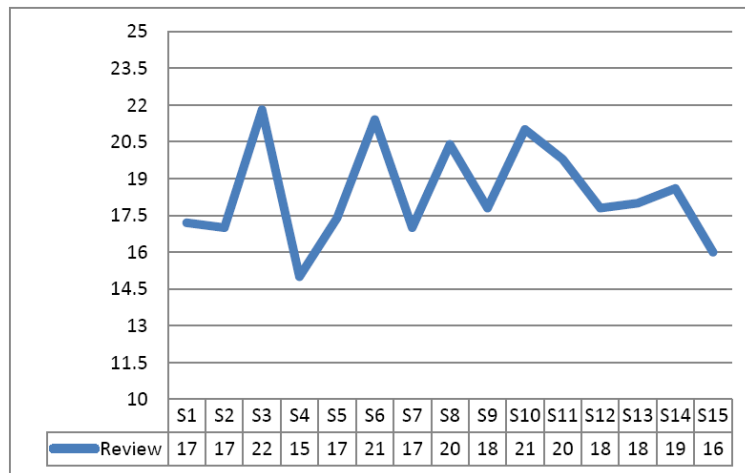
Graph 4 shows that focusing and maintaining attention on lesson had a rising-and-falling pattern every two or three sessions. It started to move upward on the first three sessions then showed the biggest fall.



Graph. 4. Focus and Maintain Attention

Providing Students with Review and Practice.

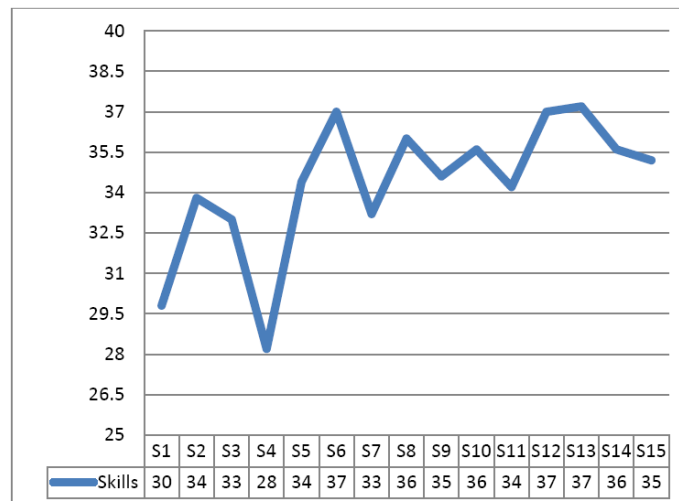
Graph 5 shows teachers provided students with review and practice every other session; with the highest and lowest reviews on the third and fourth sessions, respectively.



Graph. 5. Providing Students with Review and Practice

Demonstrating Questioning Skills.

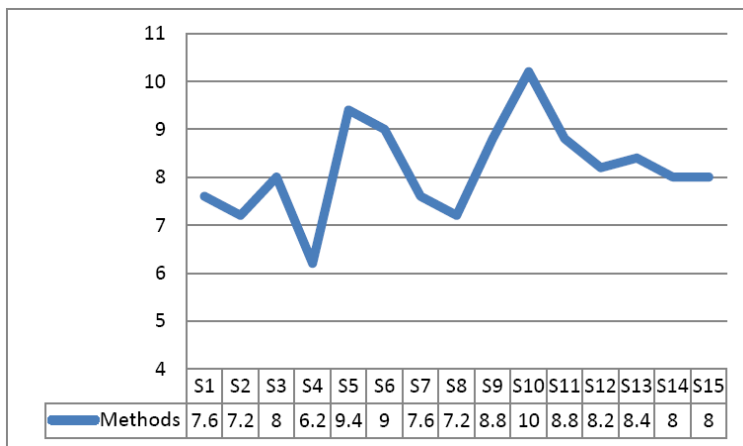
Graph 6 shows that teachers did not hold a clear pattern when demonstrating questioning skills. It showed a rising-and-falling pattern over the session with the lowest and highest at fourth and thirteenth sessions, respectively.



Graph. 6. Demonstrating Questioning Skills

Demonstrating a Variety of Teaching Methods.

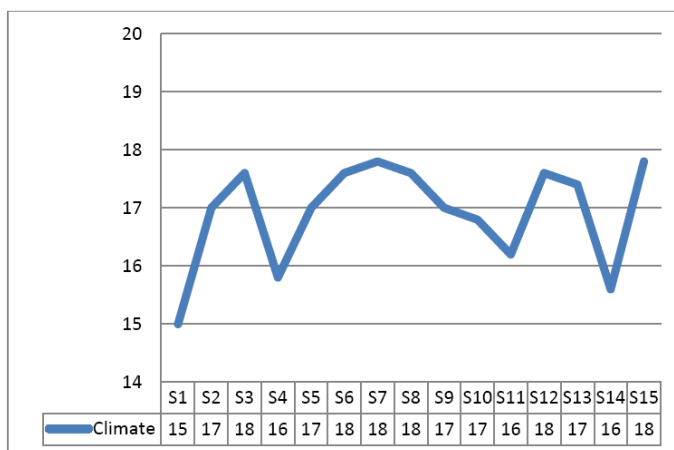
Graph 7 shows that teachers showed an almost steady pattern during the first two sessions ending in a sharp decline in the fourth session. Then, they moved up using variations in teaching followed by downward movement and got to their highest point in the tenth session and finally ended in a falling trend.



Graph. 7. Demonstrating a Variety of Teaching Methods

Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate.

The first three sessions witnessed a rising pattern for establishing a positive climate in classroom which was followed by a sharp decline. A curve pattern followed with two sharp falling then rising patterns.



Graph. 8. Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

Along with the figures and graphs, multivariate ANOVA (MANOV) was run to compare the teachers’ application of the seven teaching techniques. As displayed in Table 5, the probabilities associated with the Levene’s F-values were all higher than .05. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met.

TABLE 5.
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Class Management	2.022	4	70	.101
Maintain Behavior	2.120	4	70	.087
Focus & Attention	1.275	4	70	.288
Review & Practice	.655	4	70	.625
Questioning Skills	2.091	4	70	.091
Teaching Skills	.205	4	70	.935
Positive Climate	1.964	4	70	.110

The main results are discussed referring to the following three tables: 5 which shows the F-values, 6 showing the descriptive statistics and 7 which shows the results of the post-hoc Scheffe’s tests.

Maintaining Classroom Management.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5, 6 and 7, there were significant differences between the five teachers’ maintenance of classroom management ($F(4, 70) = 11.44, P < .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .39$ representing a large effect size). The means scores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi ($M = 18.83$), Ahari ($M = 17.50$), Abdoulmaleki ($M = 15.46$), Ghafari ($M = 15.18$) and Hosseini ($M = 12$). The results of the post-hoc Scheffe’s tests (table 7) indicate that there were four significant differences among the means.

A.1: Ghasemi ($M = 18.83$) showed a significantly higher mean on maintenance of classroom management than Hosseini ($M = 12$) ($M = 6.83, P < .05$) and Ghafari ($M = 15.18$) ($M = 3.65, P < .05$), did.

A.2: Ahari ($M = 17.50$) showed a significantly higher mean on maintenance of classroom management than Hosseini ($M = 12$) ($MD = 5.50, P < .05$), did.

TABLE 6.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Teachers	Classmang	4	11.440	.000	.395
	Maintbeh	4	21.268	.000	.549
	Focus	4	2.891	.028	.142
	Review	4	1.271	.290	.068
	Demoskill	4	10.914	.000	.384
	Demomethod	4	1.295	.281	.069
	Positclim	4	10.447	.000	.374

A.3: Abdoulmaleki (M = 15.46) showed a significantly higher mean on maintenance of classroom management than Hosseini (M = 12) (MD = 3.47, P < .05), did.

