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Contents

Adult Learners and a One-day Production Training – Small Changes but the Native Language Sound System Prevails

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Abstract—**Theories and models of non-native phonetic acquisition emphasise the significance of the native sound system in the learning process. On the basis of extensive research, it is evident that the mother tongue phonology prevents the learner from perceiving redundant sound contrasts, which are of importance in the target language. These phonological difficulties are naturally reflected in the production patterns as well, and learners tend to articulate according to the native model. In this study the aim was to see, whether a short production training results in articulatory changes. For this purpose we trained native speakers of Finnish and American English to produce a non-native vowel contrast embedded in a pseudo-word context /ty:ti/ - /tʊ:ti/. We analysed the first two formants from both the baseline and after-training productions. The results showed significant group differences in the formant frequencies and in their standard deviations. These findings indicate that both groups produced the pseudo-words according to the mother tongue model and that a short training was not enough to overcome the strength of the native language sound system. However, training did reduce deviations of the formant frequencies, which implies that the learners found a more homogeneous production pattern with training.**

Index Terms—**native language, production training, adult learners, vowel production**

I. INTRODUCTION

Speech sound production and perception form the basis for oral communication. Children are exposed to the native sounds from birth, or even earlier (Partanen et al. 2013) and as a result of this the native speech sound categories begin to develop (Kuhl, 1991; Kuhl, Williams, Lacerda, Stevens & Lindblom, 1992). After the establishment of language-specific memory traces for mother tongue phonological categories (Näätänen et al. 1997), perception is altered in accordance with the ambient system and non-native speech sounds and their acoustic cues become redundant. Production patterns then start to develop and articulatory gestures are acquired so that the output of production matches the acoustic model provided by the mother tongue and as a result new production templates are formed (Perkell et al. 1997). These templates are constantly reinforced by matching the articulatory sensation with the acoustic output and also by comparing the output against the auditory input by other speakers. When non-native speech is encountered, the system needs to make adaptations and this may be the main challenge in acquiring non-native speech sounds.

According to the formulations of the traditional Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), the phonetic foreign language learning difficulties result from the categorical differences between the native and the target speech sound systems. In particular, cases of under-differentiation were considered especially problematic, since in these situations the learner is unable to perceive – and thus produce – a contrast that is phonemic in the target language but phonetic, i.e. redundant, in the native language (Weinreich, 1953; Lado, 1957). Modern theories and models of non-native acquisition maintain these ideas. According to the Speech Learning Model (SLM, Flege, 1987), the second language (L2) speech sounds can have three types of relations with the native language (L1): Firstly, the sounds can be *Identical*, in which case there are no learning difficulties. Secondly, the L2 sound can be totally *New*, and then production difficulties are at maximum in the beginning stages of learning, but they can be overcome with effort. Thirdly, the relation can be of the type *Similar*, which implies persistent learning difficulties, since the target sounds are misinterpreted as being the same as in the mother tongue. This case bears a close resemblance to the situation of under-differentiation by earlier theories. Despite the more motoric or gestural background of the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM, Best & Strange, 1992),

the same premises are valid in this formulation as well. The relation between the L1 and L2 sound system is in the core of the model, and the categories are described in terms of assimilatory patterns. Again as the *Identical* type in SLM, one pattern describes a setting, where there are no learning difficulties, i.e. when the phonemes contrasting in the L2 are assimilated into two separate L1 phonemes in the same manner. Also, intermediate difficulties are seen in cases where the L2 phonemes do not assimilate to any L1 categories and this is clearly closely related to the *New* category in SLM. Most importantly, there are two types of problematic assimilation patterns, firstly, a case where two L2 phonemes are assimilated unequally into one L1 category, and secondly, a pattern where these two L2 categories assimilate equally well into a single L1 phoneme. The last pattern is considered to result in major learning difficulties, since the learner does not even perceive category goodness difference between the two contrasting speech sounds. These two are linked with the type *Similar* in SLM and have their roots obviously in the concept on under-differentiation (Weinreich, 1953). Another approach to the role of the mother tongue in non-native speech learning is formulated by the Native Language Magnet Model (NLM, Kuhl, 1991). In the NLM framework, the emphasis is not on designing a typology for possible differences. Instead, the idea is that the perceptual magnets, i.e. category prototypes, developed in early infancy for the L1 categories, dominate perception and discrepancies between the prototypical exemplars in different languages result in misperceptions. In conclusion, irrespective of the theoretical formulation, it is evident that the role of the mother tongue phonology in non-native speech sound acquisition is significant and major difficulties arise when categorical distinctions are done in different ways.

Earlier research has shown that, despite the problems caused by the native system, learners are able to overcome the difficulties. Children have been shown to be plastic in perceptual reorganisation both when exposure is given in training (Giannakopoulou, Uther & Ylinen, 2013; Taimi, Alku, Kujala, Näätänen & Peltola, M. S., 2014a) or in early immersion programme (Cheour, Shestakova, Alku, Ceponiene & Näätänen, 2002; Peltola, M. S., Kuntola, Tamminen, Hämäläinen & Aaltonen, 2005). Child learners have also been shown to alter their production patterns with a *listen and repeat*-training (Taimi, Jähi, Alku & Peltola, M.S., 2014b), but senior learners are reported to also show production plasticity when trained with the same method (Jähi, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015). Adult learners have shown neural plasticity in cases of immigration (Winkler et al., 1999), classroom learning settings (Peltola, M. S., Tamminen, Toivonen, Kujala & Näätänen, 2012) and training in laboratory (Tamminen, Peltola, M. S., Kujala & Näätänen, 2015), and training has also resulted in improved behavioural perception scores (Iverson & Evans, 2009). Production learning has been reported in immigrants (Flege, Bohn, & Jang, 1997), classroom learners (Peltola, M. S., Lintunen & Tamminen, 2014) and training participants (Iverson, Pinet & Evans, 2012; Saloranta, Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015; Peltola; K. U., Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015). Within the training studies showing production learning in adult learners, several variations in the training methods emerge: Iverson, Pinet & Evans (2012) used a high variability training protocol for less and more experienced language learners and showed similar production plasticity for both groups. In contrast, Peltola, K. U., Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S. (2015) utilised a *listen and repeat*-training system with an additional visual cue in the form of either transcription or orthography and only one acoustic exemplar per category. Their study showed that misleading orthography prevented production learning and that the visual channel seemed to dominate attention. Saloranta, Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S. (2015) used the same stimulus setting as Peltola, K. U., Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S. (2015), but in that study additional overt production instructions were provided and the results showed immediate production changes toward the acoustic target stimuli. It thus seems that, despite the difficulties imposed by the native system, learners may adopt new perceptual and production patterns in various learning settings.

The aim of this study was two-fold: Firstly, the objective was to see whether a very brief and simple *listen and repeat*-training protocol would enable learners to adopt new production patterns. Secondly and more importantly, the purpose was to investigate whether the mother tongue speech sound system would be reflected in the training outcomes. Earlier studies using the same stimulus set have utilised a two-day training protocol with twice the amount of exposure to the target stimuli (Peltola, K. U., Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015; Saloranta, Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015). These studies have shown clear learning effects, and therefore it is of interest to seek the minimum amount of training needed to induce production changes. In addition, these earlier studies have been conducted on native speakers of Finnish, and thus it is not possible to see the effects of the native system. In this study, the one-day protocol was identically presented not only to Finnish learners but also to native speakers of American English (AmE). The experiments were carried out in two countries to diminish the possibility of exposure to the target stimuli. In Finnish, the target stimulus /ʉ/ embedded in the pseudo-word context is non-phonemic and it assimilates either to the Finnish category /y/ or /u/. The other stimulus /y/ in the learning paradigm serves as a contrast vowel for Finns, since it is a native phoneme. For American English speakers, the setting is different: both stimuli are considered as actual targets, since the contrast is altogether non-phonemic in AmE. Thus the learning setting is significantly different depending on the mother tongue.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Subjects

Two groups of adult subjects participated in the production experiments and training. All subjects gave a written consent prior to testing. Group 1 (native Finns) consisted of 10 native speakers of Finnish (mean age 24.6 years, 5 females). None of the subjects studied foreign languages nor had lived in any other Nordic country except for Finland. They all were exposed to English via both the school system and the media and they also had minimal exposure to Swedish, since all Finns are required to study basic Swedish skills in secondary school. However, the subjects self-reported their proficiency level to be 1.7 on average (scale 0=non to 4=excellent), indicating a rather low proficiency. In contrast, Group 2 (native AmE) contained 9 (mean age 42.6 years, 2 females) native speakers of Western dialect American English, spoken in Sacramento, California. The subjects self-reported to have no prior exposure to Swedish and 5 indicated to have some basic knowledge of Spanish. All subjects in both groups reported to have a normal hearing and none of them suffered from any linguistic deficits. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Turku, Finland.

B. Procedure

The subjects participated in the study during one day and the whole procedure lasted for approximately 15-20 minutes. Native Finns were tested in a sound attenuated laboratory room (Learning, Age and Bilingualism laboratory, LAB-lab), where the subject sat alone. The stimuli were presented via Sanako Headset SLH-07 and registered with Sanako Lab 100 –soft/hardware. The native AmE subjects were tested using Sanako Study Students 7.20 (7.20.030508.00) software attached to a laptop (Della Latitude E7240) and Beyerdynamic MMX 300 headset. The recordings were not performed in laboratory conditions, but due to the high quality microphone, the obtained data was of extremely high quality and comparable to that obtained in LAB-laboratory.

The experiment began with background scanning (age, foreign language skills obtained in school, linguistic knowledge etc.) followed by a baseline recording during which the subjects listened to word stimuli and repeated according to the provided model. After the baseline recording, the subjects performed the training block which was followed by the second recording. Altogether, the protocol consisted of two recordings (baseline and final) and one training block. The recordings contained the target/non-target word /ty:ti/ 10 times and the target word /tʉ:ti/ 10 times in turns, while the training consisted of 30 repetitions of each. The interstimulus interval (ISI) was 3 seconds, during which the subjects imitated the stimulus words according to the provided auditory model. Since the experiment was short in duration, the test subjects did not show any signs of fatigue.

C. Stimuli

The stimuli were created using a semi-synthetic method, which allows for complete controlling of the acoustic quality of the stimuli. The glottal pulse extracted from a real speaker ensures the natural human sounding element (Alku, Tiitinen & Näätänen, 1999). The relevant quality difference in the stimulus words was on the first syllable vowel, while the carrier pseudo-word was fixed. The stimulus /ty:ti/ contained the rounded close front vowel /y/ (mid-point F1: 269 Hz, F2: 1866 Hz, F3: 2518 Hz), which is a frequent speech sound in Finnish, but does not form a phoneme category in English. Thus this stimulus was a non-target word for Finns, but a target for native AmE speakers. The stimulus word /tʉ:ti/ was a target word for both groups, since this rounded close central vowel /ʉ/ (mid-point F1: 338 Hz, F2: 1258 Hz, F3: 2177 Hz) does not form a category in either language. The fundamental frequency (F0) was 126 Hz in the first syllable vowel and the duration of both stimuli was 624 ms. The same stimuli were used in earlier studies and a more detailed description is given in Taimi, Jähi, Alku & Peltola, M. S. (2014b).

D. Analysis

The acoustic analysis involved measuring formant frequency (F1, F2, F3) and fundamental frequency (F0) values of all recorded words by all subjects. Speech data consisted altogether of 760 productions. From this, 400 productions were recorded from Finnish subjects (20 words x 10 subjects x 2 measurements) and 360 from native speakers of English (20 words x 9 subjects x 2 measurements). The formant frequencies were extracted using Praat software (version 5.4.21) and the frequencies were measured from the estimated steady-state phase visible in the spectrogram. In addition, we calculated the standard deviation value for each formant. The F1 and F2 values as well as the standard deviations for these formants were subjected to Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) using SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics, version 22). Further post hoc tests were performed when appropriate. Fundamental frequency values were not statistically analysed in this study.

III. RESULTS

The formant frequency data was first analysed using a Group (2) x Session (2) x Word (2) x Measure (2) Repeated measures ANOVA, which merely suggested a tendency for interaction between Word and Group ($f(1,17)=4.220$, $p=0.056$). In order to examine this further, One-way ANOVAs were performed. These analyses showed a significant main effect of Group in the F1 values of the vowel /ʉ/ both in the baseline session ($f(1,18)=5.805$, $p=0.028$) and after training ($f(1,18)=8.700$, $p=0,009$) indicating that two groups produced the target vowel /ʉ/ with different F1 values to begin with and that the difference was evident also post-training. The Groups differed also in their production of the /y/ F1 value in the baseline measurement ($f(18)=5.191$, $p=0.036$), but this difference disappeared as a result of training. A closer examination of the data was executed by running t-tests on the groups separately. The analysis showed that the

native Finnish Group was able to produce the two words with different F1 values in the baseline measurement (t(9)=2.309, p=0.046) as well as after training (t(9)=4.208, p=0.002) and the same was valid for the F2 values in baseline (t(9)=-5.925, p<0.001) and post-training (t(9)=-5.930, p<0.001). The Group of American English speakers also produced the two target words with different acoustic patterns and the analysis for F1 reached significance both prior to (t(8)=2.496, p=0.037) and after (t(8)=3.612, p=0.007) training. This was the case also with the F2 values (baseline t(8)=-4.599, p=0.002) and post training t(8)=-3.777, p=0.005). These findings clearly showed that both groups were able to produce the stimuli with different acoustic qualities already before training. However, the groups differed in the manner in which they produced the target vowel /ʉ/ since native Finns produced higher F1 values. In addition, it seems evident that the groups changed their productions slightly, since the pre-training difference in /y/ F1 values disappeared as a function of training. The average formant values for both groups and sessions are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.

	Finnish group N=10				English group N=9			
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
/ʉ/ S1F1	312	463	405.5	44.7	318	412	361.3	33.7
/ʉ/ S1F2	1027	1913	1486	264.8	1330	1892	1611.7	162.8
/ʉ/ S2F1	360	464	408.5	34.5	316	404	363.2	32.2
/ʉ/ S2F2	999	1944	1467.3	334.6	1473	1769	1621.9	89
/y/S1F1	321	451	390	38.9	289	402	350.3	36.7
/y/ S1F2	1581	2113	1844.7	197.6	1630	2198	1841.2	176.9
/y/ S2F1	324	458	386.5	42.1	290	388	349.7	35.5
/y/ S2F2	1572	2162	1861.3	208.3	1669	2092	1847.4	147.8

Descriptive statistics of the formant values (Hz) of the both groups. S1 and S2 refer to the first and second recording session, respectively. F1 and F2 refer to the first and second formant, respectively.

The standard deviation analysis revealed some significant differences both between the sessions and groups. The Group (2) x Session (2) x Word (2) x Measure (2) Omnibus ANOVA revealed a Word x Measure interaction (f(1,17)=12.651, p=0.002) indicating that the standard deviation values in the target vowels were differently distributed over the two measured formants. More importantly, the main effect of Session was found (f(1,17)=4.704, p=0.045), which showed that the standard deviation values significantly changed as a result of training. The most interesting finding was the triple interaction between Group, Word and Measure, signaling a difference in the deviation values of the groups in the two words. In addition, a Word x Group interaction (f(1,17)=9.168, p=0.008) strengthened this existence of a group difference. A further Group (2) x Session (2) x Measure (2) analysis was performed on the two words separately. The analysis on the word /ty:ti/ revealed a Group x Measure interaction (f(1,17)=6.786, p=0.018) and yet a further One-Way ANOVA analysis showed this to be due to a Group difference in the standard deviation values for F2 in the baseline (f(1,18)=5.252, p=0.035) and post-training (f(1,18)=5.237, p=0.035) measurements. This analysis showed no statistically significant differences in the standard deviation values of the target word /tʉ:ti/. Separate paired-samples t-tests for both Groups were performed in order to examine the findings in more detail. These analyses yielded no differences in the deviation within the English speaking Group. However, the Finnish Group showed a significant difference in the standard deviation of the F2 values for /ty:ti/ and /tʉ:ti/ both in the baseline (t(9)=2.939, p=0.017) and post-training (t(9)=3.342, p=0.009). It seems evident that the groups differed in the level of hesitation and this difference was connected with the F2 standard deviation values. Native Finns showed minor deviation values for the vowel /y/ in comparison with the American English speakers, but the deviation values were similar in the target vowel /ʉ/. The average standard deviations are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.

	Finnish group N=10			English group N=9		
	Min	Max	Mean	Min	Max	Mean
/ʉ/ S1F1	10	56	22.4	10	26	15.8
/ʉ/ S1F2	42	524	195.2	43	166	119.7
/ʉ/ S2F1	11	22	15.6	7	22	15.1
/ʉ/ S2F2	59	264	125.2	52	219	94.1
/y/S1F1	7	26	16.5	9	30	19.7
/y/ S1F2	28	90	53	28	282	111
/y/ S2F1	9	29	17	11	38	18
/y/ S2F2	21	103	57.5	61	142	81.7

Descriptive statistics of the standard deviation values (Hz) of the both groups.
S1 and S2 refer to the first and second recording session, respectively. F1 and F2 refer to the first and second formant, respectively.

IV. DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted in order to see, how native speakers of two non-related and phonetically distant languages learn a non-native speech sound contrast. The study utilised a well-documented learning protocol (e.g. Taimi,

Jähi, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2014b; Peltola, K. U., Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015; Saloranta, Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015), where learners were trained to listen and repeat vowels embedded in pseudo-word contexts. In earlier studies trainings have been longer (two days and four training blocks) and the subjects have all been native speakers of Finnish. Thus the present study tested the potential effects of extremely short exposure of merely one training session and, more importantly, the role of different native languages. The hypothesis was two-fold: Firstly, it is possible that even a short training session may alter productions, which would indicate strong and quick plasticity. Secondly, it may be that the native language prevails and that more training is needed to overcome the mother tongue strength. The results of the analysis seemed to indicate both possibilities. The finding that the groups differed in their vowel /y/ F1 values in the baseline session but not after the training, may indicate that some learning has occurred. Also, the overall reduction of standard deviation in both groups suggests that the productions became less hesitant and the learners started to produce the vowels more homogeneously. In contrast, the general result that the groups produced different kinds of formant values altogether gives strong support on the power of the mother tongue. In addition, the fact that the standard deviation values were different in the vowel /y/ in the two groups gives further evidence of the native language strength. This finding shows clearly that the mother tongue sound system affects productions even after training, since Finns familiar with the vowel /y/ showed smaller deviations for this sound in comparison with the non-native /ʉ/. In line with this, the deviations were equally extensive for both target vowels in the American English speakers for whom both stimuli contained non-native vowels. Altogether, the results showed that the articulatory patterns responsible for the native speech sound production prevail and that a short *listen and repeat* training does not provide sufficient amount of practise for learning new motoric gestures. However, it seems evident on the basis of the standard deviation analysis that the subjects in both groups started to adjust their productions towards the model, thus indicating a beginning phase in motoric learning. This may suggest that, with more training, articulation could change. Most importantly, our results clearly show how significantly the native speech sound system affects the production of foreign speech. This finding has implications also to the way in which non-native speech production may be taught to native speakers of various languages. In addition, the results give rise to speculations concerning the way in which theories of non-native speech sounds acquisition could be modulated.

Theories of non-native speech sound acquisition (Flege, 1987; Best & Strange, 1992; Kuhl, Williams, Lacerda, Stevens & Lindblom, 1992) argue that the manner in which the non-native categories are perceived on the basis of the mother tongue has a decisive role in the amount of learning difficulties encountered. This is certainly valid and several studies have indicated towards this interpretation in perceptual (e.g. Tyler, Best, Faber & Levitt, 2014) and production experiments (e.g. Peltola, M. S., Lintunen & Tamminen, 2014) and many studies have discussed both aspects of speech communication (Flege, Bohn & Jang, 1997; Ingram & Park, 1997). This is based on the idea that perception is difficult in cases of under-differentiation (Weinreich 1953, Lado 1957). In more modern terms, difficulties arise when the target speech sounds are of the type Similar according to the Speech Learning Model (Flege, 1987) or if the assimilation pattern is of the type Single Category assimilation or Category Goodness in Perceptual Assimilation Model (Best, 1995). However, when two languages such as Finnish and American English are contrasted, the setting may be less simplistic and the interpretation may be different depending on whether looking at perception or production. For Finns there are two alternatives on how the target vowel /ʉ/ is perceived: in terms of SLM, it may be Similar to /y/ or /u/, in the latter case it would be easy to discriminate from the contrasting stimulus /y/, but in the former case it would be extremely difficult to discriminate from /y/. From the point of view of PAM, the /y/ - /ʉ/ contrast may show a Single Category assimilation so that both are perceived as exemplars of /y/, but with different goodness ratings, or it could be of the type Two-Category Assimilation with /ʉ/ representing a poor version of /u/. In the latter case, no difficulties should arise, while in the former, extreme problems are anticipated. For native speakers of American English, the situation is different. Both vowels are of the type Similar in SLM terms and with PAM it can be analysed as representing a case of either Single Category assimilation or Both Uncategorizable. In the latter case intermediate difficulties are expected, while in the former severe problems should persist. From the point of view of the present study, it seems that the analyses need to be of the type where extreme difficulties should arise, since the new learning outcomes were almost non-existent. On the other hand – and most importantly – is it actually of significance to know which pattern of assimilation is correct, since the learners need to acquire production patterns in any case? It certainly is difficult, if the subjects do not even hear a difference in the two stimuli that need to be learned, but apart from this initial problem, it may well be that the main issue is the creation of a new motoric command pattern. In other words, whether the target vowel /ʉ/ is Similar, Single Category, Category Goodness or Uncategorizable, in order to learn to produce it according to the model, articulation needs to change. Thus it may be that the predictions of the models of non-native speech acquisition do not function as accurately in production learning as they do in perceptual learning.

Contrastive studies have the potential of providing further knowledge on how the native language may play a role in non-native speech learning. It may well be that different kinds of trainings may function better in speakers of different mother tongues and further study is needed to shed light into this question. However, it becomes clear form our study that the role of the mother tongue is strong, it governs the production of target speech sounds and short training cannot overcome the life-long exposure and established production patterns. However, training seems to start affecting productions slightly and thus even short exposure may be beneficial for students of foreign languages. Theoretically, it may be that while the connection of production and perception is evident, in non-native speech learning models the two

sides of the coin could in fact work differently: perceptual patterns explain persistent perceptual problems, but motor patterns need to be learned for all types of non-native sounds.

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Communicative Language Teaching Strategies for German as a Foreign Language in Uganda

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Abstract—**The communicative language teaching (CLT) approach emphasizes the change in the role of the teacher from a transmitter of knowledge to a facilitator of language learning. Teachers must therefore, develop and utilize teaching strategies that enable learners to freely interact in a classroom environment to enhance the required communicative competences. However, in the Ugandan context where the curriculum is examination-driven, teacher competence is judged on the basis of students' excellence in the final examinations. As such, teachers tend to focus on producing better grades, thereby neglecting learners' acquisition of vital communicative competences. This paper spells out the teaching strategies teachers of German use to create a supportive environment for communicative language teaching and learning. A cross sectional survey research design was used in the study. Questionnaires, observations, and semi-structured interviews were used to gather data on teachers' experiences regarding the teaching strategies used to support CLT approach. Findings revealed that the teaching strategies utilised by the teachers of German had very little bearing on the CLT approach. For instance, the classroom environment did not encourage free interaction among learners as required by the CLT approach. It was recommended that teachers be introduced to teaching strategies that are relevant to the CLT approach during their pre-and in-service training.**

Index Terms—**communicative language teaching strategies, communicative competences, German, teaching-learning environment**

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is based on the concept of communicative competence by which learners are expected to possess the ability to understand a language and be able to use it for the purposes of effective communication. Ultimately, in order for learners to learn how a language is used in real-life situations, the teaching-learning environment has to be organized in such a way that it closely reflects, as much as possible, the real-life situation outside the classroom. The teaching-learning environment in CLT, therefore, entails the choice of teaching strategies that would engage learners in active language production within the classroom. As such, teaching strategies focus on tasks and activities that should reflect the actual use of language in real-life situations. Teaching strategies may include tasks that encourage learners' exchange of ideas through free interaction, such as group work, and pair work. The choice of teaching strategies in the CLT approach is based on the communicative competence model put forward by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) as well as acknowledged by several scholars such as Irvine-Niakaris (1997) and Sekiziyivu and Mugimu (2015).

According to Canale and Swain (1980) the model emphasizes the following competencies:
• Linguistic/grammatical competence
• Sociolinguistic competence
• Discourse competence
• Strategic competence

Canale (1983, pp. 6-9) defines the four communicative competences as follows; *Linguistic/grammatical competence* refers to the extent to which mastery of the language code has occurred, including vocabulary knowledge, word formation, syntax, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics. *Sociolinguistic competence* refers to mastery of the socio-cultural rules of language use and rules of discourse; [i.e.] the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately… depending on contextual factors [such as] , the status of participants, the purpose of the communication and the conventions associated with the context. *Discourse competence* refers to mastery of "how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text", [which is] suitable to the genre; including use of cohesion and coherence. *Strategic competence* refers to mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies employed during the breakdown in communication or when [an individual] lacks any of the competencies to communicate effectively.

Thus, the concept of communicative competence brings out the importance of such fundamental aspects of language use which include; knowledge of language forms (grammar), appropriate use of language, given the social contexts, use of cohesion and coherence devices, and knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for any language deficiencies. The goal of teaching strategies for a language, therefore, has to focus on the achievement of these articulated communicative competencies. In this regard, different scholars have come up with theories outlining the underlying features of the CLT approach.

For instance, D. Nunan (1991) in Butler (2005, p. 424) proposed the theoretical framework of CLT could be characterized as:
- a focus on communication through interaction;
- the use of authentic instructional materials;
- a focus on the learning process as well as the language itself;
- belief that learners' own experiences can contribute to learning; and
- A linkage between language learning in the classroom and real-life activities.

Therefore, by drawing on Nunan's theoretical framework, the teacher can operationalize and develop teaching strategies that address vital communicative aspects of language use. We find this framework ideal in enhancing learners' communicative competences if the teacher is able to integrate and apply all the mentioned characteristics into their teaching strategies. As such, this framework should be part and parcel of the training and support for teachers of language. Failure to give teachers this needed training and support would result into difficulties in assisting learners acquire the desired language communicative competences.

Indeed, Widdowson (1972) points out that the root of the problem to the learners' deficiency in their ability to actually use the language lies in the teaching strategy itself. Teaching strategies are extremely vital in learners' acquisition of communicative competences. This is not surprising because the way learners are taught to use the language, is the very way they would use it even in real-life situations. Teachers therefore have to take into consideration the purpose for language learning and employ appropriate teaching strategies that would easily help them achieve the desired objective. The role of the teacher and learner is vital and calls for serious attention.

What are the roles of the teacher and learner in a communicative language classroom?

As observed by Snow (1996) learners learn effectively about language when they take part actively in the communication of the language rather than only passively accepting what the teacher said. As such, Littlewood (2014, p. 352) *argue that*

To implement these new practical demands teachers have had to make major changes and attitudes – to change their conception of their own role from that of a transmitter of knowledge to that of a multi-role educator, and to change their conception of language learning from one based on language acquisition to one based on the holistic development of competence.

It is therefore expected that in an ideal communicative classroom, learners are not mere recipients of the language produced by the teacher, but they are active participants in the actual language production. This further implies that the teacher is no longer a mere instructor but a facilitator in the process of language production. Hence, there is a paradigm shift in terms of the changing teacher's role within a communicative classroom.

This is also in line with Jin, Singh, and Li (2005, p. 7) who suggests that "the major task of the teacher is to create a learning environment or a setting for learners to acquire language by using it through activities in class." This implies that the teacher has to organise such activities that would engage learners into active free interaction with one another and with the teacher, thus, avoiding the over emphasis on teaching grammatical structures while ignoring free communication and interaction. This remains to be a challenge in the context of large classes and the realities of creating supportive environments for ensuring learners' active communication in such situations is questionable.

Furthermore, Widdowson (1978) points out that an overemphasis on grammar would prevent the learners from developing the basic communicative competence. This challenges the creativity and innovation of the teachers in terms of utilizing a variety of teaching strategies.

Richards and Rodgers (1987, p. 76) noted that;

The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative competence approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing.

It is surprising that though there are unlimited exercise types and activities as indicated by Richards et. al, majority of teachers are unable to exercise their creativity in utilizing appropriate teaching strategies – i.e. tasks and activities. Indeed, many teachers fail to integrate the four language skills i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing as required. Yet, teachers should play a significant role in facilitating language learning in meaningful ways (Sreehari, 2012).

In fact, D. Nunan (1989) cited in Sekiziyivu and Mugimu (2015, p. 45) notes that teachers should, while designing activities, consider all the skills, co-jointly as they interact with each other in natural behaviour, for in real-life as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill. This stresses the importance of integrating the four language skills as opposed to teaching each of the skills separately and that communicative language

classrooms have to involve interactive activities that reflect natural language use. There is, therefore, a need for a clear understanding of how skills could be possibly integrated in the case of Uganda, where the learning environment is characterized by lack of authentic instructional materials, existence of large classes, and incidence of German being rare in use (Mugimu & Sekiziyivu, 2016). It is critical to understand whether the language teaching-learning environment allows for the creation of teaching strategies enriched with interactive activities.

However, the need to create supportive teaching-learning environments for enhancing the acquisition of communicative competences in classrooms cannot be underscored. Supportive teaching-learning environments as observed by Wesche and Skehan (2005, p. 208) should generally feature:

• Activities that require frequent interaction among learners or with other interlocutors to exchange information and solve problems.

• Use of authentic (non-pedagogic) texts and communication activities linked to "real world" contexts, often emphasizing links across written and spoken modes and channels.

• Learner-centred approaches which take into account learners' backgrounds, language needs, and goals, and generally allow learners some creativity and role in instructional decisions.

Similarly, Liao (2011, pp. 19-20) suggests that the teacher sets up the communicative situations and motivates learners to participate in such activities as role plays, simulations, and social interactions in a near natural linguistic and social environment to learn to use language for communication. This is in agreement with Sreehari (2012) on types of learning activities and techniques to support CLT.

Figure 1 shows the relationship between communicative competence (CC), communicative language teaching (CLT), teaching strategies, and the teaching-learning environment. We conceptualise that CC is the determinant of both CLT and teaching strategies. Furthermore, the more competent the teacher is in matters of CLT the more likely he/she will be able to use appropriate teaching strategies that support learners' CC. However, all this will be influenced by the teaching-learning environment in which the teacher is operating, which may include; space, availability of authentic materials, examination-driven curriculum, etc. This is in line with Ahmad and Rao (2013, p. 202) finding that "impediments in applying the communicative approach are teacher training, students' hesitation in the use of target language, overcrowded classrooms, grammar-based examinations and the lack of appropriate materials". Coskun (2011) also concurs with Ahmad and Rao.
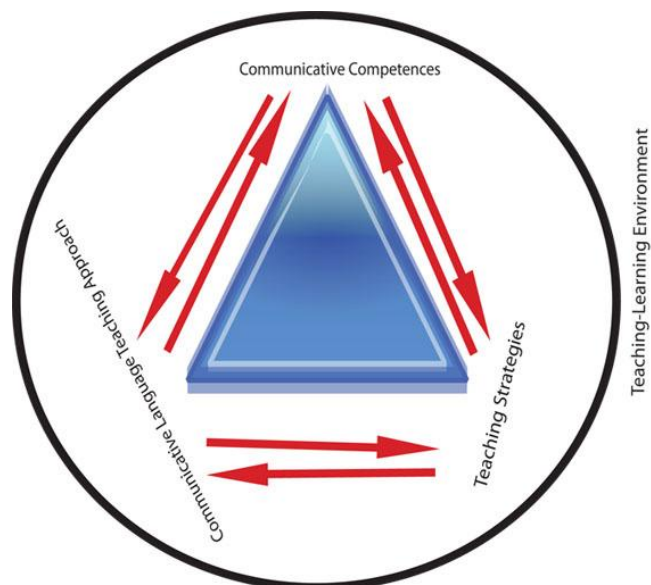
Figure 1. Shows the relationship between communicative competences, communicative teaching approach (CLT), Teaching Strategies, and Teaching-Learning Environment

II. PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine the teaching strategies utilized to support the CLT approach for enhancing learners' communicative competences in German.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) What teaching strategies do teachers say they use in the classroom? 2) Do the teachers actually use the teaching strategies in the classroom?

IV. METHODOLOGY

The study used blended methods that involved collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. We used a cross sectional survey research design in which questionnaires and interviews were utilised to collect data. The sample comprised of 20 secondary school teachers of German in Uganda. Items in the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews probed for the teaching strategies teachers use. The main teaching strategies probed for included: (1) Focus on meaning as opposed to grammar; (2) Learner-centred instruction; (3) Use of pair and small groups; (4) Use of authentic instructional materials; and (5) Integration of language skills.

In addition, classroom observations were carried out to establish whether teachers actually used the mentioned teaching strategies in a manner that was consistent with the CLT approach. To achieve this, the COLT observation scheme by Spada and Frohlich (1995) was adopted and modified to fit the objectives of this study.

V. RESULTS & ANALYSIS

The qualitative data obtained from open-ended questionnaires was organised into common themes and sub-themes. The data collected from interviews was audio-recorded, transcribed, and then categorised according to common themes. The data generated from observations was video recorded and then analysed by comparing with data obtained from other sources. The quantitative data obtained from questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS to generate frequencies, percentages, and charts to gain a better understanding of teachers' experiences in utilizing appropriate teaching strategies that support the CLT approach.