Maintaining Appropriate Classroom Behavior.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5, 6, and 7, there were significant differences between the five teachers' maintenance of appropriate classroom behavior (F (4, 70) = 21.26, P < .05, Partial η^2 = .54 representing a large effect size). The means scores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi (M= 17.83), Ahari (M = 14.81), Hosseini (M = 10.37), Abdoulmaleki (M = 9.93) and Ghafari (M = 9.31). The results of the post-hoc Scheffe's tests indicated that there were five significant differences between the means.

A.1: Ghasemi (M = 17.83) showed a significantly higher mean on maintenance of appropriate classroom behavior than Abdoulmaleki (M = 9.93) (M = 7.90, P < .05), Ghafari (M = 9.31) (M = 8.52, P < .05) and Hosseini (M = 10.37) (M = 7.46, P < .05), did.

A.2: Ahari (M = 14.81) showed a significantly higher mean on maintenance of appropriate classroom behavior than Ghafari (M = 9.31) (M = 5.50, P < .05), Abdoulmaleki (M = 9.93) (M = 4.88, P < .05) and Hosseini (M = 10.37) (M = 4.44, P < .05), did.

TABLE 7.
SCHEFFE'S MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

Dependent Variable(I) Teachers	(J) Teachers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	
Class-manage	Ahari	-2.03	.451	
	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafari	.28	.999
		Hosseini	3.47*	.037
		Ghasemi	-3.37	.078
		Abdoulmaleki	2.03	.451
	Ahari	Ghafari	2.31	.300
		Hosseini	5.50*	.000
		Ghasemi	-1.33	.840
		Abdoulmaleki	-.28	.999
	Ghafari	Ahari	-2.31	.300
		Hosseini	3.19	.061
		Ghasemi	-3.65*	.040
Abdoulmaleki		-3.47*	.037	
Hosseini	Ahari	-5.50*	.000	
	Ghafari	-3.19	.061	
	Ghasemi	-6.83*	.000	
	Abdoulmaleki	3.37	.078	
Ghasemi	Ahari	1.33	.840	
	Ghafari	3.65*	.040	
	Hosseini	6.83*	.000	
	Abdoulmaleki	-4.88*	.001	
Maintin-behav	Ahari	-4.88*	.001	
	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafouri	.62	.987
		Hosseini	-.44	.996
		Ghasemi	-7.90*	.000
		Abdoulmaleki	4.88*	.001
	Ahari	Ghafari	5.50*	.000
		Hosseini	4.44*	.003
		Ghasemi	-3.02	.146
		Abdoulmaleki	-.62	.987
	Ghafari	Ahari	-5.50*	.000
		Hosseini	-1.06	.906
		Ghasemi	-8.52*	.000
Abdoulmaleki		.44	.996	
Hosseini	Ahari	-4.44*	.003	
	Ghafari	1.06	.906	
	Ghasemi	-7.46*	.000	

		Abdoulmaleki	7.90*	.000
	Ghasemi	Ahari	3.02	.146
		Ghafori	8.52*	.000
		Hosseini	7.46*	.000
		Ahari	5.13	.348
	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafori	1.44	.985
		Hosseini	5.75	.235
		Ghasemi	-.77	.999
		Abdoulmaleki	-5.13	.348
	Ahari	Ghafori	-3.69	.660
		Hosseini	.63	.999
		Ghasemi	-5.90	.269
		Abdoulmaleki	-1.44	.985
Focus	Ghafori	Ahari	3.69	.660
		Hosseini	4.31	.512
		Ghasemi	-2.21	.945
		Abdoulmaleki	-5.75	.235
	Hosseini	Ahari	-.63	.999
		Ghafori	-4.31	.512
		Ghasemi	-6.52	.178
		Abdoulmaleki	.77	.999
	Ghasemi	Ahari	5.90	.269
		Ghafori	2.21	.945
		Hosseini	6.52	.178
		Ahari	.75	.995
	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafori	3.25	.457
		Hosseini	2.50	.704
		Ghasemi	.85	.994
		Abdoulmaleki	-.75	.995
	Ahari	Ghafori	2.50	.689
		Hosseini	1.75	.892
		Ghasemi	.10	1.000
		Abdoulmaleki	-3.25	.457
Review	Ghafori	Ahari	-2.50	.689
		Hosseini	-.75	.995
		Ghasemi	-2.40	.776
		Abdoulmaleki	-2.50	.704
	Hosseini	Ahari	-1.75	.892
		Ghafori	.75	.995
		Ghasemi	-1.65	.932
		Abdoulmaleki	-.85	.994
	Ghasemi	Ahari	-.10	1.000
		Ghafori	2.40	.776
		Hosseini	1.65	.932
		Ahari	1.15	.995
	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafori	2.02	.956
		Hosseini	5.40	.329
		Ghasemi	-11.33*	.003
		Abdoulmaleki	-1.15	.995
	Ahari	Ghafori	.88	.998
		Hosseini	4.25	.559
		Ghasemi	-12.48*	.001
		Abdoulmaleki	-2.02	.956
Questionskill	Ghafori	Ahari	-.88	.998
		Hosseini	3.38	.754
		Ghasemi	-13.35*	.000
		Abdoulmaleki	-5.40	.329
	Hosseini	Ahari	-4.25	.559
		Ghafori	-3.38	.754
		Ghasemi	-16.73*	.000
		Abdoulmaleki	11.33*	.003
	Ghasemi	Ahari	12.48*	.001
		Ghafori	13.35*	.000
		Hosseini	16.73*	.000
		Ahari	-.68	.945
Teachinmethod	Abdoulmaleki	Ghafori	-.18	1.000
		Hosseini	.88	.871
		Ghasemi	-.68	.958

	Abdoulmaleki	.68	.945
Ahari	Ghafori	.50	.981
	Hosseini	1.56	.410
	Ghasemi	.00	1.000
	Abdoulmaleki	.18	1.000
Ghafori	Ahari	-.50	.981
	Hosseini	1.06	.761
	Ghasemi	-.50	.986
Hosseini	Abdoulmaleki	-.88	.871
	Ahari	-1.56	.410
	Ghafori	-1.06	.761
	Ghasemi	-1.56	.491
Ghasemi	Abdoulmaleki	.68	.958
	Ahari	.00	1.000
	Ghafori	.50	.986
	Hosseini	1.56	.491
Abdoulmaleki	Ahari	-.88	.964
	Ghafori	-1.63	.735
	Hosseini	-1.32	.859
	Ghasemi	-7.32*	.000
Ahari	Abdoulmaleki	.88	.964
	Ghafori	-.75	.979
	Hosseini	-.44	.997
	Ghasemi	-6.44*	.000
Positclimte	Abdoulmaleki	1.63	.735
	Ahari	.75	.979
	Hosseini	.31	.999
	Ghasemi	-5.69*	.001
Hosseini	Abdoulmaleki	1.32	.859
	Ahari	.44	.997
	Ghafori	-.31	.999
	Ghasemi	-6.00*	.000
Ghasemi	Abdoulmaleki	7.32*	.000
	Ahari	6.44*	.000
	Ghafori	5.69*	.001
	Hosseini	6.00*	.000

Maintaining Focus and Attention.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5, 6 and 7, there were significant differences between the five teachers' maintenance of focus and attention ($F(4, 70) = 2.89, P < .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .14$ representing a large effect size). The means cores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi ($M = 24.61$), Abdoulmaleki ($M = 24.61$), Ghafori ($M = 23.28$), Ahari ($M = 19.95$) and Hosseini ($M = 19.91$). Although the F-value of 2.89 was significant, the results of the post-hoc Scheffe's tests did not show any significant differences between any two teachers. These results might seem contradictory, but the error rate inflates when running multiple comparisons.

Providing Students with Review and Practice.

Based on the results displayed in table 5, 6 and 7, there were not any significant differences between the five teachers' provision of review and practice ($F(4, 70) = 1.27, P > .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .068$ representing a moderate effect size). The means cores in order of magnitude were; Abdoulmaleki ($M = 19.93$), Ahari ($M = 19.18$), Ghasemi ($M = 19.08$), Hosseini ($M = 17.43$) and Ghafori ($M = 16.66$).