This section presents findings gathered from teachers of German about the teaching strategies they use to support CLT approach. Teachers were probed and observed to understand the teaching strategies they used in the classroom. Figure 2 presents results of the comparison between the teaching strategies teachers say they used and what was observed. Interestingly, the findings in figure 2 show majority of teachers said they used the five highlighted teaching strategies. However, a discrepancy exists between what teaching strategies teachers say they used and what was actually observed by the researchers. For instance, the classroom observation revealed that although many teachers claimed they used these teaching strategies, fewer teachers actually used the strategies in their teaching. This was more evident with "*learner-centered instruction*", *Use of pair and small groups*" and "*Use of authentic instructional materials*". It seems that majority of teachers are actually aware of teacher strategies but surprisingly they are reluctant to use them in their teaching.
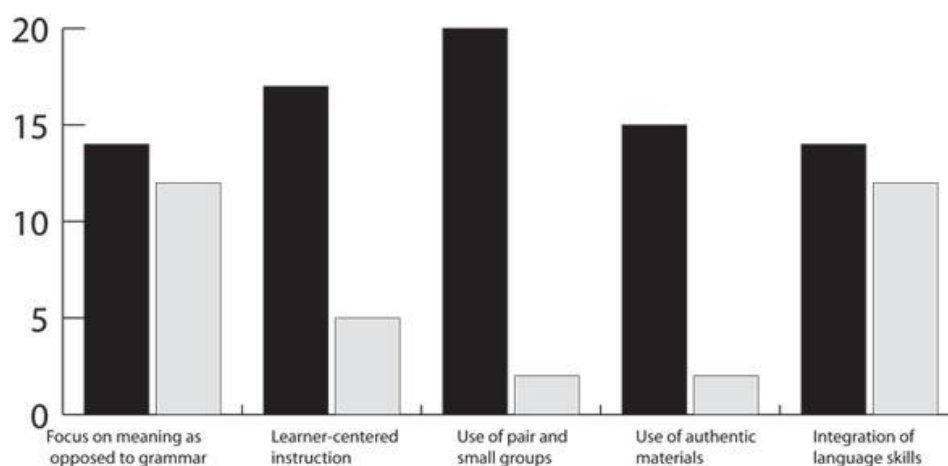
Figure 2 Shows a Comparision Between Teachers' Responses and Researchers' Classroom Observations

The question is; why are teachers not using the teaching strategies they say they use and know are necessary in enhancing the teaching-learning process? What constraints exist in the teaching-learning environment that hinders teachers' use of appropriate teaching strategies? The following section, presents teachers' interview responses on the five teaching strategies i.e. **focus on meaning as opposed to grammar**; **learner-centred instruction**; **use of pair and small groups**; **use of authentic instructional materials** and **integration of language skills**.

Focus on Meaning as Opposed to Grammar

Teachers' responses from interviews revealed that even though the teachers were aware of the need to *focus more on meaning as opposed to grammar*, majority of the teachers put more emphasis on the teaching of grammar. For example, one teacher noted that, *"My lessons always focus on grammar because I feel that it is the basis for improvement in the language. However, I also try to focus on meaning because simply knowing the rules of grammar without putting sentences to use is meaningless. Therefore, I always encourage learners to speak and to write correct grammatical sentences and I always interrupt them in order to correct their grammar" TOG05*

According to the above quotation, it is clear that the teacher attaches more importance to the teaching of grammar at the expense of learners' ability to freely communicate in a real-life situation. In fact the interruption this teacher makes

in order to correct learners' grammatical mistakes is likely to be a hindrance to their free communication as well a de-motivating factor to them.

Even other teachers had similar views about the importance of grammar in German language teaching. For instance, another teacher indicated that: *"You cannot teach a foreign language without emphasizing its grammar. Learners have to grasp grammatical structures first and then learn the meaning and how they can be used in real-life situations" TOG12.* This teacher seems to suggest that he/she could not be able to teach how to use grammar in a communicative context but would rather first lay down the rules of grammar, teach the structures and then, maybe, find a way of practising their use. This would also imply that the production of correct grammatical sentences was preferred to the fluency in the German language. This finding is also consistent with Raissi and Nor (2013, p. 882), observation that majority of teachers believe that equal attention should be given on fluency and accuracy.

Furthermore, another teacher observed that *" learners make a lot of grammatical mistakes. So as a teacher, one has to strive to correct them. As such, a lot of time is spent on correcting learners' grammatical errors and pronunciations" TOG08.* This implies that if so much time is spent on correcting grammatical mistakes, the teacher would have very little time left to engage learners in tasks that involve the use of the language in real-life situations, and therefore, the learners would be more conversant with the structure of the German language than its use in real-life communication.

Learner-Centred Instruction

In our interaction with teachers during the interviews many of them showed awareness of the importance of *learner-centred instruction* and were opposed to teacher–centred forms of instruction. For instance, a teacher noted that, "*A teacher-centred approach is mainly used with the teacher controlling and determining most of the content to be learned, while the learners follow and do what the teacher requires them to do. Which is not good" TOG01.* Surprisingly, this is not consistent with the findings in figure 2, very few teachers actually use learner-centred instructions. What comes out clearly is that some teachers have misconceptions about the use of learner-centred instruction and meeting their roles as teachers. In this regard, one teacher shared that his/her major role was to deliver new information and to determine the content of the lesson as opposed to being a facilitator. This is reflected in the following quotation: *"My main role in class is to deliver the new information and to determine what is to be learned." TOG02.* Teachers' divergent views regarding their role seem to influence the teaching strategies they use in the classroom. Indeed, teacher's ability to play his/her facilitator role is critical in terms of offering the needed students' support and guidance. Liu (2015, p. 1172) argues that "students need occasional guidance to enable them set goals, make choices, or develop interest in various learning tasks and to be more actively involved in learning activities."

Use of Pair and Small Groups

The use of pair and small groups turned out to be the least used teaching strategy as reflected in figure 2. Teachers were probed about the "*Use of pair and small groups*" as a teaching strategy; however, although most of them knew its importance and effectiveness, they had a number of constraints that impacted on their use of the strategy. One of the teachers reported that,

"My classes rarely have pair and small group activities. We mostly use the teacher- fronted approach as well as working in plenary. This is so because of large numbers of learners which are difficult to organise, lack of teaching materials that support learners' work in groups, examination oriented teaching; examinations do not require learners to work in groups, therefore teaching has to orient the learners to the format of the examination" TOG05. This quotation clearly brings out some of the constraints of using pair and small group strategy in their classrooms such as large students' numbers, lack of authentic instructional materials and the examination orientated curriculum. This is consistent with Ngoc and Iwashita (2012, p. 27) who argue that in most cases examinations are designed to test only linguistic competences other than communicative competence. As such, in their attempt to satisfy the demands of parents and students, teachers tend to focus on what will appear on the final examination (Littlewood, 2014). Indeed, much as teachers may be aware of the merits of this kind of classroom organisation, the teaching-learning environment does not necessarily favour them in this respect. For instance, another teacher contends that; "*Most of the class time is spent on listening to the teacher and the learners are carrying out tasks determined by the teacher. In most cases, tasks are carried out individually as opposed to working in pairs or small groups and that sometimes learners play roles, but not often. TOG03.* Consequently, many teachers resort to teacher-centred instruction. This could discourage students' active engagement with learning activities and therefore undermine their motivation to learn and taking responsibility of their own learning (Liu, 2015; Qamar, 2016).

Use of Authentic Instructional Materials

As earlier observed in figure 2 very few teachers actually use authentic instructional materials in their teaching, even though many of them claimed to use them. Further interaction with the teachers during the interview also revealed that lack of authentic instructional materials was a serious constraint. This is reflected in the following quotation: "*I try to use authentic instructional materials but I am limited by unavailability of these materials (i.e. audio-visual like tape recorders, and video) that could foster effective teaching and learning.... I only have a chalkboard and old textbooks". [TOG12].* This gap may actually contribute to teachers' failure to utilise authentic instructional materials in their teaching. Yet, the use of authentic materials serves as a chief aid in creating an authentic context in which learners can develop their communicative competences (Sreehari, 2012, p. 89).

Integration of Language Skills

As regards the integration of language skills, teachers' responses were generally almost in agreement with the researcher observations. A large number of teachers actually tried to integrate the language skills during their teaching. Nonetheless, they were constrained by factors found within the teaching-learning environment. For example, a teacher noted that, *I try to integrate the skills while teaching. However, since most of the materials do not present the four language skills in an integrated manner, I am therefore forced to teach them separately (TOG04).* Another teacher also asserted that: "*I try to integrate the skills during my lessons, but I am limited by unavailability of materials that could foster this. I would need audiovisual materials like tape recorders, and video to achieve this" TOG12.*

The above quotations indicate that the teachers are actually aware of the need to integrate language skills. However, the teaching-learning environment is not favourable, which is in line with Drame (2013)'s assertion that lack of communicative materials considerably complicated the use of communicative methodology. For instance, lack of communicative instructional materials that are designed to enhance the integration of the four language skills, greatly hinders teachers' ability to use an integrated approach to German language teaching. Yet, as clearly illustrated in figure 1 the teaching-learning environment plays a significant role in determining the effectiveness of teaching strategies in CLT approach.

VI. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to examine teaching strategies utilised by teachers of German in Ugandan secondary schools to support the CLT approach. In this section, we discuss salient findings arising from this study based on the two research questions. The first question probed for *what teaching strategies teachers say they use in the classroom*? and the second question is "*do teachers actually use the teaching strategies they say they use in the classroom*? Results from the study have indicated that most teachers actually used the two teaching strategies i.e. "*focus on meaning as opposed to grammar*" and "*integration of language skills.*" Regarding former, although many teachers acknowledge that focusing on meaning is very important, from our interactions with them it is clear that most of them give a lot of weight to grammar. As one teacher observed that, *my lessons always focus on grammar because I feel that it is the basis for improvement in the language .... I always encourage learners to speak and to write correct grammatical sentences and I always interrupt them in order to correct their grammar [TOG05].* Another teacher concurred that *you cannot teach a foreign language without emphasizing its grammar. Learners have to grasp grammatical structures first and then learn the meaning and how they can be used in real-life situations [TOG12].* Indeed, teachers normally select and teach content which emphasizes more of grammatical structures as opposed to meaning. This is in accordance with what Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) also observed in Japanese schools "…that grammar was presented without any context clues… " Yet, as D. Nunan (1991) in Butler (2005, p. 424) puts it, one of the theoretical bases of CLT is to provide a linkage between language learning in the classroom and real-life activities. Consequently, an over-emphasis on the explicit teaching of grammar will produce learners who cannot use the German language effectively for purposes of real-life communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1987).

Findings of this study also revealed that many teachers try to integrate the language skills in their teaching. However, a number of limitations exist within the teaching-learning environments that have undermined their ability to do so. For instance, one of the teachers reported that, "*most of the materials do not present the four language skills in an integrated manner… [we are]…forced to teach them separately" (TOG04).* This is consistent with existing research that the teaching-learning environment in Uganda lacks authentic instructional materials which undermines the integration of language skills as needed (Mugimu & Sekiziyivu, 2016).

Therefore, lack of authentic teaching materials that are designed to integrate the four language skills becomes a hindrance to the use of an integrated approach to German language teaching. Yet, as stated by D. Nunan (1989), in real-life, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macro skill. As such, the importance of the integration of language skills in the teaching of communicative German language use, in order to mirror real-life language use cannot be overemphasized. This is so because, when learners complete their education, they will be expected to find, within the real-life context, opportunities for integrated use of the language skills. This implies that, first; the learners taught in such circumstances will have problems in using the language freely in real-life situations where the integration of skills is the norm. Second, the learners' creativity and motivation to practice or try out new things as far as language skills acquisition is concerned will also be undermined. Yet, the use of CLT approach has been found to increase motivation for learning (Ahmad & Rao, 2013). In fact, Qamar (2016, p. 297) study revealed that "the seeds of proficient speaking are best sawed in a learner centred classroom where learners are allowed to assume greater control over their own learning." Thus, efforts must be made to ensure that supportive teaching-learning environments are created to enable the effective integration of language skills.

As earlier indicated, there was inconsistence in some cases between what teaching strategies teachers said they used and what they actually used in the classroom. Our classroom observations revealed that although many teachers claimed that they used certain teaching strategies, fewer teachers actually used them in their actual teaching. For instance, the teaching strategies, such as; "*learner-centered instruction*", *Use of pair and small groups*" and "*Use of authentic instructional materials*" are the most affected. Very few teachers used the three teaching strategies in their actual teaching, yet, they are aware of their importance as reflected in figure 2. For instance, investigations in all the language classes revealed that instruction of German was based on a very high degree of teacher-centeredness as opposed to a

situation where learners initiate discourse the way it is supposed to be in real-life language use. In fact, Sreehari (2012, p. 90) contends that the type of activities that take place in the classroom can indicate the teaching-learning situation is teacher dominated or learner-centered. The fact that language learning was so controlled by the teacher, it was difficult for the learners to learn to use the language the way it is found in a natural real-life setting. This is contrary to the importance of classroom organisation in the communicative approach to teaching (D. Nunan, 1991). Similarly, teachers seem to know the benefits of organizing the class in groups, but they are not doing it. Yet, it is evident that use of pair and small groups empowers learners to take control of their own learning and is bound to produce learners who are able to communicate effectively in real-life situations. Regarding the use of authentic materials, teachers' awareness was high; however, the lack of these materials constrained teachers' use. Yet, as observed by Tomlinson (2012, p. 161) *many researchers argue that explicit teaching of language through contrived examples and texts does not prepare them for the reality of language use outside the classroom.* Therefore, it becomes very difficult to implement communicative language teaching in such a situation, where the teaching –learning environment was not so supportive.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study provide concrete evidence on what teaching strategies teachers say they use and what they actually use. We found out that many teachers utilised both *focus on meaning as opposed to grammar* and *integrated language* skills. What comes out clearly is that proper acquisition of basic communicative competences as required by the CLT approach may require simultaneous emphasis on both grammar and meaning (Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012). Otherwise, an overly focus on grammar does not work well, given that the two strategies are complementary to each other. Teachers should be encouraged to concurrently focus on both teaching strategies in their teaching. In the same vein, the integration of language skills is extremely vital and findings of this study revealed that many teachers actually make an effort to integrate language skills as needed. However, the teaching-learning environment is constrained in terms of scarce instructional materials especially integrated textbooks. Therefore, the Ministry of Education Science Technology and Sports should ensure that integrated German textbooks and other authentic instructional materials are made available in all schools. These authentic instructional materials could also be developed by teachers themselves as suggested in Mugimu and Sekiziyivu (2016).

As regards learner-centred instructions – it was noted that many teachers have misconceptions about this strategy. Teachers are aware that learner-centred instructions are vital to language learning, but, they continue to be key players in classroom instruction. This undermines the acquisition of learners' communicative competences as needed to become effective communicators in real life situations. Yet, in the CLT perspective learners must take responsibility of their own learning by actively being involved in instructional activities and determining the content of the lesson. For instance, learners could be encouraged to engage in free language interaction with peers through the use of pairs and small groups. This could enable them produce language in a way that reflect language use in real-life. Teachers should therefore create realistic contexts of language use, in order to enable learners to select appropriate specific information that is necessary for effective language use in such contexts. While we recognize that teachers of German are aware of the appropriate teaching strategies to support the CLT approach but in some instances, they do not put them to good use due to the unconducive teaching-learning environment as many of them commented. Consequently, if teachers are to teach German using the CLT approach, it is recommended that teacher training institutions emphasize the benefits of this approach especially in terms of promoting language communicative competences in existing contexts. Therefore, teachers must be trained on how to successfully teach using the CLT approach (Ahmad & Rao, 2013) and also other approaches which encourage learners' communicative use of the language.

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Teaching Subtitling at Jordanian Universities: An Untapped Territory

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Abstract—The impact of globalization and the advent of satellite channels and digital technology have played an instrumental role in changing the audiovisual translation scene in Jordan. During the last two decades, the subtitling industry has flourished at an exponential rate as manifested in the number of institutions engaged in this form of translation, the quantity of multimodal texts commissioned for translation and the widening remit of translation activities conducted under the rubric of subtitling. The marked development in the subtitling industry, however, has not received adequate support from the academic institutions in the country. Departments that award undergraduate degrees in translation rarely teach courses in subtitling, and research conducted on the pedagogy of this kind of translation is almost nonexistent. This paper argues that courses in subtitling should be incorporated in the translation studies curricula offered at Jordanian universities not because these courses are an embellishment but because the benefits accrued from teaching this mode of translation are multifaceted. The paper highlights these benefits and examines whether the feedback from students exposed to subtitling activities reflects the importance of integrating this mode of audiovisual translation in BA translation programs offered at Jordanian universities.

Index Terms—audiovisual translation, subtitling, translation studies curricula at Jordanian Universities, subtitling industry in Jordan

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 1990s, a proliferation of academic institutions in Jordan introduced undergraduate programs in translation studies to meet the growing market demand for professional translators. Prior to this shift in perspective, courses in translation offered at the university level were not only taught under the rubric of the English Departments but they also assumed an ancillary role in their curricula. The type of training students received overlooked the importance of theory in translation, and the practical component focused on the production of "acceptable" target language texts.[1]Although the translation skills which students acquired were not multifarious, they were sufficient enough to meet the market demands prevalent at the time.

Such skills, however, gradually became inadequate in the early 90s as Jordan started witnessing the impact of globalization and the advent of satellite channels and digital technology. To provide the workplace with would-be-professional translators that have "more marketable skills," universities had to advocate systematic training in translation, and hence the surge in interest in the discipline of translation studies at Jordanian institutions of Higher Education.

Although the systematic training of translation has come a long way since the instigation of the first BA programs in translation, the translation curricula have failed to keep abreast of the developments which the translation industry has witnessed during the past two decades. The courses are mainly paper-based, teacher-centered and overlook the new technological developments that have started to dominate the translation activities in the workplace.