Demonstrating Skills in Questioning.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5, 6, and 7, there were significant differences between the five teachers' demonstration of questioning skills ($F(4, 70) = 10.91, P < .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .38$ representing a large effect size). The means cores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi ($M = 45.66$), Abdoulmaleki ($M = 34.33$), Ahari ($M = 33.18$), Ghafori ($M = 32.31$) and Hosseini ($M = 28.93$). The results of the post-hoc Scheffe's tests indicated that there were four significantly differences between the means. Ghasemi ($M = 45.68$) showed a significantly higher mean on demonstration of questioning skills than Abdoulmaleki ($M = 34.33$) ($MD = 11.33, P < .05$), Ghafori ($M = 32.31$) ($MD = 12.48, P < .05$), Ahari ($M = 33.18$) ($MD = 12.48$) and Hosseini ($M = 28.93$) ($MD = 16.73, P < .05$), did.

Demonstrating a Variety of Teaching Methods.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5,6,and 7, there were not any significant differences between the five teachers' demonstration of variety of teaching methods ($F(4, 70) = 1.29, P > .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .069$ representing a moderate effect size). The means cores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi and Ahari ($M = 8.75$), Ghafori ($M = 8.17$), Abdoulmaleki ($M = 8.06$) and Hosseini ($M = 7.18$), did.

Establishing a Positive Climate.

Based on the results displayed in tables 5, 6, and 7, there were significant differences between the five teachers' establishment of a positive climate ($F(4, 70) = 10.44, P < .05, \text{Partial } \eta^2 = .37$ representing a large effect size). The

means cores in order of magnitude were; Ghasemi (M= 22.25), Ghafari (M = 16.56), Hosseini (M = 16.25), Ahari (M = 15.81) and Abdoulmaleki (M = 14.93). The results of the post-hoc Scheffe's tests indicated that there were four significant differences between the means. Ghasemi (M = 22.25) showed a significantly higher mean on establishing a positive climate than Abdoulmaleki (M = 14.93) (MD = 7.32, $P < .05$), Ahari (M = 15.81) (MD = 6.44, $P < .05$), Ghafari (M = 16.56) (M = 5.69) and Hosseini (M = 16.25) (M = 6, $P < .05$), did.

B. Investigation of the Research Question Two

Data normality check.

First, the respective data were checked in terms of the normality assumption. As displayed in Table 8, all of the values are below their respective critical values (± 1.96); an indication of data normality. The homogeneity of variances was also checked to be discussed when reporting the results of the inferential statistics.

Testing Assumptions.

TABLE 8.
ASSESSMENT OF NORMALITY

Variable	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
NELSON	.935	6.691	1.663	5.950
Posttest	-.272	-1.944	-.800	-2.860
Pretest	-.582	-4.163	-.490	-1.753
Multivariate			.518	.828

Parametrically, the entry behaviors of the students as measured by both NELSON and Diagnostic Test showed non-significant different as shown in tables 8 and 9.

TABLE 9.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE TEST; NELSON BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.208	.648	1.346	305	.179	.948	.704	-.437	2.332
Equal variances not assumed			1.347	304.859	.179	.948	.704	-.437	2.332

TABLE 10
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST; DIAGNOSTIC TEST BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.349	.555	1.180305		.239	.498	.422	-.332	1.328
Equal variances not assumed			1.179301	973.239		.498	.422	-.333	1.329

Investigation of the Research Question Two.

Following the normality check, an independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the Academic Achievement Test. The experimental group (M = 20.97, SD = 5.14) showed a higher mean than the control group (M = 17.62, SD = 6.40) on the Achievements Test (Table, 11).

TABLE 11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTEST OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS BY GROUPS

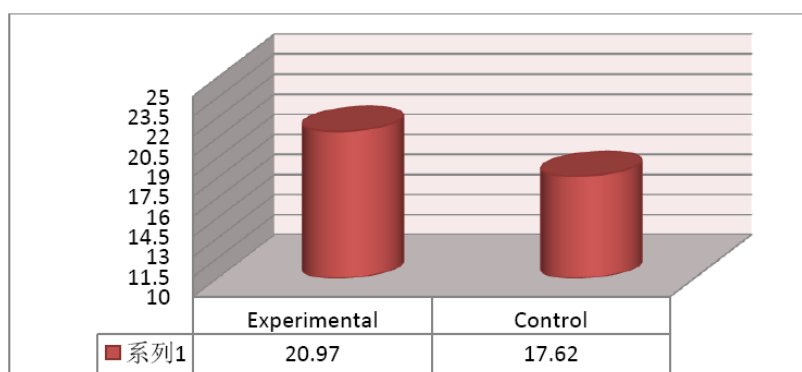
	Group	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error
				Deviation	Mean
Achievement	Experimental	156	20.97	5.149	.412
	Control	151	17.62	6.405	.521

The results of the independent t-test ($t(287) = 5.04$, $P < .05$, $R = .28$ representing an almost moderate effect size) (Table 12) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups' mean scores.. Thus, the second null-hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 12.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST; ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	13.392	.000	5.061305		.000	3.352	.662	2.049	4.655
Equal variances not assumed			5.044287	500	.000	3.352	.665	2.044	4.660

The assumptions of homogeneity of variances were not met (Levene's $F = 13.39$, $P < .05$). That is why the second row of Table 12, i.e. "Equal variances not assumed" is reported.



Graph. 9. Achievement Test by Groups

The result showed a significant change in achievement Test score of students due to the peer coaching, which is consistent with Richards' (2003), Sunderman & Kim's (2007), Valenzuela, Prieto, & Hamilton's (2007) and Prince, Snowden & Matthews' (2010) studies on the positive effects of peer coaching on academic achievement.

Resultant to the peer coaching, the teachers showed the highest mean score on questioning skills, focus and attention, and review and practice. However, it did not have significant effect on the teaching skills and maintaining appropriate classroom behavior. Many findings, as supported by the findings of this study, have illustrated positive impact of coaching on classroom instruction (Kretlow, Cooke, & Wood, 2012; Kretlow, Wood, & Cooke, 2011; Capizzi, Wehby, & Sandme, 2010; Newman & Cunningham, 2009; Landry, Anthony, Swank, & Monseque-Bailey, 2009; Landry, 2010), and curriculum implementation (Caverly, Vaden-Kiernan, & Fong, 2010; Spencer & Logan, 2003). Totally, the findings of this study are in consistent with related researches that focused on effect of peer coaching on students as well as teachers (Garet et al., 2008, 2011; Elmore, 2002; Little, 2001; Elmore, 2002; Scher & O'Reily, 2009; Kohler et al., 1997). However, Neufeld and Rope (2003) opposed positive effects of coaching on academic achievements as Garet et al. (2008, 2011) claimed so as to the professional development.

Investigating the effect of peer coaching on professional identity was an important step to help teachers to work cooperatively and also share their knowledge. Then, theoretically the findings contribute to the literature differently since they are revealing in two terms: teachers' professional development change on one hand and learners' academic achievements on the other, which bear promising pedagogical messages for teacher's self-development as well as others' development; their students.

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The Commentary Translation of China's International Publicity Documentaries — A Case Study of *A Bite of China I*

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Abstract—As a particular kind of audio-visual programs, Chinese Documentaries for international publicity, which aims at spreading China's voice and facilitating the understanding of China, have played a significant role in cultural communication. Compared with other translation activities, its translation has some unique features. This paper takes China's culinary culture documentary *A Bite of China I* as case, through descriptive method, it comes to the following conclusions: in order to achieve better communication through publicity documentaries, the translator should bear in mind the transferring means, purpose, and target audiences. Firstly, such translation can be included in the field of Audio-visual Translation, so the synchronization between image and sound is the first concern; secondly, In order to show the real China and transmit Chinese culture to the fullest extent possible, the translators had better be source-language centered and translate those cultural specific words literally. Thirdly, to form a coherent and cohesive text, the appropriate transformation of thematic progression is an effective way to achieve the naturalness and acceptability of the target language text.

Index Terms—commentary, international publicity, documentaries, *A Bite of China*, thematic progression

I. INTRODUCTION

With increasingly frequent communications between countries, the global exchanges of movies and TV programs have greatly enhanced people's understanding of other cultures. In order to make the world know its own culture well, every country makes a great effort to output its excellent cultural achievements. Among all of these output methods, documentary is an important one which can reveal a nation's real characteristics and presents its real image in economy, society, culture, science and technology.

As a particular kind of audio-visual programs, Chinese Documentaries for international publicity, which aims at spreading China's voice and facilitating the understanding of China, have played a significant role in cultural communication. To achieve the expected communicational goal, appropriate transfer of message from Chinese into other languages is the prerequisite. Hence the paper develops its research questions around the translation of documentary commentaries.

A Bite of China I, a Chinese culinary culture documentary with seven episodes, was first launched on China Central Television (CCTV) Documentary Channel in 2012. It quickly gained extensive attention from all walks of life and even caused a scramble among overseas producers over its right. Currently, there are three foreign versions available for the foreign audience on the CCTV official international broadcasting website—CNTV, namely English, France, and Spanish. It is not just a documentary showcasing food from all over China, but a manifestation of the multiple sides of Chinese culture through eating. It is also themed about Chinese way of thinking and changes to people's lives with china's social progress. Naturally a film with such a profound theme makes the translation all the more difficult.

In this paper, the source commentary and the translated English version of *A Bite of China I* was chosen as the research case. It firstly reviewed relevant literature to sum up the unique characteristics for audio-view translation and special requirements for international publicity translation. Then it attempts to analyze how the translated commentary synchronize picture with voice, while at the same time remain a coherent discourse from the perspective of Thematic Progression Theory with examples. It aims to provide a new research perspective for film and television translation and to attract more researches to this area.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Translation of Documentaries*

A documentary is defined as a film or television or a radio program that gives detailed information about a particular subject in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2017). It can be regarded as a particular kind of audio-visual product which combines image, sound, and commentary. But unlike other types of films which are usually accompanied with dialogues, a documentary has no continuous dialogues between protagonists, so certain written or spoken commentary to convey the story to the audience is needed. Hence the commentary of documentaries is of great

importance in that it not only serves as a supplement of the picture as well as an assistant to the understanding of the theme, but a means to attract the audience to its charm.

As the intercultural communication through films and TV programs became more frequent, much attention has been given to the translation of film and television works, generally called audio-visual Translation, or Screen Translation(ST), or Audio Visual Translation, which resulted in the boom in the research of this field. However, generally speaking, although the receivers of translated film and television works are much larger than those of literary works, the research on this field is slightly lacking behind compared with traditional literary translation studies. This is worse in China as most of the related research focuses on the translation from other language into Chinese, few takes the Chinese film and television works as research object, due to the fact that for a long time, more films and TV programs were imported from abroad than those exported to other countries. So it is necessary to explore the translation of Chinese film and television works for the purpose of better communication in the backdrop of globalization. Which is the starting point of this research.

B. *International Publicity Translation*

The term “international publicity”, “wai xuan” in Chinese, is a term originated from China and boomed with China’s opening up to the outside world in recent decades. Chinese scholar Huang Youyi states, in the process of China’s consistent social development, a conspicuous demand for in-depth international exchange arises, and therefore, a large amount of information related to China needs to be translated into foreign languages in order to achieve international publicity via media, i.e., books, periodicals, newspaper, broadcast, television, Internet, and international conferences (Huang, 2004).

In another scholar Zhang jian’s point of view, international publicity translation generally refers to a translation activity in which the source information is initially provided in Chinese, through C-E translation, aiming at helping foreign audiences to be better informed of China via all forms of media (Zhang, 2013).

In a word, international publicity translation is a communicative activity, which aims at spreading China’s voice and facilitating the understanding of China. With the increasing of China’s comprehensive national strength and its influence on international community, the publicity work of the country is increasingly taken seriously by the state. In the work of international publicity, documentaries are often regarded as one of the most effective means of communication, through which the image of the country and of the people can be shaped with real stories.

Actually, there are two types of translated documentaries. One is with translated subtitles at the bottom of the screen. Another one is with dubbed commentary. And the topic discussed in this paper is the latter. Currently, most scripts of films for international publicity in China are made in Chinese first, and then translated into foreign languages. Those works bear the effort to publicize Chinese society and culture internationally and showcase China’s image to the world. Some typical examples include the promotional video for the Olympics in 2001, the promotional film for the World Expo in 2002 and China’s national image publicity film in 2011.

C. *Thematic Progression*

The commentary of a documentary can be taken as a text, which, according to Thematic Progression (TP) theory, can be regarded as a sequence of related themes and rhemes. TP, as an important way to realize information transmission and textual coherence, refers to the thematic /rhematic connection of various types. In a coherent discourse, sentences are not freely grouped together and there is a certain law guiding the train of thought. According to Danes, Thematic progression might be viewed as the skeleton of the plot. (Danes: 1974). As Chinese and English belong to different language families, there are distinct requirements in information transmission and textual coherence. The most important difference between English and Chinese could be the contrast between hypotaxis and parataxis in terms of linguistics. Moreover, English falls into the category of subject-prominent language, while Chinese is a topic-prominent language. Hence Chinese relies a lot on topic chains instead of grammatical cohesive devices, discarding all unnecessary accessory elements, in which the ellipsis of themes (or subjects) and the initial position of adverbial clauses are quite frequent. So in the C-E translation, the proper choice and arrangement of themes and rhemes is of crucial importance to the success of textual cohesion.

III. AUDIO-VISUAL TRANSLATION AND SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS FOR INTERNATIONAL PUBLICITY

Compared with other translation activities, the translation of China’s International Publicity Documentaries has some unique features.

Firstly, a documentary is a particular kind of film. So its translation shares some features of film translation. Most importantly, such requirements like the synchronization between image and sound makes its translating process a constrained activity. For subtitling, such constraints like the ‘six second rule’ setting the length of time a subtitle will be shown on the screen, require the condensation of the original text sometimes. For dubbing, though not so demanding like lip-synchronizing in films, the translated text has to keep pace with the picture moving and music. So when a new image or picture appear, the appropriate commentary should begin to retain the artistic unity.

Secondly, there are numerous culturally specific elements in the commentary of China’s international publicity documentaries, which may block target language audiences’ comprehension as well as appreciation. Together with the

aim of spreading China's voice and facilitating the understanding of China, it is inevitable to put the translator in a dilemma. So how to properly address the cultural default while at same time maintain exotic cultural properties is what they should bear in mind all the time. In order to show the real China, sometimes they have to make bold decision.

Thirdly, in translation, to form a coherent and cohesive text, the selection of themes is not random or groundless, the first clause or clause complex in a text usually contains new information, but the themes of the following clauses are usually not unexpected, which are connected in one way or another with their neighboring theme or rheme. Only by fully grasping the similarities and differences between the two linguistic structures and functions can we truly be able to carry out the transformation of two languages in a fluent and coherent manner. What's more, because the purpose of international publicity translation is to realize cultural transmission, the translated documentary commentary should center on the target language readers, and be close to the target language audience's habits to realize logical consistency.

IV. A CASE STUDY WITH *A BITE OF CHINA I*

Generally speaking, China's International Publicity Documentaries are to publicize China on a particular subject through audiovisual means. So in the translation of such materials, the translator should bear in mind the transferring means, purpose, and target. The following will illustrate how the English version of *A Bite of China I* deal with these unique requirements in its translation.

A. *Perfect Synchronization of Picture and Voice*

A Bite of China I was made in Chinese first, and then the translated versions followed. The official English version of it with dubbed commentary, which was carefully and elaborately translated, gained popularity instantly among those Chinese fans.