Against this backdrop, this paper argues that courses in subtitling should be included in the curricula of translation departments at Jordanian universities because the "academization" of this form of translation is expected to equip trainee translators with the skills needed by the flourishing Jordanian audiovisual translation market. It is envisaged that the impact of giving students the skills and training required of audiovisual translators will impinge on all the parties engaged in shaping the subtitling landscape in the country, namely the would-be-professional subtitlers, the translation departments and the subtitling industry. To this effect, the paper examines the multifaceted benefits that can be gained from teaching subtitling to trainee translators and sets out to investigate students' attitudes regarding the usefulness of integrating subtitling courses in their study plans.

II. SUBTITLING: AN OVERVIEW

Subtitling is a form of audiovisual translation. Audiovisual translation is the process of transferring multimodal texts from one language into another. Multimodal texts are unique in that they are made up of a range of "modes" such as sound, dialogue, images, language, movements, gestures, music, and written signs, which the translator has to take into account in the process of translation. The diversified "modes" or "channels" (Gottlieb, 2001) impose certain restrictions on the nature of the transfer process and, in turn, necessitate that audiovisual translators acquire certain skills that enable them to produce an end-product that can be easily assimilated by the receiving viewers.

There are two types of audiovisual translation: the dominant and the challenging or assistive. The former includes interlingual subtitling, dubbing, voice-over, simultaneous interpreting and free commentary. The latter includes modalities, such as intralingual subtitling, audio description and surtitling (Gambier, 2003; Peréz-González, 2014). Although the aforementioned forms of audiovisual translation have found their way into markets in European countries, interlingual subtitling remains the most dominant form of audiovisual translation commissioned in the Arab world (Thawabteh, 2011a; Gamal, 2013).

Interlingual subtitling (henceforth subtitling) involves transferring audio-visual messages in language A into their corresponding written texts in language B; the text in language B is usually presented at the bottom of the screen and has to appear simultaneously with the verbal messages originally expressed in language A.

Unlike the traditional print text-type translation, which renders written texts in the source language into their equivalent written versions in the target language, subtitling works between two "channels" or "modes": the audio-visual on the one hand, and the written on the other. In such a scenario, where the spoken medium is transmitted to the receiving audience in the form of a written medium, subtitling, according to Gottlieb (2004a, p. 220), is considered a "diagonal diasemiotic" translational practice which involves two opposite codes (the spoken vs. the written), and hence stands in contradistinction with the "horizontal isosemiotic" translational practice that is confined to the written channel.

Ostensibly, the "jaywalking from source-language speech to target-language writing" (ibid.) may seem simple, but in reality it is fraught with constraints. Needless to say, rendering the visual and acoustic channels on a limited screen area "solely through writing" (Gottlieb, 2004b, p. 86) creates technical restrictions that dictate the working strategies which subtitlers adopt.

Scholars (Delabastita, 1989; Gottlieb, 1992, 2001; Chiaro, 2009; among others) highlight two technical "constraints" or "restrictions" associated with subtitling: spatial and temporal. The spatial constraints result because subtitles are superimposed on a restricted space area that occupies a pre-set position on the screen. To fulfill these layout standards, subtitles do not usually exceed two lines and each line is made up of 30 to 40 characters (Gottlieb, 2001; Chiaro, 2009; Díaz Cintas & Remael, 2007). The temporal constraints have to do with the exposure time allotted to each subtitled line. Taking into consideration that subtitling involves a shift from the spoken code into the written code, subtitles have to appear simultaneously with the dialogue on the screen, and they have to be left on display "at a pace not exceeding 12 characters per second" to enable viewers to read the subtitles comfortably (Gottlieb, 2004a, p. 219).

The aforementioned technical constraints impose a number of limitations on the amount and nature of information that appears on the screen, and hence the translation strategies adopted by subtitlers. Antonini (2005, p. 213-214) acknowledges that because of these constraints "the subtitler must reduce the translated text by carrying out three main operations: elimination, rendering and simplification." These translation strategies and the technical processes involved in subtitling, such as spotting, cueing, time-coding, editing, proofreading and working knowledge of the software,[2] indicate that subtitlers have to be cognizant of the intricacies of subtitling in order to secure successful reception of the subtitled target texts that they produce. To achieve this goal, future subtitlers have to be provided with systematic training in this domain.

III. THE ACADEMIZATION OF AUDIOVISUAL TRANSLATION

In Europe, scholarly interest in the different forms of audiovisual translation is relatively new. Before the 1990s, audiovisual translation was overlooked by scholars and researchers working in the field of translation studies, and some did not even consider it worthy of study because of the spatial and temporal constraints that dictate the techniques used in the production of the target texts. Some went a step further and considered this activity a form of "adaptation" and not proper translation (Fawcett, 1996; Díaz Cintas, 2008).

The marginalization of audiovisual translation, however, did not persist for long because the audiovisual translation landscape gradually started to witness changes on the academic front as of the mid-1990s (Gambier, 2003; Orero, 2004; Pérez-González, 2014; among others). A number of factors contributed to the change in perspective regarding this form of translation, but the advent of digital technology is considered the most significant (Orero, 2004).

Needles to say, such a development called for the training of specialists in screen translation to meet the growing market demand for this kind of translation. Before long, courses in screen translation or audiovisual translation, as it is referred to today, started to spread in European universities in Spain, Portugal, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Italy, Germany and the UK; institutions in Brazil, India and South Africa followed suit soon after (Kruger, 2008). Not surprisingly, the proliferation of courses in audiovisual translation resulted in an increase in the number of conferences held to discuss the topic, the quantity and quality of academic research published in the field and the academic books made available to academics and researchers involved in the teaching and training of future audiovisual translators (Pérez-González, 2014).

These developments, however, have not been observed within the Arab academic context, and Jordan is no exception. Although the Arab world is considered a high-profile subtitling region, this form of audiovisual translation, as well as other forms, such as dubbing and voice-over, are still largely ignored in the curricula of departments that offer BA degrees in translation studies (Thawabteh, 2011b). Gamal (2013, p. 366-367) states that audiovisual translation is looked upon by "many academics in the Arab world as a European vogue," and hence it remains, to date, an "outlandish" activity in academic circles.[3]

The lack of interest in audiovisual translation, in general, and subtitling, in particular, is clearly attested in the scarcity of taught courses in this field. In Jordan, the translation study programs focus mainly on written translation, with one or two courses in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, and students receive training in translating journalistic, legal, literary, economic, religious and scientific texts after successfully completing two courses in general translation.[4] Out of the twelve universities that offer BA degrees in translation studies, only two teach modules in audiovisual translation, namely Yarmouk University and the German-Jordanian University. Both courses "Translating Films and Documentaries" and "Audiovisual Translation and Electronic Tools" are elective modules which means the respective department is not obliged to offer the course if it deems this necessary. As a result, students majoring in translation studies at the abovementioned universities, like their counterparts in other universities, might graduate without receiving theoretical or practical training in subtitling or any of the forms studied under audiovisual translation.

The modest standing of subtitling at Jordanian universities might be attributed to a number of reasons. First, many of the professors who teach translation are unfamiliar with the technicalities of subtitling and generally express disinterest in this form of translation. Second, academic institutions are not willing to invest in the subtitling software nor are they willing to recruit expertise in the field for a single elective course. Third, the lack of cooperation between academia and the subtitling industry has obscured the growing importance of subtitling in Jordan.

Research in subtitling has not fared any better at Jordanian universities. Academics affiliated to these institutions have not given justice to this form of audiovisual translation. On examining the résumés of thirty academics who teach translation at these universities, it is apparent that research in subtitling, and other modes of audiovisual translation, is not within the realm of their research interests in comparison with the research they have conducted on other issues pertaining to translation studies. Also, a survey of articles published in *Meta: Translators' Journal* and *AWEJ* (*Arab World English Journal*), respectively further confirms the academic circles' disinterest in audiovisual translation since none of the articles published in this area are by scholars who work at Jordanian universities.

It is, therefore, not surprising that in view of the current state of affairs, translation conferences held in Jordan have ignored themes pertaining to subtitling or any other form of audiovisual translation. During the *Fifth International Conference of the Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities* held in 2015, out of the seventeen papers presented under the theme "Language instruction and translation," only one addressed subtitling. Unfortunately, no change in perspective seems imminent; the themes that are to be discussed during the *Sixth International Conference of the Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities* to be held in 2017 do not explicitly address topics associated with audiovisual translation. This is a clear indication that interest in audiovisual translation is lagging behind in Jordan. Unless academics working at the institutions of higher education that offer BA programs in translation studies at Jordanian universities come to the realization that the teaching and training of subtitling can be beneficial to all the parties involved in the field of translation, and act accordingly, the gap between academia and the workplace will continue to grow.

This lack of harmony between academia and the industry needs to be resolved because the subtitling industry in Jordan has been witnessing remarkable changes since 1999 when *Rosetta International*, the first private subtitling company, was launched to meet the pressing need for professional subtitlers. Since its inception, the company has provided subtitling, dubbing and copyediting services to a diversified body of clients and has "successfully and single-handedly established the TV subtitling industry in Jordan" (http://www.rosettainternational.net).

Since 1999, the number of hours commissioned for subtitling in Jordan has increased significantly making Amman "one of the major centres of AVT work in the Arab world today" (Gamal, 2007, p. 126). To meet the number of hours commissioned for subtitling, there has been an increase in the number of companies that specialize in audiovisual translation. Companies like *Captivate Arabia*, *Titras*, *Context Writing Services and Publishing House*, *Jordan Translate Services* and *Dar Ibn Khaldoun for Translation*, among others provide services in subtitling, dubbing and voice-over, and some, like *Captivate Arabia* also offer compliance editing services. These companies subtitle films, documentaries, interviews, news pieces and cartoons and employ full-time, part-time and freelance subtitlers to meet deadlines. Their clients include agencies such as the *Middle East Broadcasting Center* (MBC), *Orbit Showtime Network* (OSN) and *Dubai Media Incorporated* (DMI), to name just a few.

The increase in the number of subtitling companies and the rise in subtitling commissions has created a pressing need for professional subtitlers. According to professionals engaged in the subtitling market, the subtitling industry can provide employability to 70% of the BA translation program graduates if they are well-equipped to meet the demands of the industry; unfortunately, academia has so far failed in fulfilling this end-result. To overcome this daunting situation, the academic circles have to re-evaluate the translation study plans currently offered at the tertiary educational level and consider adding subtitling, and other courses in audiovisual translation, to facilitate the integration of novice translators in the subtitling industry.

IV. Teaching Subtitling to Trainee Translators: A Multifaceted Activity

The peripheral role that subtitling occupies in the translation studies curricula at Jordanian universities indicates academics' and policymakers' indifference to the advantages that can be gained from teaching this mode of translation. In what follows, these advantages are highlighted to arouse interest in subtitling and to pave the way for future empirical research in this field of translation.

A. Initial Training for Future Subtitlers

Although subtitlers have to possess the linguistic, textual, analytical, cultural, and contextual competencies employed by translators working with other modes of translation, subtitlers have an additional burden of applying these competencies "within very rigid constraints of time and space, while adhering to specific conventions of quality and form" (Kruger, 2008, p. 82). Such a setup requires that translators working in subtitling be cognizant of the diversified techniques, strategies and skills involved in the production of subtitled target language texts because as Kruger (ibid.) rightly states "mastering and applying these skills take a long time."

Therefore, introducing one or two subtitling courses in the curricula of translation studies programs can at least equip students with the initial training that will provide them with the insights needed in the workplace. This is of paramount importance for two main reasons. The first reason is that many students do not have a clue about the intricacies of this kind of translation. When I asked fifty third and fourth year students majoring in translation at different universities in Jordan to summarize what they know about subtitling, the answers I received were general in nature. Although all the students (100%) defined subtitling as a form of translation that appears on screens, only 8 (16%) mentioned technical features pertaining to subtitling like "synchronization" and "constraints." The second reason for integrating subtitling courses in translation programs is the feedback received from professionals working in the subtitling industry who have expressed that novice translators do not always have the suitable skills for the subtitling jobs available on the market; consequently, subtitling firms find themselves compelled to give these recruits extensive training before they start their subtitling tasks, which is both costly and time-consuming.

To overcome the aforementioned flaws, the content of a course in subtitling can address both the theoretical and the practical aspects of subtitling, with a suggested ratio of 30% theory and 70% practice. This ratio is in line with the course content of audiovisual translation modules at European universities which "typically favours practice over theory" ((Díaz Cintas & Orero, 2003, p. 372). More emphasis should be given to the practical component because the course should provide students with initial training in subtitling before they join the workforce. A variety of teaching techniques that include lectures, seminars, and both in-class and hands-on practice should be adopted to achieve this aim.

B. Fosters Translation Skills

Research on the pedagogical impact of using subtitling in enhancing trainee translators' translation skills reveals that subtitling can be implemented to foster these skills with the help of authentic subtitled programs and/or subtitle creation exercises (Neves, 2004; Kiraly, 2005; McLoughlin, 2009). The former approach involves adopting authentic, ready-captioned programs in translation exercises, while in the latter approach students produce the subtitled material during and/or outside class hours with the help of subtitling software. Both methods enhance source and target language knowledge, foster text-type awareness, develop critical thinking and translation criticism and improve translation skills (McLoughlin, 2009).

The aforementioned approaches are expected to improve students' translation performance because the subtitling exercises introduce trainee translators to "new" translation strategies frequently employed in the transference of audiovisual texts, and at the same time, enhance the translation skills they had acquired in other translation courses. Students, therefore, practice how to produce comprehensible subtitled texts using an amalgam of translation strategies; in so doing, they see how different translation strategies are interrelated, and how they can be applied to a variety of texts to overcome translation problems. An outcome, as Kruger (2008, p. 87) says, can be fulfilled in "an exciting and engaging way" which endows an added value to courses in subtitling.

Another skill that can be enhanced with the inclusion of subtitling in translator training is translation criticism. When students criticize authentic subtitled programs as well as their own subtitles, subtitling can help in the "critical understanding of the translation process," can "provide criteria of analysis" and can "link that analysis to translation strategies" (McLoughlin, 2009, p. 181). All these skills combined are expected to make students realize that a solid foundation in theory is essential if translators and subtitlers do not want to base their translations on intuition.

Subtitling can also enhance trainee translators' understanding of the notion of genre (McLoughlin, 2009). Since programs that need subtitling include, not only films, but documentaries, interviews, reality TV shows and political speeches, the notion of genre is reiterated during the subtitling process. This is achieved by studying the lexical, structural, textual and pragmatic specificities of the aforementioned genres, and discussing the most suitable translation/subtitling strategies employed in transferring such features between English and Arabic and vice versa.

The importance of audience identification can also be emphasized through subtitling. The audience is a variable that has to be taken into consideration in the process of translating all text-types, but it is of paramount importance in subtitling. Students have to be taught that before they start subtitling, they have to know the audience they are addressing (children vs. adults; specialists vs. laymen) and the impact this has on the subtitling strategies they have to adopt. To this effect, Gambier (2003, p. 185) states that "the requirements of specific groups of viewers might allow the screen translator, for instance, to condense up to 35-40% of a film but less than 20% of a news program." Unless students practice how to achieve such a goal, positive audience reception might be jeopardized. Also, students have to realize that viewers of subtitled films and programs look for "communicative effectiveness and not artistic effect"

(Neves, 2004, p. 135) which entails the use of specific subtitling strategies to ensure "successful" assimilation of the subtitled target text(s) by the receiving audience.

C. Improves Foreign Language Learning

The impact of integrating authentic subtitling programs in foreign language learning (FLL) has been discussed extensively by a number of scholars working with a variety of language combinations. The results of the studies confirm that using subtitling in foreign language classrooms can help improve students' listening comprehension (Danan, 2004), reading comprehension (Bravo, 2008), vocabulary learning (Baltova, 1999) and oral production (Borrás & Lafayette, 1994).

The linguistic rewards gained from using authentic subtitled programs in FLL have encouraged researchers to investigate the usefulness of subtitle insertion activities in FLL classrooms. This has resulted in the introduction of subtitling software programs, like ClipFlair, a free online tool that allows students to learn a foreign language by adding their own subtitles to clips.[5] The activities available simulate semi-professional subtitling environments whereby students use the ClipFlair platform to watch clips and insert their own subtitles based on their knowledge of the target language. Consequently, students practice the foreign language they are studying and become acquainted with the preliminaries of subtitling. The surveys conducted on ClipFlair reaffirm that subtitle insertion activities enhance foreign learners' linguistic skills and improve language learning motivation (Baños & Sokoli, 2015).

Academics at Jordanian universities should take the positive results of integrating subtitling activities in FLL into consideration because the majority of students who specialize in translation at these universities are non-native speakers of English. They study English as a foreign language at school, and generally speaking, the students' receptive and productive skills in the language are average or below average upon joining the specialization; a weakness that can be addressed through training in subtitling.

D. Develops Cultural and Ideological Awareness

Scholars working in the field of translation have repeatedly emphasized that translation is an activity that involves transferring linguistic and cultural entities from one language into another. They have even described translators as "bi-cultural mediators" and as "couriers of culture" (Katan, 1999; Landers, 2001; respectively). These characteristics do not only apply to translators, but to subtitlers as well, who come across a multitude of cultural-specific terms when they have to transfer messages between two divergent cultures, like Arabic and English. Explaining to students, with the help of images and sounds, the recurrent cultural references that appear on audiovisual programs, and choosing the most suitable equivalents in the target language, help in enhancing students' cultural awareness and in the production of a subtitled output that succeeds in meeting the viewers' expectations (Borghetti & Lertola, 2014).

Equally important in subtitling is the translation of ideology. Subtitling political interviews, speeches and programs can develop students' ideological awareness, for they get to see how patronage and political bias work in real life circumstances. Analyzing subtitled political programs, for instance, helps students understand how the political agendas of the commissioning agent(s) dictate the translation strategies used in the act of subtitling; they learn why and under what conditions a term like the "Islamic State" is rendered as □*iṣ abet dāeš* (Daesh Gang) in some contexts, but as *ad-dawla al-islāmiya* (*Islamic State*) in others. This is of paramount importance in professional settings where compliance editing is one of the services offered by subtitling firms.

V. STUDENTS' REFLECTIONS ON THE BENEFITS OF TEACHING SUBTITLING TO TRAINEE TRANSLATORS

A. Methodology

This section explores students' attitudes regarding the benefits of teaching subtitling to trainee translators and the need to incorporate subtitling courses in the translation curricula at Jordanian universities. To fulfill this goal, 20 students majoring in translation at the University of Petra were briefly introduced to the technicalities of subtitling and were given practical subtitling activities as part of a course entitled "Theories of Translation."

The taught material consisted of a theoretical and a practical component. In the theoretical component, students were briefly introduced to a number of points. First, they were introduced to the different kinds of subtitling (interlingual vs. intralingual). Second, the distinctive features that operate in subtitling were explained (spatial and temporal constraints) and the impact these constraints have on the linguistic, semantic, pragmatic and cultural dimensions of the target language text(s) were pointed out. The most common translation strategies employed, such as "reduction," "omission," "neutralization," and "expansion" (Gambier, 2003, p. 183) were discussed and examples of these strategies were analyzed. Third, students were acquainted with the technicalities and conventions of subtitling (synchronization, spotting and segmentation, typeface).

In the practical component, students were asked to watch, analyze and criticize authentic subtitled programs, and they also had to produce their own subtitles. Since twelve contact hours were allotted to the material taught on subtitling, the practical activities were limited and were completed outside the classroom; the students' work, however, was discussed and analyzed during classes. Although students were introduced to the free software program, Subtitle Workshop (version 2.51), and used it for the subtitling tasks, most of the practical activities were done on paper to overcome the

technical problems students encountered. In producing the subtitled print versions, students had to take into consideration the spatial and temporal constraints associated with subtitling.

Upon completion of the theoretical and practical components, students were asked to answer a questionnaire consisting of 12 statements; the three response anchors "Agree," "Don't Know," and "Disagree" were adopted. The statements were structured based on the benefits of teaching subtitling discussed in prior research as well as the theoretical and practical material covered during the implementation of the study. To test the reliability of the students' responses, and to get a clearer picture about the reasons underlying their choices, students' answers were discussed with them on an individual basis. The following statements were used to measure the students' attitudes:

1) Subtitling provides initial training for the workplace
2) Subtitling improves translation skills
3) Subtitling improves translation criticism
4) Subtitling enhances the understanding of the notion of genre
5) Subtitling enhances the understanding of the notion of audience identification
6) Subtitling improves language skills
7) Subtitling improves vocabulary acquisition
8) Subtitling improves listening skills
9) Subtitling improves writing skills
10) Subtitling enhances cultural awareness
11) Subtitling enhances ideological awareness
12) Subtitling courses should be integrated in the BA translation study programs at Jordanian universities

B. Analysis

The students' feedback regarding the benefits gained from teaching subtitling was positive, confirming the results reached in previous research. In what follows, the students' responses are presented in Table 1; then their responses and opinions are discussed.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' REFLECTIONS ON THE BENEFITS OF TEACHING SUBTITLING

	STATEMENTS	AGREE	DON'T KNOW	DISAGREE
1	Subtitling provides initial training for the workplace	15	5	0
2	Subtitling improves translation skills	18	2	0
3	Subtitling improves translation criticism	17	0	3
4	Subtitling enhances the understanding of the notion of genre	10	0	10
5	Subtitling enhances the understanding of the notion of audience identification	0	2	18
6	Subtitling improves language skills	20	0	0
7	Subtitling improves vocabulary acquisition	20	0	0
8	Subtitling improves listening skills	20	0	0
9	Subtitling improves writing skills	11	0	9
10	Subtitling enhances cultural awareness	20	0	0
11	Subtitling enhances ideological awareness	14	0	6
12	Subtitling courses should be incorporated in the BA translation study programs at Jordanian universities	15	0	5

Statement (1)

In their evaluation of the course content and whether they thought the material taught had provided them with initial training for the industry, 15 students (75%) chose "agree" because the activities had introduced them to the "basics" of subtitling. They felt that they would not be a "blank page" if they decided to work for a subtitling firm. The 5 students (25%) who chose "don't know" said they needed to be cognizant of the working conditions to be able to judge the effectiveness of the material taught for the subtitling market.

Statement (2)

18 students (90%) agreed that subtitling exercises can help "fine-tune" their translation skills; the remaining 2 students (10%) said they did not know whether this mode of translation was rewarding in this respect. According to the 18 students, exposure to a variety of ready-captioned programs and subtitle insertion tasks are beneficial for two reasons: (1) they can inadvertently improve students' translation skills since they get to see how subtitlers have tackled translation problems; and (2) engagement in subtitling is, first and foremost, a translation exercise which entails more practice in translation. However, all the students were of the viewpoint that the practical component was more of a "warm-up" exercise that needed to be reinforced in fully-fledged subtitling courses.

Statement (3)

After criticizing a subtitled episode of *National Geographic* in order to identify the good and weak points noted in the Arabic subtitled version, 17 students (85%) expressed that they "agree" that subtitling develops translation criticism, and the remaining 3 (15%) opted for "disagree." The 17 students who thought subtitling can improve translation criticism said the exercise had proved useful on several counts: (1) their critical abilities had been put to the test; (2) they had applied what they had studied in "Theories of Translation" to criticize and correct the weaknesses and/or errors they had identified in the translated output; and (3) correcting the flaws in the Arabic subtitled version had helped them practice translation. The students said that criticizing subtitled products had clarified in a "simple" and "interesting" way how translation theory could provide them with the guidelines needed in solving translation problems. The 3 students who did not think the integration of subtitling had a positive effect on their criticism abilities stated they had encountered problems understanding the English version of the episode, and this had made the exercise difficult to implement and assess.

Statement (4)

As far as genre identification is concerned, 10 students (50%) chose "agree" that subtitling can enhance their understanding of the notion of genre, while 10 students (50%) chose "disagree." The students who opted for "agree" reported that the notion of genre was "easier" to understand, and to tackle in translation, when reference is made to multimodal texts because such texts are "simpler" to translate in comparison with written texts. The students who chose "disagree" said they had always found genre identification difficult, and had disregarded this aspect while working on the subtitling activities. The students' feedback indicates that more attention needs to be given to the notion of genre in the translation courses offered at the department.

Statement (5)

With regards to audience identification, the responses were surprising. 18 students (90%) did not consider subtitling a useful medium for audience identification, for they chose "disagree;" they commented that they had not taken this aspect into consideration when they worked on the subtitling activities. The remaining 2 students (10%) chose "don't know" and were incapable of explaining their choice. The students' responses might be attributed to the fact that the significance of audience identification in the process of translation is ignored in the written translation courses taught at the department.

Statement (6)

To test whether trainee translators' language skills can be consolidated using ready-captioned programs and subtitle insertion activities, the students were given two assignments: (1) to watch four subtitled episodes of *The Doctors;* and (2) to subtitle a ten-minute film scene, interview or news piece. After completing the subtitling activities, all the students (100%) reported that subtitling activities, if well-designed, could be beneficial for language learning.

Statement (7)

There was unanimous agreement among the students that subtitling can improve vocabulary acquisition. All the students (100%) agreed that watching four subtitled episodes of *The Doctors* had added new vocabulary items to their vocabulary repertoire, and they were of the viewpoint that the Arabic subtitles had helped them understand many of the unfamiliar vocabulary items used in the episodes; the activity made them realize that they had an insufficient medical/scientific vocabulary item bank and that they needed to do something about this weakness.

Statement (8)

All the students (100%) agreed that listening can be developed through training in subtitling. Since subtitling relies extensively on listening, students commented that more exposure to a variety of accents and speaking speeds was expected to help them improve their listening skills. They added that listening comprehension related problems had hampered their understanding of the verbal messages conveyed in the programs they had watched, and this had a negative impact on their subtitling performance.

Statement (9)

Students' responses differed concerning the usefulness of adopting subtitling for developing writing skills. Only 11 students (55%) chose "agree," and they pointed out that reproducing the verbal messages in clear writing had been the most difficult activity in the subtitling process since the limitations of space and time made them write and rewrite the subtitles a number of times before they could produce a comprehensible message in the target language. The students' comment is not surprising because subtitling which involves "turning the spoken word into written strings that are rich enough to convey a multitude of meanings and yet simultaneously straightforward and clear" (Neves, 2004, p. 136) requires trainee subtitlers to have a perfect command of the target language; something that many of our future subtitlers do not necessarily possess. The remaining 9 students (45%) who chose "disagree" reported that writing skills could only be improved when students practice writing paragraphs and essays; in their point of view, adding one or two lines did not help in developing their writing skills.

Statement (10)

As far as cultural awareness is concerned, the 20 students (100%) thought that subtitling develops intercultural knowledge. In their opinion, exposure to unfamiliar cultural codes had introduced them to novel cultural terms; it had also made them realize how demanding the translation of culture can be, and the multilayered translation skills subtitlers need to possess to solve many of the cultural mismatches prevalent in texts that need subtitling. 12 students

(60%) said that watching subtitled programs had helped them understand how strategies, like "exoticism," "calque" and "cultural borrowing," which they had been introduced to during the course, had been used in authentic contexts.

Statement (11)

After watching ready-captioned political interviews, 14 students (70%) agreed that subtitling could develop ideological awareness. They reported that subtitling, like other forms of translation, was not always an "innocent" activity, but one that is sometimes governed by a diverse number of political agendas. The subtitled interviews made them realize how commissioning agents can tone down interviewees' point of view, ignore and/or twist their political opinions and use the terms that best suit the commissioning agents' ideological agendas. 6 students (30%) opted for "disagree" because, in their opinion, ideological awareness is "complex" and cannot be "appreciated" via subtitling.

Statement (12)

Based on the subtitling activities conducted during the "Theories of Translation" course, 15 students (75%) were in favor of integrating subtitling courses in the curricula of translation programs at Jordanian universities. They said that the activities had been an eye-opener to the subtleties of subtitling and had "encouraged" them to apply for jobs in the subtitling industry after graduation. The remaining 5 students (25%) said they preferred written translation and "did not really care" if subtitling courses were to be added to their study plans.

Although the students' reflections are based on a study that was conducted over a limited period of time, they reaffirm the multifaceted benefits gained from teaching subtitling to trainee translators. Similar studies are encouraged to further substantiate the importance of teaching subtitling at Jordanian institutions of Higher Education.

VI. CONCLUSION

Although Jordan is a high-profile subtitling country, translation departments that offer BA degrees in translation studies at Jordanian universities have not given this form of audiovisual translation adequate attention. Modules in subtitling are rarely offered at the undergraduate level, and research in the field remains scant. This paper argues that it would be a good investment to add subtitling courses in our curricula because the benefits accrued from teaching such courses are multifaceted.

First, teaching subtitling gives students initial training in subtitling and prepares them for the profession. After all, the majority of departments that offer translation courses state on their websites that they prepare their students for the workplace. Statements like "the department prepares students for a career in translation" (www.uop.edu.jo/En/Academic/FacultuArts), and the department aspires to produce "skilful and competent graduates to the job market" (www.arts.yu.edu.jo/en/translation) are examples of some of the goals departments aspire to fulfill. Undoubtedly, these goals cannot be achieved if the courses offered do not meet the demands of the translation market.

Second, since subtitling is a form of translation, well-devised exercises in subtitling are expected to enhance students' translation skills. When students subtitle, they have to draw upon the knowledge they had gained in the written translation courses, as well as the knowledge they had acquired in the subtitling course(s).

Third, subtitling can foster students' foreign language learning skills. Subtitling can improve students' receptive and productive skills since most of the students join translation departments with only a formal knowledge of English.

Fourth, subtitling can develop students' cultural and ideological awareness. Exposing students to cultural and ideological issues through subtitling adds a touch of authenticity to ideas that are otherwise tackled in a theoretical manner during "traditional" translation classes. Implementing the theories associated with the translation of culture and ideology to authentic texts makes the exercise more challenging and less theoretical.

The students' feedback regarding the usefulness of teaching subtitling courses to trainee translators echoes the results reported in previous research and further confirms that teaching subtitling can be a rewarding experience on a number of fronts.

Students noticed that subtitling can help develop their translation and linguistic skills in an enjoyable way. They reported that subtitling could foster students' translation skills and critical abilities; could facilitate students' understanding of the notion of genre; and could develop students' cultural and ideological awareness. On the linguistic level, they stated that subtitling could improve trainee translators' listening and writing skills and develop their acquisition of vocabulary. Although students did not highly rate subtitling as an effective tool for fostering audience identification, this might be attributed to the teaching methodology adopted by the members of staff which does not emphasize this issue in the written translation courses. The results of the study were also rewarding on the professional level. Two of the graduating students applied for subtitling posts at a subtitling company and have been offered jobs after graduation. It is my contention that the students' attitudes should encourage the academic circles at Jordanian universities to follow the footsteps of their counterparts elsewhere and introduce subtitling, and other forms of audiovisual translation, in the curricula of undergraduate translation study programs.

Notes

1. The information about the translation courses is based on feedback from graduates of English Departments at Jordanian universities during the 1970s and 1980s.

2. For a detailed account of these activities see Jorge Díaz Cintas and Aline Remeal (2007).

3. This specifically applies to undergraduate programs in translation studies.

4. Due to the limitations of space, the translation programs offered at all the Jordanian universities cannot be discussed in this paper. Reference to sample programs can be found on the following websites: University of Petra (www.uop.edu.jo/En/Academic/FacultuArts),   Jadara   University (www.jadara.edu.jo/reghome/plans/plan20%of%20translationplan.pdf)   and   Zarqa   University www.zu.edu.jo/en/College/Arts?Dept_Translator_Arts/GetStudyPlan.aspx?id=4

5. For more information visit http://studio.clipflair.net

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Developing English Textbooks Oriented to Higher Order Thinking Skills for Students of Vocational High Schools in Yogyakarta

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Abstract—**This article is part of research and development under the issue of developing English textbooks oriented to the enhancement of higher order thinking skills (HOTS) for students of vocational high schools (VHSs) in Yogyakarta. This relies on the evidence that the existing textbooks for secondary school levels put an emphasis on memorizing and comprehending which highlight to identify linguistic features of the target language (micro-language skills). This leads to creating the failure of acquiring English language proficiency on the part of students of secondary school levels including students of VHSs. To obtain the objective, there were 14 English teachers and 320 students of vocational high schools from three regencies, namely Sleman, Yogyakarta city, and Bantul voluntarily involved. Three techniques: questionnaire distributions, interviews, and documentation were administered to get data. Then, the gathered data were analyzed using a descriptive qualitative method. In reference to data analysis, four findings are documented as explored in this part of this article. In summary, the development of the English textbooks oriented to HOTS is positively responded by the respondents as the English textbook triggers students of VHSs to establish their higher order thinking skills which lead to students' creativity and self-regulated learning practices.**

Index Terms—**higher order thinking skills, lower order thinking skills, English textbook**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of teaching and learning, the availability of textbooks is one of the essential components that must exist because textbooks serve as a guide for students and their teachers of any level of education to be actively engaged in classroom practices. This is in line with Iqbal (2013) who urges that existence of the textbooks could facilitate students to maximally achieve the targeted learning objectives. Added to this, textbooks serve as the core of educational practices, confer students with "a rich array of new and potentially interesting facts, and open the door to a world of fantastic experience" (Chambliss & Calfee, 1998, p.7). This suggests that textbooks play an important role to succeed for the teaching and learning practices. In relation to this statement, Kitao & Kitao (1997) articulate that textbooks are of great importance in the process of teaching and learning as they serve as the center of instruction and describe what goes on in the classroom practices in order that the teaching and learning activities become efficient, effective, and meaningful.

Realizing how important the textbooks are, the Indonesian government via the ministry of education and culture assigns the centre for curriculum and textbook development to write a great number of textbooks for any subjects used in any level of education (elementary and secondary school levels) including English textbooks. Those textbooks are nationally mandated to be used by the schools in line with the implementation of the new curriculum (the 2013 one). This suggests that all secondary high schools (junior, senior, and vocational high schools) are obligated to use the textbooks which are developed by the centre for curriculum and textbook development serving as the main textbooks in the process of English language teaching and learning.