As we know there are significant differences between English and Chinese in their phonetic structure. In modern Chinese, a syllable is composed by an initial consonant, a simple or compound vowel and tone. Some syllables have no initials like *āi* 爱 (love). Generally speaking, one Chinese character is composed of one syllable. While in English, a syllable is made up of none, one, or several consonants and a vowel sound or one of the phoneme [m/n/l]. And a word of English can have one, two, three or even more syllables. However, the speech rates of most languages don't vary as much as one may think on the basis of subjective perception (Cees: 2002). So sometimes the translated text has to be shortened or lengthened in order to be articulated with similar period of time as the source text. In the audio-visual translation, the translator has to keep the number of syllables of the translated version similar to that of the source text. When articulated they cost similar period of time, thus synchronization was achieved.

Let's have a look at these randomly chosen examples:

1a 中国自然地理的多样变化, 让生活在不同地域的中国人享受到截然不同的丰富主食。从南到北, 变化万千的精致主食, 不仅提供了人身体所需要的大部分热量, 更影响了中国人对四季循环的感受, 带给中国人丰饶、健康、充满情趣的生活。

1b The geography of China is very diverse so people living in different areas enjoy different staple foods. Staple foods not only provide calories, they also have a great effect on people's feelings towards the seasons and then enable them to have a happy, healthy and interesting life. In China, tastes in staple foods vary from south to north.

2a 从农耕文明走到工业文明, 技术的进步, 使得粽子不再局限于地域和时令。但是对中国人来说, 顺应自然, 亲手做合适的食物, 更意味着对传统生活方式的某种延续。

2b The arrival of the industrial revolution meant that the production of Zongzi was no longer limited by region or season. But many people feel that making them by hand is a way of preserving part of a natural, traditional lifestyle.

In example 1, altogether there are 96 syllables in the Chinese commentary and 92 in English, which ensured the two versions be broadcasted within about the same period of time, and the synchronization between the picture and the voice, meanwhile made it sound natural to the target language audience. To achieve this, the translator omitted some words like “大部分”, “循环”, “精致”, etc. Meanwhile the original subject in source text “从南到北, 变化万千的精致主食”, was translated into a separate sentence “In China, tastes in staple foods vary from south to north”.

In example 2, both the source and the target text contain 66 syllables, which is realized mainly by the restructuring and reformulation to the source language, as well as the omission of terms like “农耕文明”. Although certain information is lost during the process, the artistic unity is retained so that when a new image or picture appear, the appropriate commentary begins.

B. *Proper Showcase of Exotic Culture*

As a television documentary about Chinese dietary culture, *A Bite of China I* is full of unique Chinese cultural elements such as the names and cooking procedures of Chinese cuisines, traditional handicrafts/tools and cultural specific ingredients/raw materials, all of which have posed great challenges to its translators. On the one hand, the English-speaking audiences from different cultural backgrounds don't have much Chinese cultural schema stored in their long-term memories. On the other hand, the translated version has to take the responsibility of transmitting the voice of China, which cannot be achieved without the introducing of Chinese-specific element. How the translator deals with this contradiction, let's have a look at the following examples:

- 3a 饺子, 粽子, 泡馍, 饅, 包子, 毛豆腐, 乳扇, 豆腐球
 3b Jiaozi, Zongzi, Paomo, Nang, Baozi, Fluffy Tofu, Milk fan, and tofu balls
 4a 岐山臊子面, 雷山鱼酱, 潮州春卷
 4b Qishan Minced Noodles, Leishan Fish Sauce, Chaozhou Spring Roll
 5a 焖, 烤, 烘, 熏, 灼, 蒸, 煮
 5b braise, roast, bake, smoke, scald, steam, and boil

From the above examples, we can see that most Chinese cultural words are translated literally, from the traditional Chinese cuisine as shown in 3a, to local delicacies in 4a, and to Chinese cooking techniques in 5a. In discussing international publicity translation, Chinese scholar Yuan Xiaoning advocates the “Binary Coexistence” method, that is, target language centered in linguistic expression, and source-language oriented with culture-loaded words and expressions for which literal translation method is recommended. (Yuan 2013) In translating such material for cultural publicity, a taste of foreignness can be a way to keep the audience curious. As cultural globalization becomes a tendency, literal translation of cultural elements might be a good way for bettering understanding and cultural enrichment.

With this method, the English version of *A Bite of China I* made an attempt to transmit Chinese culture to the fullest extent possible.

C. Appropriate Transformation of Thematic Progression

Thematic progression gives a comprehensive explanation of themes in a text, and makes the seemingly random theme choice quite well-organized from a textual perspective. As appropriate transformation of thematic progression is an effective way to achieve the naturalness and acceptability of the target language text. Let's take episode 2 as an example to see how the translator choose themes and rhemes in the translation.

6a 地打在侬语里的意思是泉水之源。地处清水江源头的地打村，一年中阴雨天居多。(The meaning of Dimen in Dong dialect means the source of spring in the Dong dialect. Dimen village which is located in the source of Qingshui River has more rainy days)

6b People of the Dong ethnic group live in Dimen village. Dimen means source of the water and it is usually overcast or rainy in Dimen village which is located by the south of Qingshui River.

7a 与黎平米粉做法非常相似的是广州人最爱吃的一种米食——河粉，150年前在广州沙河一带出现，于是这种食物也叫沙河粉。(What resembles the way of making Niping rice noodles is a kind of rice food---River rice noodle, which Guangzhou people like to eat. It was found 150 years ago in the Shahe river in Guangzhou, so it is also called Shahe River rice noodle)

7b Meanwhile in Guangzhou, people are very fond of a similar type of rice noodles coming on in as Shahe rice noodles.

8a 1000多年前，中国以秦岭、淮河一线划分出南稻北麦的农业分布，因此造成了南方人爱吃米、北方人则离不开面食的现象。(1000 years ago, China along the line of Qinling Mountains and Huai River set the South rice North wheat agricultural distribution, resulting in the phenomenon that People in the south prefer rice but people in the north can live without wheat-based foods.)

8b People in the south prefer rice but people in the north prefer wheat-based foods. The situation has existed for over a thousand years and it's due to the different regional agricultural conditions.

9a 晚稻成熟之后，就到了宁波人做年糕的时候。(After the late rice has harvested is the time for people in Ningbo to make rice cakes.)

9b After the late rice has harvested, people in Ningbo begin making rice cakes.

As the title *The Story of Staple Foods* suggests, this episode is to introduce various kinds of staple foods people in different parts of China enjoy, which are manifested by a series of stories about some real people. In the above examples, 6a, 7a, 8a, 9a are the first sentence to introduce some isolated story about a different local staple food. While in the source text, themes in each sentence vary, the topic of the description remains the same, namely, Chinese people and their varied staple foods. Unlike Chinese, which is a topic-prominent language, English is a subject-prominent language which, and most of the time the subject serves as the theme, so in the translated English version 6b, 7b, 8b, 9b “people” is chosen as the theme, while not the same ones as in the source language, originally “地打在侬语里的意思”(the meaning of Dimen in Dong dialect), “与黎平米粉做法非常相似的是”(What resembles the way of making Niping rice noodles), “中国以秦岭、淮河一线”(China along the line of Qinling mountains and Huai river), “晚稻成熟之后”(after the late rice has harvested) in the source text. As the theme is the bridge to connect the known information and the new information, the original themes in Chinese are too scattered and may block the continuity of the text if translated literally. So to keep the translated documentary commentary a natural and coherent whole and to facilitate understanding and acceptance among the target language audiences, the translator restructured and transformed the sentence and arrange them according to the target thematic progression pattern.

In sum, in order to achieve better communicative effects as well as a qualified translated version, the translator should bear both the intentions of the original text and the expectations of the target audience in mind.