In the level of secondary schools, SVHSs (senior high and vocational high schools) in particular, the centre for curriculum and textbook development designed six sets of English textbooks. Every grade has two sets of English textbooks on the basis of semester. They are labeled with English textbooks for students of Grade X semester 1 and of Grade X semester 2. The same labels are applied for Grade XI and XII. These English textbooks are developed in reference to the core competence and basic competence which do not differentiate the types of the schools. In other words, those six sets of the English textbooks are nationally used by students of SVHSs. Those English textbooks are also used for students of religious-based senior high and vocational high schools including Christian, Catholic, and Islamic senior and vocational high schools in Indonesia which run the 2013 curriculum.

As a matter of fact, students of SVHSs are different in nature in terms of orientation and expectation. The orientation of the English textbooks for students of SHSs is designed by putting an emphasis on English for academic purposes. On the other hand, students of VHSs should be oriented to the development of English for specific purposes on the grounds

that students of VHSs are projected to learn different fields according to their study programs. For example, when they take a business and management study program, the English materials should be related to their fields, namely business and management development instead of general English. In terms of expectation, students of SHSs are projected to proceed their study in a high level such as universities or colleges. On other hand, students of VHSs are projected to be skillful workers in reference to their fields. This suggests that the English textbooks used by students of SVHSs should be different in nature.

With regard to the above statements, students of SHSs should be oriented to English for academic purposes which give an emphasis on the development of the macro-language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing in which reading becomes the center of English development. Added to this, students of SHSs are also driven to deeply understand the nature of micro-language skills such as grammar, structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the like in reference to English for academic purposes (EAPs) with regard to their concentrations offered in those schools which include natural sciences, social studies, and language studies. On the other hand, students of VHSs deal with English for specific purposes (ESPs) which also develop macro-language skills as above mentioned, articulating on speaking in order to facilitate them to make use of English in some communicative events relevant to their workplaces. The micro-language skills as above mentioned are also presented for students of VHSs which are embedded in the macro-language skills which articulate on how they are used in discourse of workplaces.

In reference to ESPs, according to Richards and Schmidt (2010), ESP is defined as 'a language course or program of pedagogical practices which consist of the content areas and objectives of the course with regard to the fixed specific needs of a particular group of learners" (p, 198). This relies on the theory that different groups of learners should have specific needs according to their backgrounds. Therefore, the English textbooks used for students of VHSs should be different from those for students of SHSs. Further, Jordan (1997) cited in Tsou (2009) articulates that ESP textbooks should deal with subject-specific materials which are designed according to targeted topics.

More importantly, the English textbooks designed for students of SVHSs should be oriented to the development of students' thinking skills on the grounds that students are accustomed to handling challenging tasks which trigger them to be fully engaged in the process of English language teaching and learning enabling them to lateralize the target language (English). In relation to this statement, Putcha (2012) strongly urges that when second language learners (SLLs) are accustomed to systematically employing their critical thinking skills, they get positive experiences of learning practices and could encounter any demanding tasks which can in turn establish their own self-confidence to learn English better. In the same spirits, a great number of experts highly recommend that LOTS and HOTS should be embedded in the process of English language teaching and learning including the development of English textbooks (Huberty & Davis, 1998; Cotton, 1997; Young, 1997; Ennis, 1993; Carrol, 1989). This relies on theories that LOTS and HOTS are of great importance for SLLs to establish their own regulated learning strategies (Huberty & Davis, 1998). This is supported by the educators who strongly claim that it is important to promote higher-order thinking skills in the process of English language teaching and learning (Chamot, 1995; Tarvin & Al-Arishi, 1991). This is supported by empirical evidence which reveals the strengths of teaching critical thinking skills in the process of English language teaching and learning at any level of education (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Davidson, 1994, 1995, 1998).

However, the analysis of the English textbooks used for students of SVHSs conducted by Margana (2015) reveals that the English textbooks used for SVHS students in Indonesia are developed under the basis of LOTS ignoring HOTS on the grounds that the tasks of the English textbooks are dominated by knowing and memorizing the language systems such as grammar or structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the like. Added to this, the exercises for the development of receptive macro-language skills such as listening and reading are only oriented to testing practices which articulate the factual questions instead of analytical questions.

The development of speaking as one of the productive language skills somehow as performed in the English textbooks focuses on the memorization of the dialog with the application of audio-lingual methods which mostly articulate the use of a drilling technique. This also happens in the development of writing skills which are oriented to the product approach putting an emphasis on rearranging sentences. This evidence directly or indirectly determines the failure of the acquisition of the target language (English) on the grounds that students are only driven to deal with systemic knowledge which is oriented to understanding the outer layer of the language system as stated by Hedge (2008).

Furthermore, the English textbooks are developed without implementing the needs assessment or analysis. Rarely do the writers of English textbooks deal with needs assessment, namely a process of gathering and analyzing data from the targeted learners. In other words, the English textbooks are not developed under the issue of learning needs and target needs. Learning needs refer to the nature or the essence of learning while target needs are concerned with the objectives of learning both of which are gained through needs assessment from the students. These two issues are neglected in developing the English textbooks nationally used in Indonesia as the writers only refer to the core and basic competence which exist in the national curriculum. Furthermore, the English textbooks are only validated by some experts without conducting experimental judgment.

In reference to the above issues, the development of the English textbooks for students of VHSs which highlight on the establishment of HOTS is urgently required. This suggests that the aspects of HOTS such as skills of analyzing, evaluating, and creating should be manifested in the development of the English textbooks used for students of VHSs.

Also, the tasks or activities used in the English textbooks must activate those three types of thinking skills on the grounds that those skills are believed to maximally facilitate students of VHSs to acquire English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Nowadays, there have been a growing number of English textbooks developed by some prominent authors as English textbooks confer a great number of benefits for second language learners (SLLs) and second language teachers (SLTs). For example, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) confer four advantages of textbooks. They are (1) serving as a vehicle for teachers and learners in the process of English language teaching and learning, (2) providing support and relief from the psychological burden on the parts of SLLs, (3) performing a complete picture of the change of learners' behavior through learning and teaching practices, and (4) providing SLTs with the psychological support because of having less experience in English language teaching and learning. In the same spirit, Cunningsworth (1995) proposes six roles of English textbooks which include (1) serving as a syllabus in reference to pre-determined learning objectives, (2) conferring an effective resource for students' self-directed learning, (3) offering an effective medium for presentation of new material, (4) providing students with a source of ideas and activities, (e) serving as a reference source for students and teachers, and (5) equipping support for less experienced teachers who need to gain confidence.

In reference to the above advantages, Richards (2001) documents seven advantages of the existence of the English textbooks. They include (1) providing a description of the structure and the syllabus of the program, (2) conferring standardized instruction, (3) assuring the quality of the learning process, (4) offering a variety of learning resources, (5) facilitating SLLs and SLTs to be efficient in the process of English language teaching and learning, (6) conferring effective language model and input, (7) serving as a medium of initial teacher training, and providing SLLs and SLTs with a visually appealing model. This suggests that English textbooks should be well developed in order to facilitate SLLs and SLTs to effectively and efficiently run the process of English language teaching and learning at any levels of education including secondary school levels.

With regard to the above advantages, it is evident that English textbooks confer some convincing positive impacts on the success for acquiring the target language on the grounds that English textbooks serve as the resource of learners and teachers to conduct the process of English language teaching and learning which meets the curriculum and learners' characteristics. This suggests that English textbooks should be well developed, otherwise they only become obsolete and useless documents. In relation to this statement, many experts propose some criteria of English textbooks. Cunningsworth (1995), for example, proposes four criteria which include (1) accommodating learners' needs, (2) equipping students to use language effectively, (3) facilitating learners to the process of learning, and (4) having a clear role as learning support. In reference to these criteria, needs analysis should be conducted in order to generate effective and efficient English textbooks otherwise the English textbooks only serve as formal documents which could not facilitate SLLs to maximally acquire the target language.

In line with the above criteria, Richards & Rodgers cited in Mukundan & Ahour (2010) state that the development of English textbooks should take into account for learners' roles, teachers' roles, instructional materials, and targeted syllabus. In addition, English textbooks should also accommodate learners' and teachers' interests and needs and the context of learning (Byrd, 2001; Bell & Gower, 1998; Sheldon, 1988). Cunningsworth & Kusel (1991) add some issues of good English textbooks which include aims, layout, methodology, and organization. More specifically, the English textbooks have to consider some issues such as language forms which include macro-language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and micro-language skills (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), and language functions which are presented in the textbook depending on the present socio-cultural setting (Nejmeh, 2011; Mayfield, 2001; Zabawa, 2001; Ur, 1996; Cunningsworth, 1995; Harmer, 1991).

Of the criteria above, a great number of experts tend to ignore the issue of the development of thinking skills as one of the criteria of good English textbooks. The enhancement of thinking skills should be articulated in the development of English textbooks because the development of thinking skills as manifested in English textbooks facilitate SLLs to independently learn the target language and to establish students' creativity and autonomous learning practices so that they could acquire the target language maximally. In line with this statement, this paper articulates the development of learners' thinking skills as manifested in the English textbooks which are designed for students of VHSs. This relies on the theory that the development of learners' thinking skills could facilitate them to maximally acquire the target language (Ezici, 2006); Facione, 1998; Beyer, 1988, 1995, 1997; Cramp et al,. 1988). Through the development of thinking skills, SLLs deal with some activities such as (1) breaking down complex material into parts, (2) detecting relationships, (3) combining new and familiar information creatively within limits set by the context, and (4) combining and using all previous levels in evaluating or making judgments (King, Goodson, & Rohani, 2007). In the same spirit, Jacobs (1994) advocates that the ways of students' thinking skills play an important role in making choices of learning activities and interpreting the learning tasks according to the relevant situations. This implies that the development of English textbooks does not only meet learners' needs and interests but also drive SLLs to develop their thinking skills through the tasks or activities which exist in English textbooks.

In regard to the development of thinking skills, many experts classify them into two types, namely lower order thinking skills and higher order thinking skills (Anderson et al., 2001; Pohl, 2000). LOTS are concerned with types of thinking skills which do not require high level of thinking skills. In this level, SLLs only deal with receptive tasks,

namely deconstructing the texts with the use of memorizing, comprehending, and analyzing the tasks. HOTS deal with the application of the high level of thinking which includes synthesizing, evaluating, and creating. Those sub-three thinking skills are concerned with handling the productive tasks.

With regard to those types of thinking skills, a great number of experts come to agreement that both should be embedded in the process of English language teaching and learning including in the development of English textbooks (Cotton, 1997; Huberty & Davis, 1998; King, 1997; Young, 1997; Ennis, 1993; Carrol, 1989) on the grounds that LOTS and HOTS are of great importance for SLLs to establish their own learning strategies so that they could regulate their own learning practices. However, of the two types of thinking skills, HOTS should be emphasized. Renner (1997) as citied by Liaw (2007) strongly articulates that use of critical thinking skills in the English textbooks could enhance SLLs' critical thinking skills which in turn enable them to maximally acquire their English proficiency as thinking skill development and language attainment are interwoven in nature. Added to this, critical thinking skills are recognized as a determinant or significant capability to maximally acquire in academic language (Connolly, 2000; Davidson, 1998; Davidson & Dunham, 1997).This clearly implies that the development of thinking skills should be the concern of English textbook writers.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study is categorized as research and development which focus on the development of the English textbook for students of VHSs articulating the high order thinking skills as manifested in the tasks. To obtain the objective, the researchers voluntarily invited 14 English teachers and 320 students from six VHSs from three regencies, namely Sleman, Yogyakarta city, and Bantul as the subjects of this study. To select the respondents, the researcher utilized a random sampling technique. This was conducted by writing the targeted VHSs which offered business and management program in a piece of paper for each, to select the schools. After that, the paper was rolled and put in the box. Then, the researchers took six papers to be included in research according to the label which was written in the paper.

Three techniques: questionnaire distributions, interviews, and documentation were administered to gather data which articulate the needs assessment. To do so, the instruments: questionnaire, interview guideline, and list of document evaluation were used to take data. Questionnaire was designed to reveal the learning needs and target needs as the basis of the development of the English texts. This questionnaire was distributed to students of VHSs. The interview guideline was designed to get data from the English teachers of VHSs. In the interview, the English teachers were questioned under the issue of the English textbooks used both at SVHSs and the issue of development of high order thinking skills in English textbooks. The gathered data were then analyzed with the use of descriptive qualitative method.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In reference to the needs analysis, the following presents some findings. First, it is evident that all respondents (320 students and 14 English teachers of VHSs in three regencies) agree to the issue of developing the English textbooks oriented HOTS as this triggers students to establish their critical thinking skills which lead to students' creativity and autonomous learning. Most of English teachers also state that the articulation of HOTS in the English textbook could drive students to critically analyze the use of language according to the social contexts. This relies on the fact that so far the existing English textbooks designed for VHSs have only dealt with the application of LOTS, namely memorizing the language form such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the like. Such voices were also supported by 315 out 320 students' responses which were obtained through questionnaire claiming that the existing English textbooks used in the process of the English teaching and learning at VHSs articulate on memorization of the language forms such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar as shown in the following data.

Vocabulary Buider
Match the words with their Indonesian equivalents. Compare your work to your classmate's.

pen pal *(noun)*	*kereta komuter*
sound *(verb)*	*sangat menyukai*
run *(transitive verb)*	*jauh*
(be) into *(preposition)*	*nampaknya*
attend (school, college) *(verb)*	*sahabat pena*
distant *(adjective)*	*bahasa pertama*
commuter train *(noun)*	*bersekolah/kuliah*
magnificent *(adjective)*	*luar biasa*
mother tongue *(noun)*	*mengelola*
half sister/brother *(noun)*	*saudara tiri*

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1

In reference to the above data, it is evident that students are driven to deal with isolated vocabulary items. This task deals with memorizing the equivalent meanings of the vocabulary items with the use of translation method. This task

applies LOTS development, namely memorizing and understanding the vocabulary items in English and Indonesian language. Such evidence also happens in pronunciation as shown in the following data.

Listen to your teacher reading these words. Repeat after him/her.

pen pal	:	/ pen pæl /
sound	:	/ saʊnd /
run	:	/ rʌn /
(be) into	:	/ ɪntu /
attend	:	/ ətend /
distant	:	/ dɪstənt /
commuter train	:	/ kəmjutə treɪn /
magnificent	:	/ mægnɪfɪs ə nt /
mother tongue	:	/ mʌðər tʌŋ /
half sister/brother	:	/ hɑf brɑðər /sistər /

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1

The data above perform that students are driven to only memorize how to pronounce the lexical items by using a drilling technique. This is also categorized as LOTS development as students only deal with repeating their English teachers in pronouncing words or phrases. The same case also happens in grammar presentation as shown in the following data.

Task 2:
Complete the sentences with *be* or *have.* Remember to use the correct forms.

1. The class _____ very boring because the students _____ no activities.
2. Alia _____ a new pen pal from America. Alia _____ lucky because now she can practice writing in English.
3. Maher Zain _____ Saidah's favorite singer. He really _____ good voice.
4. My hobby _____ reading novels. I _____ a collection of good novels.
5. Bali _____ magnificent scenery. In fact, it _____ one of the most wonderful islands in the world.
6. My younger sister and I _____ three cats. They _____ cute.
7. Our favorite subjects _____ Math and English. We _____ a great time when we do math and English exercises.
8. Caroline and Hannah _____ similar interests in fashion. They _____ crazy about the newest trends in fashion.
9. Bob _____ a gadget maniac. He always _____ the latest version of mobile phone, which is actually not necessary.
10. Sita _____ a dream of becoming one of the next female president of Indonesia. She _____ optimistic about her dream

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1)

The above data clearly perform that students are driven to only apply lower order thinking skills as the students are engaged in selecting the form of *is, am, are* or the form of *have* or *has* to complete sentences. This is also a part of LOTS development as students only memorize the use of *be* and *have* and apply them in the incomplete sentences. As a matter of fact, the presentation of micro-language skills such as grammar/structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation in the English textbooks for students of VHSs could be done inductively. This means that those micro-language skills are embedded in both spoken and written texts. Students are then asked to deconstruct the text with the use of bottom-up processing which articulates the analysis of language forms such as grammar/structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation. In this case, students could apply high order thinking skills in analyzing the texts depending on the language focus which is accentuated. By the application of the HOTS, students could generate the rule of grammar or structure based on the text, the meanings of the vocabulary items based on the contexts, and the way of pronouncing words in the text. This leads them to establishing the strategy of deconstructing the texts which drives them to learn the materials autonomously.

In reference to the questionnaire about the development of HOTS in the existing English textbooks, 14 English teachers voiced that the existing book articulated LOTS development in the presentation of reading skills as part of macro-language skills as shown in the following data.

Text 1: An email from Hannah

Hello, Alia! Let me introduce myself. My name is Hannah.

I know your name from my friend, Caroline. She told me that you sent her an email telling her that you would like to have more pen pals from the US. I'd really like to be your E-pal. You sound really cool!

I guess I'd better tell you something about myself first. I'm 16 years old and I attend Thomas Edison High School here in Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA. I have two brothers and two half sisters and I'm the middle child. My father died a few years ago so my mother runs the house and the family business. My father was a barista.