V. CONCLUSION

With increasingly frequent communications between countries, the global exchanges of movies and TV programs have greatly enhanced people's understanding of other cultures. As a particular kind of audio-visual programs, Chinese Documentaries for international publicity, which aims at spreading China's voice and facilitating the understanding of China, have played a significant role in cultural communication. Compared with other translation activities, its translation has some unique features. This paper takes China's culinary culture documentary *A Bite of China I* as case, through descriptive method, it explores how the translated version turned out to be a natural accompaniment to the image. It comes to the following conclusions: China's International Publicity Documentaries are to publicize China, so in the translation of such materials, the translator should bear in mind the transferring means, purpose, and target. Firstly, its translation can be included in the field of Audio-visual Translation, so the synchronization between image and sound is the first concern; secondly, In order to show the real China and transmit Chinese culture to the fullest extent possible, the translators had better be source-language centered and translate those cultural specific words literally. Thirdly, to form a coherent and cohesive text, appropriate transformation of thematic progression is an effective way to achieve the naturalness and acceptability of the target language text.

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The Relationship between English Learning and Professional Identity Changes among Iranian PhD Teachers

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Abstract—This mix-method study investigated Iranian PhD teachers' professional identity changes associated with English learning. For this reason, 130 PhD teachers (39 female and 91 male) were selected from different majors and from five different Universities of Mohaghegh Ardabili, Azad University of Ardabil, Payame Noor University of Ardabil, Tabriz University, and Allameh Tabataba'i University of Tehran. Teachers exposed to a 19-item questionnaire that designed by Cheung to determine the amount of teachers' commitment to three domains of professional identity, including student needs, school issues, and personal growth and development with a 5-point Likert scale. Then they answered the interview question about the same domains. Main findings of the study are as follow, first, general results indicate that teachers underwent professional identity changes after learning English. Second, female teachers were more committed to the three professional domains than male teachers. Almost all teachers unanimously believed that English learning has a key role in personal growth and development in their professional environment.

Index Terms—identity change, language learning, professional identity

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s, people mostly considered second language (L2) teaching and learning as having to do with formal properties of language, like lexicon, pronunciation, and grammar. Then, in 1980s, practitioners and researchers began to realize that learning a second language involves more than gaining linguistic proficiency. Rosaldo (1984), in her study of culture and the individual, showed that in the social environment where people live, the constructs of personhood, language, culture, and identity are intertwined. Since then, research on L2 added a focus on the social context in which languages are learned and taught and began to address the complicated issues of culture, identity, and power.

Identity is a multilayered and complex construct that has tended to be examined from particular points of view by theorists and researchers (Block, 2007). Identity is a necessary aspect of who we are, including our sense of self, gender, race, ethnicity, and religion. It is something that develops during one's whole life; it is not something that one has (Beijaard et al., 2004). The common feature of identity definitions is the idea that it is not something fixed, it is a relational phenomenon. There are different kinds of identity such as teacher identity, student identity, social identity, religious identity, gender identity, professional identity, self-identity, and so on. This study focuses on professional identity.

One of the significant issues in education is teacher identity, which is associated with teachers' commitment (Day et al., 2005), teachers drive a sense of pride in their professionalism when they develop satisfaction with their commitment. The way that teachers define their professional roles is called teacher professional identity (Lasky, 2005). Professional identity has been proved to have significant effects on teachers' performance and development, and learning to teach is fundamentally a process of constructing professional identity rather than knowledge acquisition (e.g., Nguyen, 2008; Varghese et al., 2005).

There are four types of commitment: occupational, identity, caring, and career continuance. In order to make a positive contribution to education, teachers should be able to demonstrate all types of them. In addition to commitment, teacher identity affects many other aspects of education too, such as changing the education policy environment, pedagogy, and the way of teaching. Professional identity is influenced by various factors and conditions both inside and outside the classroom. The studies done on this identity are limited, and in each of them professional identity has been operationalized differently (e.g., Bakhtin, 1981; Caihong, 2011; Coldron & Smith, 1999; Gee, 2001).

Different studies have investigated multiple kinds of identities from different perspectives. However, subjects of these studies were mostly undergraduate students (e.g., Gao et al., 2005; Hong, 2010; Taylor et al., 2013). In this study, participants were university teachers who were studying for their PhD degrees or had already obtained their PhD degrees, and because of the important role of language in constructing individuals' identities, it is aimed to determine the relationship between language learning and professional identity. As Hamachek (1999, p. 209) put it so nicely "consciously we teach what we know, and unconsciously we teach who we are". The teachers' perception of their competence, communication styles, and value systems change after learning a new language (Gao et al., 2005). In order

to gain an insight into the crucial aspects of teachers' professional lives, like their career decision making, job satisfaction, emotion, motivation, and commitment, we must gain an understanding of their professional identity (Hong, 2010). Therefore, findings obtained by this study can help to uncover the kind of identity changes of teachers that can positively affect their development. The study would be helpful for people who are dealing with teachers' training and teacher education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been an explosion of interest in identity and language learning over the past 15 years. The powerful connection of identity and language learning is becoming a central concern to many scholars in the field of language education. As a result, the term identity nowadays features in most handbooks and encyclopedias of language learning and teaching (e.g., McKinney & Norton, 2008; Morgan & Clarke, 2011; Norton, 2010; Norton & Toohy, 2002; Ricento, 2005).

Professional identity is a dynamic construct (Barrett, 2008; Varghese, et al., 2005), which has been shown to have a great impact on teachers' performance and development. Teachers have their own interpretations of the curriculum standards and books, their own grasping of student learning, their own teaching styles, on the basis of their professional identities. So the discussion of subjects like teaching and learning cannot be considered without teachers' professional identities (Caihong, 2011). Analyzing professional identity of PhD university teachers is important because it is closely related to their working life and their prior educational experience (Caihong, 2011).

Two major issues are explored in both general and foreign language (FL) education. The first issue is the multifaceted nature of professional identity and how these facets are related to each other. For example, the characteristics of teachers' identity, the internal or external factors that affect their identity, and so on, are explored (e.g., Beijaard et al., 2000; MacLure, 1993). The second issue, which falls into two factors, is identity formation or construction. One focus is the complexity of identity formation process (e.g., Tsui, 2007); the other is the tension between social structure and personal agency in identity formation (e.g., Coldron & Smith, 1999; Reynolds, 1996).

Some experts (e.g., Doecke et al., 2004) have referred to four views on teachers' professional identity area of research. There is a psychological view that considers the professional identity development of teachers in the same pace as the growth of the teacher himself. Based on the second view, the discursive view, the factors that control teachers' identity formation are their past, present, and future. In the narrative view, a teachers' takes on different identities in different circumstances, for example, becomes a father at home, a teacher in the class, a colleague at work, and so on. Finally, in a dialogic view, a teacher defines his role and others differently in various interactional situations.

Previous studies across different countries have taken teachers' professional identity as a key factor in teachers' motivation, retention, and effectiveness (e.g., Avalos & Aylwin, 2007; Day, et al., 2005; Day et al., 2006; Lasky, 2005; Van den Berg, 2002). The reason is that, 'self' is essential in constructing the way we judge in a given context and interact with the environment. In some studies professional identity is related to teachers' concepts or images of self and they determine the way they develop as a teacher, the way teachers teach, and their ideas about educational reforms (e.g., Knowles, 1992). In some other studies the focus is on teachers' roles in relation with other concepts (e.g., Goodson & Cole, 1994).

In a quantitative study, Cheung (2008), aimed to develop a teacher professional identity scale in order to measure the professional identity of the Hong Kong in-service teachers. The framework of this study for understanding the professional identity of teachers was through teachers' roles and practices (what they do), and how committed they are to their stated professional practices. The more committed the teachers are, the more likely they are to identify themselves as professional teachers. After a pilot study, 19 items were selected and a Likert scale from one to five was applied. Items were categorized into three factors, student needs, school issues, and personal growth and development. The main participants were 80 in-service, both male and female, teachers. Both pilot and main studies revealed that the scale was valid and reliable for measuring the professional identity. It is suggested that, it will be interesting to compare the professional identity of teachers among different countries.