I have lots of hobbies. I like music – mostly classical music and folk music – but I don't play an instrument. I like sports, especially tennis and basketball. At school I'm in the basketball team and I spend most of my extra-curricular time playing basket ball. I'm into animals very much. My sister and I have three dogs, a rabbit and an iguana. They need lots of attention as you can imagine. At school, I have many Hmong friends who were not fully fluent in English. Their family moved here from Asia. I enjoy talking to them about our different cultures. My favorite subjects at school are art and geography. I think I'd like to become a park ranger when I graduate, perhaps work for the National Parks Service.

I haven't got much interest in fashion, although we have 'Mall of America,' the biggest mall in Minnesota. We can reach the mall very easily. A commuter train runs every 15 minutes, buses also come from different directions. We can also drive to the mall. It's much faster than going there by train or by bus.

I don't like reading but I love drawing and painting.

How about you? Please drop me a line, Alia! Can't wait to hear from you!

Hannah.

Answer the following questions briefly.
1. How does Hannah contact Alia? Is there anybody introducing Hannah to Alia?
2. Does Hannah want to be Alia's friend?
3. Where does Hannah study?
4. Tell me about Hannah's family!
5. What are Hannah's hobbies?
6. Does she like animals? What animals does she have?
7. What do Hannah and her among friends love to do?
8. What profession would she like to have after graduating from her school?
9. She isn't interested in fashion. Why?

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1)

With regard to the data above, the comprehension questions of reading skills are also oriented to the development of LOTS as most of questions are dominated by factual questions. For example, Q1 to Q8 only deal with factual questions which require understanding and memorizing the text. In other words, those questions do not drive students to analyze and evaluate the text. Only one question, namely Q9 is categorized as a HOTS question, which analyzes the reason for being interested in fashion. The same evidence is presented below.

Read the following text, and then answer the following questions.

MY BEST FRIEND

       I have a lot of friends in my school, but Dinda has been my best friend since junior high school. We don't study in the same class, but we meet at school everyday during recess and after school. I first met her at junior high school orientation and we've been friends ever since.

       Dinda is good-looking. She's not too tall, with fair skin and wavy black hair that she often puts in a ponytail. At school, she wears the uniform. Other than that, she likes to wear jeans, casual t-shirts and sneakers. Her favourite t-shirts are those in bright colors like pink, light green and orange. She is always cheerful. She is also very friendly and likes to make friends with anyone. Like many other girls, she is also talkative. She likes to share her thoughts and feelings to her friends. I think that's why many friends enjoy her company. However, she can be a bit childish sometimes. For example, when she doesn't get what she wants, she acts like a child and stamps her feet.

       Dinda loves drawing, especially the manga characters. She always has a sketchbook with her everywhere she goes. She would spend some time to draw the manga characters from her imagination. Her sketches are amazingly great. I'm really glad to have a best friend like Dinda.

Comprehension Questions

1. Who is being described in the text?

2. How long have the writer and Dinda been friends?

3. What does Dinda look like?

4. What are her favourite clothes?

5. What kind of t-shirts does she like?

6. Describe Dinda's personality briefly.

7. Why do many friends enjoy Dinda's company?

8. What is Dinda's bad habit?

9. What is Dinda's hobby?
10. How does the writer feel about Dinda?

          (Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1)

    The above text shows that the writers articulate on developing LOTS as 9 out 10 reading comprehension questions are concerned with the application of memorizing and understanding factual information from the provided text. For example, the answers for Q1 to Q10 except Q7 could be explicitly answered from the text as those are categorized as factual questions. Only Q7 is categorized as a HOTS question because it requires reasoning thinking skills. The same case also happens in speaking task as presented below.

Task 2: Complete the spaces in the table with expressions of compliment/care and responses.

No	Compliments/C	Responses
1.	You are such a nice boy.	_____ _____
2.	You've helped me a lot during my difficult situation.	That's what friends are for.
3.	_____ _____ _____ _____	Thank you. You remember my birthday when nobody does.
4.	I am sorry about your accident. I'll always be here if you need my help.	_____ _____ _____
5.	_____ _____	I love you, too, sweety.
6.	What a wonderful performance!	_____
7.	I know you have tried your best. I am sure next time you will get a better score.	_____ _____ _____ _____
8.	_____ _____ _____	Thank you
9.	Good job! Well done.	_____ _____
10.	If you need anything, please just call me.	_____ _____

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X Semester 1)

The above data show that the task above requires students to only apply LOTS as they deal with memorizing and comparing the expressions of compliment/care and responses as the focus of the task. This evidence inspires English teacher cohorts to propose the articulation of HOTS in developing the English text for students of VHSs. This statement is supported by student cohorts who stated that the English textbook for VHS students should highlight on the HOTS development rather than LOTS one. Such development should be also applied in the presentation of listening and writing lesson.

Second, with the utilization of questionnaire, both cohorts come to the agreement that the English textbook used for students of VHSs should be different from students of SHSs on the grounds that students of VHSs are driven to learn English for specific purposes which are closely related to their backgrounds, namely business management. In other words, the content of the English textbook should be relevant to the development of macro-language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and micro-language skills (grammar/structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the like) under the issue of business management. Of the four macro-language skills, 300 out of 320 student cohorts put an emphasis on speaking, 10 students articulated reading pratices, 6 students focused on writing, and 4 students dealt with listening practices. The following presents the pie chart to show the preferences of students.
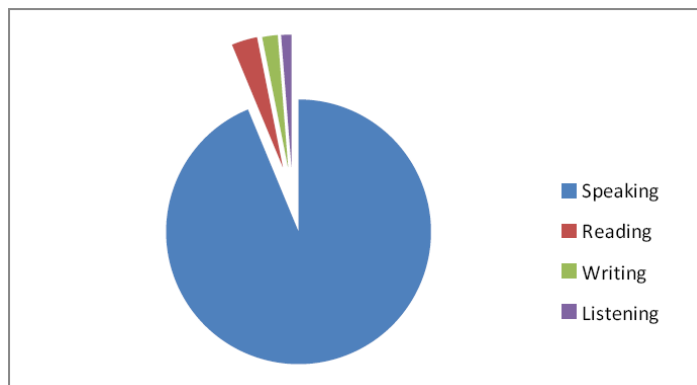
Figure 1. Students' preferences on macro-language skills in English textbook

The preference on speaking is also supported by English teachers of VHSs claiming that the English textbooks should encompass four macro-language skills above, but the development of speaking skills should be prioritized without disregarding the other three macro-language skills (reading, writing, and listening). In terms of the micro-

language skills, both cohorts agree that the micro-language skills should be integrated into macro-language skills in both spoken and written texts. They also state that the micro-language skills should be based on the contexts not in isolation.

Third, in reference to the English textbook used for students of VHSs, it is found that a great number of texts are not contextual. This inspires the student and English teacher cohorts to state that the English textbook for VHSs should be contextual in the sense that the texts should be related to the social contexts which are derived from the inner, outer, or expanding circle English speaking countries in order to easily understand how the language is used according to the real contexts. In addition, 305 out of 320 students agree that the English textbooks should consist of authentic texts derived from workplaces which are relevant to business and management. The following data show the example of decontextualization of the texts that exist in the English textbook used for students of VHSs.

Task 1: Read the dialog carefully.

Rahmi : Hello. How are things going on, Sinta ?
Sinta   : Hi. Good, and you?
Rahmi : I'm feeling great today. How was your weekend with your family in Batu?
Sinta   : Excellent! We had a lovely time there. You should have gone there with us.
Rahmi : Really? Hey, what a beautiful skirt you are wearing. It matches your blouse.
Sinta   : Thanks a lot. My sister bought it for me last month.
Rahmi : Wow! That's wonderful.
Sinta   : Oh, Rahmi, can I ask you something?
Rahmi : Oh, sure. Please.
Sinta : Have you finished writing the book we discussed two months ago?

(Taken from Bahasa Inggris untuk SMA/MA/SMK/MAK Kelas X semester 1)

With regard to the above text, the writers decontextualize the text as the dialog takes participants of Indonesian students who are talking about spending weekend in Batu (one of the tourism spots in Malang, Indonesia) and a beautiful skirt. It is not common for Rahmi and Shinta to use English as a means of communication practices. To contextualize the above text, the writers could give the context of a situation by changing the participants of the dialog, for example, Anne (English name) and Shinta (Indonesian name) or by giving a context that Sinta and Rahmi are students of VHSs who are now practicing English.

Fourth, with the use of questionnaire, 305 out 320 students propose to select authentic texts which are derived from the workplaces under the issues of business management such as advertisements, business letters, supply and demand, and the like which can be taken from internet, newspapers, manuals, and others. This statement is also supported by 10 out 14 English teachers who claim that the texts used in the English textbook for students of VHSs should be dominantly authentic on the grounds that the authenticity of the texts facilitates students to easily understand the materials and to easily store them in long term memory. By contrast, 15 out 320 students propose to mix between authentic and non-authentic materials in the English textbook for students of VHSs as the combination of both authentic and non-authentic materials could enrich their knowledge of the materials. This statement is supported by 4 out of 14 English teachers as it is difficult to find authentic materials which are relevant to business management. To some extent, students tend to find difficulties to make sense of the authentic texts. Therefore, semi-authentic texts could be one of the alternatives to minimize the difficulties because of the complexity of the language use in authentic materials.
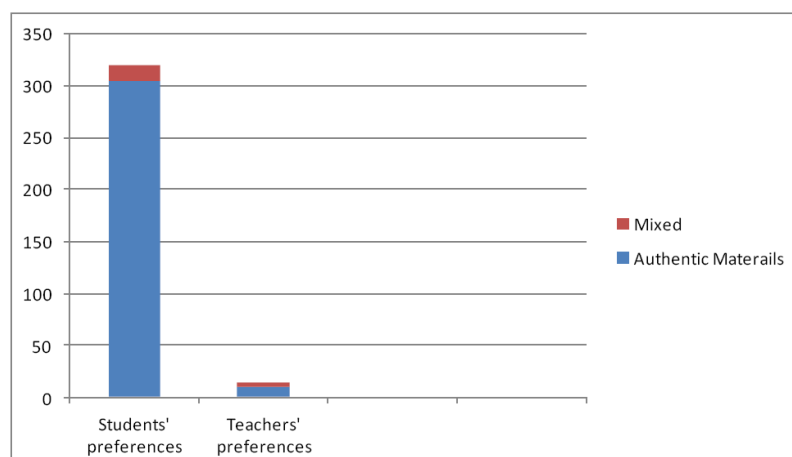
Figure 2. Students' and teachers' preferences on authentic and mixed materials in English textbook development

In reference to the above findings, it is evident that the English textbook for students of VHSs and SHSs should be different as they have different orientation and expectation as previously mentioned. In addition, the way of developing English textbooks for students of VHSs should be based on English for specific purposes not general English. The development of HOTS as performed in every task should become the main concern on the grounds that it could enhance the critical thinking of students of VHSs which serves as the basis of establishing students' creativity and self-regulated learning on the part of students. This facilitates students of VHSs to acquire English as their target language on the grounds that they could make use of their long-term memory space to store the information gained through English language learning practices.

In relation to the development of HOTS in English textbook for students of VHSs, the following presents the example of tasks for reading presentation which can be used to develop the English textbooks. This sample attempts to accommodate needs assessment: learning and target needs as explored above. The first example is designed for students of VHSs who take agriculture as their study program. The second example is designed for students of VHSs who concentrate on business management.

Example 1: Study the following text and discuss the following comprehension questions with your partner.

> Humans have struggled against the weeds since the beginning of agriculture. Marrying our gardens is one of the milder effects of weeds – any plants that thrive where they are unwanted. They clog waterways, destroy wildlife habitats, and impede farming. Their spread eliminates grazing areas and accounts for one-third of all crop loss. They compete for sunlight, nutrients, and water with useful plants.
>
> The global need for weed control had been answered mainly by the chemical industry. Its herbicides are effective and sometimes necessary, but some pose serious problems, particularly if misused. Toxic compounds threaten animal and public health they accumulate in food plants, groundwater, and drinking water. They also harm workers who apply them.
>
> In recent years, the chemical industry has introduced several herbicides that are most ecologically sound. Yet, new chemicals alone cannot solve the world's weed problems. Hence, scientists are exploring the innate weed-killing powers of living organisms, primarily insects and micro-organisms.
>
> The biological agents now in use are environmentally benign and are harmless to humans. They can be chosen for their ability to attack selected targets and leave crops and other plants untouched. In contrast, some of the most effective chemicals kill virtually all the plants they came in contact with, sparing only those that are naturally resistant or have been genetically modified for resistance. Furthermore, a number of biological agents can be administered only once, after which no added applications are needed. Chemicals typically must be used in several times per growing season.
>
> (Rogers, 1999)
>
> Comprehension Questions
> (1) Why does the writer select weeds as the topic of the text?
> (2) How does the writer convince that weeds are disadvantageous?
> (3) Why is the chemical industry used in the above text?
> (4) How does the writer convince the readers about the importance of biological agents to eradicate the weeds?
> (5) How are biological agents different from chemicals
> (6) Analyze the relationships among the sentences in each paragraph.

With regard to the above texts and comprehension questions, students of VHSs are driven to make sense of text with the use of their higher order thinking skills which focus on evaluating the above text. This suggests that English teachers are encouraged to develop the tasks which drag students to use HOTS instead of LOTS as presented below. The following task also deals with HOTS development through reading practices.

Example 2: Study the following text and discuss the following comprehension questions with your partner.

> We live in the age of technology. Everyday, new technology appears, ranging from mini-CDs that contain entire encyclopedias to giant space telescopes that can send photographs of distant stars back to Earth. Of all the new technological wonders, personal computers have probably had the greatest influence on the daily lives of average people. Through computers, we can now talk to people in any country, research any topic, work, shop, bank, and entertain ourselves. Personal computers have especially revolutionized communication and business practices in the past twenty years.
>
> Perhaps the most important effect of personal computers has been to expand our ability to communicate with the outside world. A lonely invalid in Minnesota can talk with a similarly house-bound person in Mississippi .Schoolchildren in Mahattan can talk via computer to school children in Moscow. A high school student can obtain statistics for history paper from a library in London. A single computer user can send an email message to millions of people all over the world with one keystroke. Computer users can get an online "chat room" to discuss their interests and problems with other who have similar interests and problems. For example, a person whose hobby is collecting antique guns can share information with other gun collectors via computer. A person who is planning a vacation and wants to know the names of the best beaches in Hawai can ask others who have already been there for suggestions. People even start online romances in chat rooms! The possibilities of computerized communication are indeed unlimited.
>
> Besides, improving communication, personal computers have made it possible to do business for home. You can take care of personal business. For example, you can buy airlines tickets, send flowers for a friend, pay your bills, buy and sell stocks, and even pay your taxes from you home computer at any time of the day or night. This is a great convenience for people who are busy during the day and for physically disabled people who find it hard to leave their homes. Moreover, telecommunicating-working at home instead of going to the office- has become a choice for thousands of business people. Suzzane Carrerio, a financial manager for a large company in downtown Mahattan, has telecommuted from her home in New Jersey for the past two years. She goes to her office only once a week. Four days a week, she works at homes and communicates with her staff by computer. She says, I am much more productive when I work at home because there are no interruptions. I also don't have to spend three hours travelling to and from the office everyday. I save my time and I save my company money for telecommuting".
>
> In brief, the computer age has arrived, and it is changing our lives. Computers have made communicating and doing business faster and more convenient, and they have greatly increased our access to information. Just as the invention of automobiles had an unplanned consequence-the growth of suburbs-so will the invention of personal computers. We will have to wait and see what these unintentional consequences will be.
>
> *Adapted from http://otraotradition.blogspot.ru/2010/08/computer--revolution.htm*

Comprehension Questions
(1) What points are offered by the writer through the above text?
(2) Why does the writer offer personal computers as the topic of the text?
(3) How does the writer convince the readers that personal computers are beneficial?
(4) What parties could get benefits from personal computers?
(5) Find the main idea of each paragraph and give reasons for each?
(6) Analyze the consequences of the development of technology.

In reference to the comprehension questions, students are challenged to actively seek out the reasons for their answers with the application of HOTS by analyzing the text comprehensively. In order words, students are triggered to apply their thinking skills beyond memorization and understanding. This assists students to enhance their critical thinking skills.

V. CONCLUSION

In reference to the above findings, it is evident that English textbooks should be developed under the issue of HOTS enhancement on the grounds that HOTS could facilitate students of VHSs to maximally acquire the target language (English). This relies on the theory that the development of HOTS as manifested in the tasks of the English textbooks trigger students to establish their creativity and self-regulated learning which are of great importance for acquiring the target language. Added to this, the development of HOTS through English textbooks could facilitate students to enhance their critical thinking skills which initiate the success for English language attainment. This clearly implies that English language teachers should be concerned about selecting appropriate and challenging English textbooks which could establish students' critical thinking skills which are of great importance for acquiring the target language.