I used the same questionnaire in my study, since he developed versions of the scale in different languages and he hoped the scale can be used for the teachers of other countries, too. The problem with his study is that it is only quantitative and due to dynamicity of identity it cannot be representative enough.

Caihong (2011) in his study aimed to explore the characteristics of teachers' professional identity and their professional identity changes associated with their academic study toward PhD degrees. This qualitative case research was drawn on interviews with nine EFL teachers in a Chinese university. Major findings of this study include, positive changes that were reported by all nine teachers, both productive identity change and additive identity change (Gao, et al., 2005). Teachers demonstrated discipline-focused, multi-leveled, and achievement-oriented professional identities. The study highlighted the powerful effect of policy upon teachers' identity changes. In this study the number of participants is not representative, we cannot generalize the results.

Abednia (2012) worked on a contribution of a critical EFL teacher education course to Iranian teachers' professional identity reconstruction. Participants were seven teachers. By grounded theory he analyzed pre-course and post-course interviews, class discussions, their reflective journals, and the teacher educator's reflective journals. Three kinds of major shifts occurred in their professional identities: from no orientation or an instrumentalist orientation to a

critical/transformational orientation of teaching, from conformity to and romanticization of dominant ideologies to critical autonomy, and from a linguistic and technical view to an educational view of second language education. This study has some shortcomings. Due to teaching in many centers, it was impossible to see whether any observable changes happened in teachers' teaching practice or not. Also one of the L2 teaching methodology courses was not part of a typical teacher education program and this may raise doubts about the similarity of the outcome within a teacher education program. Finally, since identity is highly dynamic construct, studies like that need to explore long-term changes in teachers' identities.

In a case study, Nurit Dvir (2015) examined three physically disabled teachers (one with disability of the leg, a deaf teacher, and one suffered from scoliosis) professional identity construction, and their attitudes toward teaching students with disabilities. All participants were students at a teacher-training college in Israel, for both special-education and regular setting. In this qualitative study, by relating their choice of teaching as a profession, they were asked to write their life stories in a professional context for about a year. Narrative analysis revealed a process of identity formation which started by a sense of failure and exclusion in their early life, followed by a turning point, and conclude with a sense of ability to empower their students (with or without disabilities) and a sense of professional self-efficacy. Studies like that can provide many help to students with disabilities, and can give them courage to continue their educational lives and participate in mainstream schools.

Hong (2010) explored different perceptions of beginning and pre-service teachers' professional identity in relation to their decision to leave the profession. A mix-methods design was employed in this study, with 84 participant surveys and collected interview data from 27 of them. He put them in four groups according to their different stages of teaching. He broke down professional identity of teachers into six factors: efficacy, value, emotions, commitment, micropolitics, and knowledge and beliefs. Data analysis revealed that pre-service teachers tended to have naïve and idealistic perceptions of teaching, and emotional burnout was the most salient feature and the main factor that influenced their decision to leave teaching. This emotional burnout was because of failure in classroom management. Teachers believed that school administration was not effective or supportive. So many factors were intertwined in teacher retention and attrition and they considered such a complicated educational phenomena, thus studies need to include other contributing factors too.

Dynamicity of identity necessitates the using of mix-methods in order to analyze identity and its different types from different perspectives. Most studies of different kinds of identities used either qualitative or quantitative designs. The subjects of these studies were mostly undergraduate students or pre-service teachers (e.g., Gao et al., 2005; Hong, 2010; Taylor et al., 2013), in this study, participants will be university teachers who are studying for their PhD degrees or had already obtained their PhD degrees.

Research questions are as follow:

1. Do university teachers undergo professional identity changes after learning English? And do teachers' professional identity changes differ with gender?
2. Is there any correlation among professional identity, gender, and proficiency level?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In this study participants were 130 university teachers (39 female and 91 male). Eight people were studying their PhD but others had already obtained their PhD degrees. Their ages ranged from 29 to 60, with a mean age of 39.32 years. They were selected from the variety of majors including philosophy, biology, psychology, management, geography, Arabic, history, French, geomorphology, architecture, English, Persian literature, mechanics, agriculture, law, chemistry, civil engineering, geology, mathematics, physics, economics, etc. Twenty five participants were from English major that had high level of proficiency (four upper intermediate, eight advanced, 13 very advanced), among the remaining 105 non English major participants, 46 people had low level of English proficiency (five pre-intermediate, 41 intermediate) and 59 people had high level of proficiency (40 upper intermediate, 15 advanced, four very advanced).

They were selected from five different universities from three different cities. Seventy five participants were from Mohaghegh Ardabili University, 19 from Azad University of Ardabil among who eight people were still studying their PhD, 20 were from Payame Noor University of Ardabil, seven from University of Allameh Tabataba'i in Tehran, and nine from Tabriz University.

B. Instruments

Questionnaire. In the first part I put a six level scale in order to obtain the participants' level of proficiency. Each level had its own descriptors, according to the descriptions, teachers determined their level of proficiency that whether they are A1 elementary, A2 pre-intermediate, B1 intermediate, B2 upper-intermediate, C1 advanced, or C2 very advanced. Participants who selected A1, A2, or B1 scales in this study, are considered as low proficiency and participants who selected B2, C1, or C2 scales, are considered with high level of proficiency.

In part 2 of the questionnaire I asked some personal information, such as gender, age, major, university, etc. But I didn't ask for any name. The next part consisted of professional identity items. The original questionnaire was in

English, in order to avoid any misunderstanding, I translated it into Persian and gave the Persian version to all English and non-English major participants.

The questionnaire was developed by Cheung (2008), in order to measure the professional identity of Hong Kong in-service teachers. The scale included 19 items and in both pilot and main study, the scale was found to be reliable and valid for measuring the professional identity. He considered three types of professional domains, student needs domain (7 items), school issues domain (6 items), and personal growth and development domain of teachers (6 items). A Likert scale from one to five was applied in the questionnaire (1= very weakly; 5= very strongly). The reliability of this questionnaire was 0.95.

Interview. By completion of the questionnaire I asked one open-ended interview question and recorded their answers. The interview question was asked in Persian.

C. Data Analysis

Data analysis was done by SPSS, through statistical analysis. Correlation formulas were also applied.

IV. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics for professional identity domains (Table 1) indicated that English learning affected their commitment toward student needs ($M=26.39$) more than other domains, then the largest mean belonged to personal growth and development domain ($M=24.15$). Finally school issues by the mean of $M=20.83$ were less open to change in comparison with other domains by learning English.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY DOMAINS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
student needs	130	26.39	5.796
school issues	130	20.83	5.496
personal growth & development domain	130	24.15	4.866
Valid N (listwise)	130		

Total professional identity change showed the mean of $M=71.3$, among whole 130 respondents of this part, 64 teacher scored above the mean. Analyzing those 64 people, in association with their levels of proficiencies, turned out a pie chart that you can see in Figure 1. According to the chart among those 64 respondents, 30 percent were very advanced teachers, 24 percent were advanced, and 18 percent were in upper-intermediate level. Therefore, 72 percent of them had high level of English proficiency and 28 percent had low level of proficiency. This fact can highlight the effect of English learning on teachers' professional identity changes. Professional identity changed with language learning.

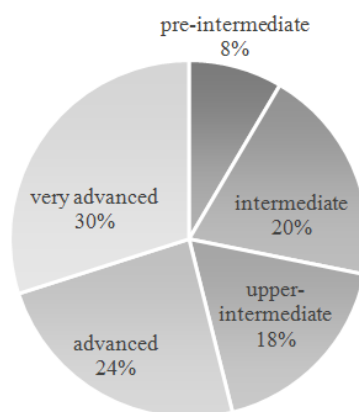


Figure 1. Percentage of teachers scored above mean in their professional identity

A. Gender and Professional Identity Change

The comparison of the means (Table 2) between males and females on the three variables of student needs domain, school issues domain, and personal growth and development domain showed that female teachers had higher means than male teachers did on all three variables (Fig. 2). In other words, females had a higher commitment.

TABLE 2.
THE COMPARISON OF MEANS BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES ON THE THREE VARIABLES OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
personal growth & development domain	Female	25.03	4.771	39
	Male	23.78	4.885	91
	Total	24.15	4.866	130
school issues	Female	21.28	5.031	39
	Male	20.64	5.699	91
	Total	20.83	5.496	130
student needs	Female	26.69	5.592	39
	Male	26.26	5.906	91
	Total	26.39	5.796	130

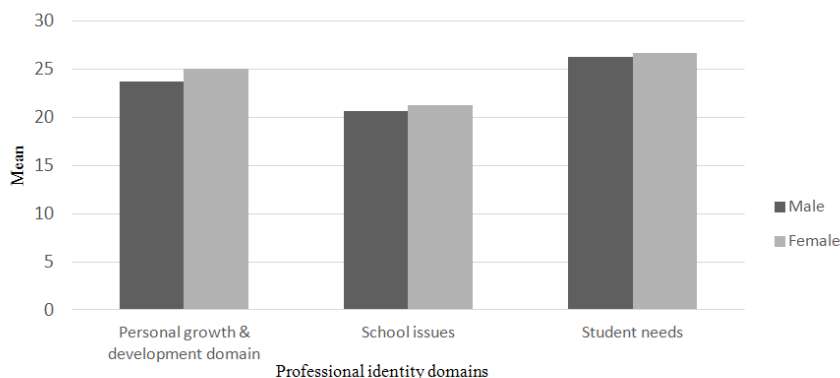


Figure 2. Gender and professional identity domains

B. Correlation among Professional Identity, Gender, and Proficiency Level

Professional identity significantly correlates with language proficiency but not with gender. In addition, gender correlates with language proficiency (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
CORRELATIONS AMONG PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY, GENDER, AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL

		Gender	language proficiency	Professional identity
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	-.174*	-.065
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.047	.459
	N	131	131	130
language proficiency	Pearson Correlation	-.174*	1	.230**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.047		.009
	N	131	131	130
Professional identity	Pearson Correlation	-.065	.230**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.459	.009	
	N	130	130	130

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. Discussion

This study defined professional identity as the level of commitment of teachers (Cheung, 2008). Teachers respectively show the highest level of commitment in student needs domain, personal growth and development domain, and finally school issues domain. Analyzing data indicated that 72 percent of teachers who scored above the mean in their professional identity were the teachers that had high levels of proficiencies. As a result it can be concluded that English learning can lead to professional identity changes of teachers.

Student needs domain had the highest mean, and showed that teachers are there for their students; the first priority of a teacher is the progress and success of his/her students. This domain is even more important than their own personal growth and development. Teachers said with or without English learning, they have some responsibilities toward students and they should do their duties, it showed that sense of responsibility is not exposed by external power, it is a natural response to what we care about (Fromm, 1947). School issues with a significant difference was in the third place, some of the teachers believed that school goals were not separated from their own goals or from their students' goals. In order to preserve their job, teachers had to follow all the rules and objectives of the center, at the beginning they didn't have a critical view and could not import their own ideas much, but as their professional identity develop; they shift to a

critical autonomy (Abednia, 2012). Teachers believed that one of the most important limitations in the development of the professional identity was the lack of support from administration (Zare-ee & Ghasedi, 2014), especially in Azad university.

In interview all teachers, non-exceptionally, believed that learning English can make a big difference in their profession, specially due to scientific and educational environment in which they work in. English learning paves the way of both their educational and professional paths. They said by learning English their personal growth in their profession will be accelerated since English is believed to be the language of science. On the other hand, they will be able to guide and help their students in a more efficient way by providing more up to date information for them and by encouraging them to learn English. Even sometimes when the teacher speaks English in the class or uses technical words in English, automatically students get motivated to learn it. Teachers, specially non-English major ones, believed in Iranian classrooms students usually obey and appreciate the teacher who knows foreign languages well, while Taylor et al. (2013) found out, in European context being appreciated with students or colleagues as an individual person do not depend on educational background.

Female teachers showed higher level of commitment compared to male teachers. It is considered an interesting result since in Iranian context males may seem to be more serious, responsible, and committed to their profession, and in a condition in which the number of male teachers in universities is much higher than females. Specially in personal growth and development domain the difference is more significant. A female teacher said, "When as a woman and as a person who wears hijab I started to use English or French words during my teaching, or when students found out I have translated some books, it really impresses them." In a study by Cheung (2008) it was completely vice versa, in all three variables of professional identity, male in-service teachers scored higher than female in-service teachers in Hong Kong.

About school issues teachers declared that they have some duties and there are some expectations from them in their working environment and toward students, with or without learning English they try to meet these expectations. Some teachers with high level of proficiency said by learning English they start to read some books other than their own majors, and this self-study really impressed their lives in a positive way.

Professional identity is significantly correlated with proficiency level but not with gender. Proficiency level is also correlated with gender. Unlike proficiency level, there is not much relationship between the gender of a person and his/her professional identity.

B. Conclusion

After learning English, university teachers underwent professional identity change. Their level of commitment toward students needs raised more than other domains. University teachers are in an academic environment so in this condition acquiring English is vital and can make lots of differences in teachers' personal, educational, and professional progress. Progress occurs under one condition that the person starts to use the language. English is just like a machine that can facilitate the progress through using it, having the machine itself without using cannot be helpful. In educational environments they should give more weight to learning English. So professional identity differs with gender, proficiency level, and major.

Finally, learning is a kind of change, so language acquisition as a kind of learning has the ability to change the learner. Language is just like a key, the more languages we learn, the more keys we have to open up wide horizons in front of ourselves. People, their languages, their beliefs, their culture, and their life style are all different all over the world; the only common language in the world is the language of science, learners can both affect and be affected by the people whom they are interacting. Identity as a dynamic phenomenon is always prone to change, and this change depending on the situation might be as a result of a new environment, a new language, or even a new profession.

C. Implications of the Study

The present study highlighted the role of the learning English in identity change. In Iranian context studies of this topic are limited. The person is limited inside a cocoon, through learning English, he/she would break limits and would gain different colors. Teachers stated that the amount of attention toward learning English should increase, and policy makers should place more emphasis in our educational system toward learning English. Some of them claimed that we had enough knowledge but we didn't have the tool, which is the English, to share it with the world.

This study would be helpful for people who are dealing with teachers' training, teacher education, syllabus designers, and material developers, to help pre-service teachers to develop a positive identity. Findings obtained by this study can motivate other teachers to go for English learning. Then their learning will also affect and encourage their students to learn English. I was surprised that still there are many university teachers who are not proficient enough in English. The study uncovered the needs and problems of educational environments from teachers' point of view, so universities can make use of the results of such a study to alleviate their shortcomings and pay attention to teachers' needs.

D. Suggestions for Further Research

People who wish to do some further research in this area should consider some important points. First in designing language proficiency scale I mostly insist on to what extent they have the ability to speak and understand English, some of the teachers mentioned that while they are good at reading comprehension, translation, and understanding their own major's specialized words and readings, they cannot speak well in English. In designing your proficiency scale, you

should take this into consideration. Second, in order to make sure that how much is the effect of language learning on identity change, it is better to analyze samples before and then after learning the language, under this condition we can talk with more confidence. Another recommendation for further study is adding the element of motivation. It is one of the important aspects of language learning, and it might be an influencing factor in identity changes. On the other hand, many university teachers are not proficient enough in English while it is important for their progress, you can analyze why they do not start learning English, and what kind of motivations lead teachers to acquire other languages. Also by having some samples with lower level of education and comparing them with PhD teachers we can find out the changes are because of higher education or learning English.

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