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A Phonological Analysis of Passive Structures in Kisukuma

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Abstract—The current paper documents and examines the passive structure in Kisukuma, a Bantu language spoken in Tanzania. It provides a phonological analysis of the marker [-w-] as opposed to its variants, i.e. [-iw-] and its absence [-Ø-]. The documented data is accounted for according to the principles of Chomsky and Halle (1968)'s rule-based derivational theory. In this paper, I show that Kisukuma does not allow three occurrences: (i) diphthong formation, (ii) gemination, and (iii) [+labial]^[+labial] combination. Although Chomsky and Halle (1968)'s rule-based derivational theory provides an accurate account for all the data, it fails to explain why the [+labial] sound, [-w-], is sometimes deleted, and it is in other times retained yet the final [+labial] consonant of the stem undergoes deletion instead.

Index Terms—passive, kisukuma, phonology, Bantu languages

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the analogy between passive morphemes in Bantu languages can be clearly noticed through the most prevalent extension, -(ib)w-/ -(ig)w, Bantu languages may be relatively different in terms of the extent to which they allow the usage of passive (Fleisch, 2005, p. 2). Certain forms of passive, for instance, are attached to even intransitive verbs, or verbs which do not assign an agent role. So, it is worth mentioning that passive construction in Bantu languages, albeit their relative morphological resemblances, diverges from language to language in terms of their morphology and function.

According to Ethnologue language of the world, Kisukuma is a Bantu language in Tanzania, spoken by around 5.4 million native speakers in Shinyanga, Mwanza, Kagera, Tabora, Singida, Kigoma and Mara regions and between Lake Victoria and Lake Rukwa, to Serengeti plain.

Kisukuma structure is rich in agglutinative verb morphology. Syntactic or semantic relations can be understood through the attachment of morphemes with relatively constant forms. Each morpheme is attached to the right/left neighboring morpheme, and occupies a fairly fixed position within the verbal phrase. This can be illustrated below through the verbal structure paradigm of the word a-ga-n-inh-il-w-a 'was given for' in Table (I) below:

TABLE I
THE MORPHEMES OF *A-GA-N-INH-IL-W-A* 'WAS GIVEN FOR'

a	-ga-	-n-	-inh-	-il-	-w-	-a
Subject-agreement morpheme with the function of creating an agreement between the verb and the noun phrase in the subject relation.	Tense-aspect marker	Object agreement morpheme with the function of creating an agreement between the verb and the noun phrase in the object relation	Verb Stem	Applicative markers: Instrumental Benefactive Locative	Passive marker	Final Vowel

The aim of this paper is to document the passive structure in Kisukuma and give an accurate account for their phonological alternations. The paper is divided as follows. Section (II) presents the data and investigates the preliminary difficulties thereof. Section (III) analyzes the data thoroughly. Concluding remarks are given in section (IV).

II. PHONOLOGY OF PASSIVE

Consider the following data, collected from a native speaker of Kisukuma during the author's stay (2011-2014) at University of Florida:

1. gʊ-βis-a	'to hide'	gʊ-βis-**w**-a	'to be hidden'
2. gʊ-kaand-a	'to touch'	gʊ-kaand-**w**-a	'to be touched'
3. gʊ-pul-a	'to snatch'	gʊ-pul-**w**-a	'to be snatched'
4. gʊ-ʃɔn-a	'to weave'	gʊ-ʃɔn-**w**-a	'to be woven'
5. gʊ-ŋw-a	'to drink'	gʊ-ŋw-**iw**-a	'to be drunk'
6. gʊ-lj-a	'to eat'	gʊ-l-**iw**-a	'to be eaten'
7. gʊ-saɲ-a	'to praise'	gʊ-saɲ-**iw**-a	'to be praised'
8. gʊ-βɔɔɲ-a	'to taste'	gʊ-βɔɔɲ-**iw**-a	'to be tasted'
9. gʊ-ʃɔɔʃ-a	'to answer'	gʊ-ʃɔɔʃ-**iw**-a	'to be answered'
10. go-oc-a	'to roast'	go-oc-**iw**-a	'to be roasted'
11. gʊ-sɪɪmb-a	'to dig'	gʊ-sɪɪ**ɱv**-a	'to be dug'
12. gʊ-taamb-a	'to sacrifice'	gʊ-taa**ɱv**-a	'to be sacrificed'
13. gʊ-lɛɛmb-a	'to deceive'	gʊ-lɛɛ**ɱv**-a	'to be deceived'
14. gʊ-βaβ-a	'to kill by fire'	gʊ-βa-**w**-a	'to be killed by fire'

In the examples above, the variants of the passive maker in Kisukuma are [-w-], [-iw-], and [-Ø-]. The passive marker [-w-] is attested in (1) through (4) plus example (14) that differs from (1) through (4) in that the sound before [-w-] is a vowel not a consonant. As for the examples (5) through (10), the marker is [-iw-]. The examples (11) through (13) show no trace for passive marker [-Ø-] other than the phonological alternation of [mb] into [ɱv].

In this paper, I attempt to provide a unified phonological account for all these variants. I will hypothesize that the morpheme /-u-/ is the underlying form which all other allomorphs appear.

Prior discussing this hypothesis, a note should be given regarding the phonological processes that occur in the data above. There is a consensus that the underlying form of the glide [-w-] in the passive markers ([-w-] or [-iw-]) undergoes a glide formation process (i.e. glidization). Glidization is well-attested in Kisukuma. Consider the following examples from Matondo (2006).

15. lia → lya 'eat'

16. kua → kwa 'pay dowry'

In the examples (15) and (16), it is apparent that Kisukuma does not allow diphthongs /ia/ or /ua/. Thus, /i/ and /u/ change into their respective glides /j/ or /w/. Since the passive /u/ makes a diphthong with the final vowel /a/ (i.e. becomes /ua/), /u/ get glidized as −w- in (1) through (10), plus example (14). Thus, we can formulate this change as a rule in (17).

17. u → w / ____ + V   V = Vowel

Another complexity follows from the fact that the morpheme [-iw-] in (5) through (10) appears after stems ending in /w, l, ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/. These consonants /w, l, ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/ cannot be all grouped under one natural class. Although /ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/ in (7) through (10) are (alveo)-palatal, /w, l/ in (5) and (6) cannot be grouped along with them, neither can be grouped under a separate natural class. This casts doubts whether [-w-] is the passive marker yet the vowel [i] is inserted for certain phonological reasons, or the full marker [-iw-] is the passive marker, yet the [i] is deleted in the other examples.

Another complexity arises in the examples (3) and (6). The passive forms of the examples (3) and (6) are stems ending in /l/, yet the passive is [-w-] in (3) and [-iw-] in (6). Whether the passive marker is [-iw-] or [-w-], what motivates the [i]-insertion or [i]-deletion, if any, in (3) and (6)? (see discussion in section III).

In (11) through (13), there exists no marker for passive other than this phonological change of [mb] into [ɱv]. This change requires two phonological processes in a strict order: (a) spirantization and (b) dentalization. Spirantization is a phonological process where [b] changes into [v]. Secondly, dentalization (or place assimilation) is a process where [m] changes into the labio-dental nasal [ɱ] before the labio-dental fricative [v]. Without spirantization ([b] → [v]) occurring first, [m] will not change into the labio-dental [ɱ] because of the absence of labio-dental [v]. The two rules are summarized below.

18. b → v / __+u   (Spirantization)

19. [nasal] → [α place] / _____ [α place]   (Dentalization)

For now, I will assume that the marker in (11) through (13) is [-Ø-], but I will revise this in section III. Finally, example (14) shows a deletion process where [β] gets deleted before the marker [-w-]. I will formulate this process as in (20).

20. β → Ø / _____ +w   (Deletion)

To summarize, I propose that the underling form of the passive marker is /-u/ which is however glidized as [-w-] to prevent the formation of the diphthong [u+a] which is illegitimate in Kisukuma. I show that the passive marker [-iw-] appears before /w, l, ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/ that cannot be naturally classified. With the absence of the passive marker, I point out that [mb] changes into [ɱv] due to (a) spirantization and then (b) dentalization. Finally, I show that [β] is deletd before [-w-] as attested in (14).

In the following section, I will motivate the hypothesis that the underlying marker is /-u-/ and will account for the already presented complexities.

III. ANALYSIS OF KISUKUMA PASSIVE MARKER

In this paper, I propose that the marker [-w-] is the passive marker of Kisukuma because it occurs elsewhere. For the following repeated data, I propose that the marker is still [-w-] yet a front high vowel [i] is inserted before [-w-].

21. gʊ-ŋw-a	'to drink'	gʊ-ŋ**w-iw**-a	'to be drunk'
22. gʊ-lj-a	'to eat'	gʊ-**l-iw**-a	'to be eaten'
23. gʊ-saɲ-a	'to praise'	gʊ-sa**ɲ-iw**-a	'to be praised'
24. gʊ-βɔɔnɟ-a	'to taste'	gʊ-βɔɔn**ɟ-iw**-a	'to be tasted'
25. gʊ-ʃɔɔʃ-a	'to answer'	gʊ-ʃɔɔ**ʃ-iw**-a	'to be answered'
26. go-oc-a	'to roast'	go-o**c-iw**-a	'to be roasted'

Considering the examples (23) to (26), it is obvious that [i] is inserted after alveo-palatal sounds /ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/. Rather than using a generic feature [+palatal], I use more specific features such as [+coronal −anterior +distributed] that group all the given sounds above as shown in (27).

27. Ø → [i] / [+coronal −anterior +distributed] ____ w+FV   FV=final vowel

Thus the derivation of the representative example (24) will be as in (28).

28. a. /gʊ-βɔɔnɟ-a/   Underlying Form
   b. /gʊ-βɔɔnɟ-**u**-a/   Insertion of Passive /u/
   c. /gʊ-βɔɔnɟ-**w**-a/   Glidization rule (17)
   d. /gʊ-βɔɔn**ɟ-i**w-a/   [i]-Insertion rule (27)

First, the passive marker /-u-/ is inserted and glidized as [-w-]. Then, [i]-insertion rule is triggered due to the presence of the final sound in the stem [ɟ] which is [+coronal −anterior +distributed].

If this is the case for all these examples, what is left to be accounted for is the appearance of [-iw-] in examples (21) and (22) repeated below:

39. gʊ-ŋw-a	'to drink'	gʊ-ŋ**w-iw**-a	'to be drunk'
30. gʊ-lj-a	'to eat'	gʊ-**l-iw**-a	'to be eaten'

For (29) and (30), the sounds /w/ and /l/ cannot be naturally classified with the earlier sounds, neither do they both constitute a separate natural class. I will propose that the nature of [i] in these examples is different and needs separate motivation. This will explain these problematic data.

For (29), my informant observes that geminate sounds are not legitimate in Kisukuma at all (personal communication). Thus, I propose that the insertion of the vowel [i] is driven to correct the violation of gemination as in (31).

31. Ø → [i] / C_1 ___ C_2 where $C_1 = C_2$

Thus, the derivation for example (29) will be as in (32).

32. a. /gʊ-ŋ**u-u**-a/   Underlying Form
   b. /gʊ-ŋ**w**-u-a/   Glidization
   c. /gʊ-ŋw-**w**-a/   Glidization
   d. /gʊ-ŋw-**i**w-a/   /i/-insertion (31)
   e. [gʊ-ŋw-iw-a]   Surface Form

Now let us turn to the second example (30) repeated below as (33).

33. gʊ-lj-a	'to eat'	gʊ-**l-iw**-a	'to be eaten'

For example (33), I propose that the [i] in the passive form is not inserted, yet it is part of the underlying form of the stem, i.e. /gʊ-**li**-u-a/. Consider the active form [gʊ-lj-a]. The sound [j] is part of the stem [lj]. However, the stem [lj] has the underlying form /li/. Yet, the /i/ vowel in the active underlying form /gʊ-li-a/ is glidized as /j/ to prevent the formation of diphthongs, yielding /gʊ-lj-a/ 'to eat'. Thus, I propose that the underlying passive form in (33) is /gʊ-li-u-a/ (notice that /i/ is part of the stem). Later on, the passive marker /-u-/ is glidized as [-w-] to yield the form /gʊ-l-iw-a/ 'to be eaten'.

This solution will be better than the alternative hypothesis that /j/ in the active form /gʊ-lj-a/ is deleted in the passive form /gʊ-l-u-a/ and then [i] is inserted after /l/. This hypothesis has three downsides: first, what motivates the deletion of [j] from the stem? Second, /l/ is not an alveo-palatal sound, so what motivates the insertion of [i]? Third, if we consider the example (3) repeated below as (34), we can confirm that [i] does not need to be inserted after /l/ in the data.

34. gʊ-pul-a	'to snatch'	gʊ-pul-w-a	'to be snatched'

Let us now turn to the final instances where the passive marker [-w-] is deleted.

35. gʊ-sɪɪmb-a	'to dig'	gʊ-sɪɪm̩v-a	'to be dug'
36. gʊ-taamb-a	'to sacrifice'	gʊ-taam̩v-a	'to be sacrificed'
37. gʊ-lɛɛmb-a	'to deceive'	gʊ-lɛɛm̩v-a	'to be deceived'

Earlier, I propose that the passive marker in the above data is [-Ø-]. In this analysis, however, I maintain that the passive marker in the examples above is still /-u-/ which plays a role in the formation of the passive voice, but is eventually deleted. The marker /-u-/ will be important in triggering spirantization.

Spirantization ([b] → [v]) is mostly triggered by a high vowel (Bhat, 1978; Pulleyblank, 2006). For example, spirantization occurs before /i/ in Awa but before /i, u/ in Lower Grand Valley (Bhat, 1978). Given that the passive marker is a high vowel /-u-/, I propose that it is behind the spirantization process ([b] → [v]). The glide formation (/u/ → /w/) occurs after spirantization takes place. Afterwards, dentalization (/m/ → /ɱ/) occurs due to the impact of the labio-dental /v/. After all these processes take place, /w/ is deleted as shown in the derivation of example (36).

38. a. /gʊ-taamb-u-a/   Underlying Form
     b. /gʊ-taam**v**-u-a/   Spirantization
     c. /gʊ-taamv-**w**-a/   Glidization
     d. /gʊ-taa**ɱ**v-w-a/   Dentalization
     e. /gʊ-taaɱv-a/   /w/-Deletion
     f. [gʊ-taaɱv-w-a]   Surface Form

It should be noted that Spirantization should precede Glidization, otherwise the spirantization process will be blocked given the change of (/u/ → [w]). However, the order of Glidization and Dentalization is unrestricted.

Now, the question is why [-w-] is deleted. My informant notices that a labial sound cannot be followed by another labial sound in Kisukuma (personal communication). Since [w] and [v] are both [+labial], the passive marker [w] is deleted. I will formulate the [w]-deletion rule as follows.

39. /w/ → Ø / [+labial] _____ FV   (FV=final vowel, /a/)

I have evidence that this is true across the board in Kisukuma. Consider example (14) repeated below as (40).

40. gʊ-βaβ-a   'to kill by fire'   gʊ-βa-w-a   'to be killed by fire'

In (40), both [β] and [w] are [+labial]; this is a violation in Kisukuma. Thus, in this instance, /β/ is deleted instead. This current example (40) differs from the earlier example (38) in that the deleted labial sound is part of the stem, not the passive marker itself.

I have one reason why [w] is not deleted in (40). The deletion of the passive marker [-w-] would make it semantically hard to differentiate between the active and the passive, both active/passive forms will be [gʊ-βaβ-a]. In contrast, by the deletion of [β] and keeping the passive [-w-], it would be helpful for native speakers to avoid the illegitimate [+labial]^[+labial] combination and also to differentiate semantically and morphologically between the active form [gʊ-βaβ-a] 'to sacrifice' and the passive voice [gʊ-βa-w-a] 'to be sacrificed'.

Since spirantization in examples (35) through (37) gives a semantic content of passive voice, [-w-] can be then deleted to avoid the illegitimate [+labial]^[+labial] combination, i.e. compare [gʊ-taamb-a] 'to sacrifice' vs. [gʊ-taaɱv-a] 'to be sacrificed'.

To sum up, we have two occasions to deal with the deletion of [+labial]. In some cases, spirantization affects the preceding consonant and then /w/ is deleted. In other cases, spirantization cannot affect the preceding consonant; thus the preceding [+labial] consonant (such as /β/) is deleted and /w/ is kept.

Interesting enough, the rule-based derivational theory presented by Chomsky and Halle (1968) will struggle to account for how Kisukuma chooses which [+labial] consonant to be deleted. The choice of the deletion of either [+labial] consonant [β] or the glide [-w-] is unpredictable, albeit it is governed semantically. According to Chomsky and Halle's theory, two rules should be presented. Rule (41) is effective for example (38) and rule (42) for example (40):

41. w → Ø / [+labial] ___ a   (for example 38)
42. C   → Ø / _____ w   (for example 40)
[+labial]   [+labial]

Although the rules above seems acceptable to some extent, future work should investigate how to govern the deletion process in Kisukuma.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, I show that Kisukuma does not allow three occurrences: (i) diphthong formation, (ii) gemination, and (iii) [+labial]^[+labial] combination. I propose that the underlying marker of passive is /-u-/, yet this marker gets glidized to avoid diphthong formation. For the marker [-iw-], I propose that it is still [-w-], yet [i] is inserted before /ʃ, c, ɲ, and ɟ/ which are [+coronal −anterior +distributed].

Since /l/ and /w/ are not [+coronal −anterior +distributed], the left examples [gʊ-ŋw-iw-a] 'to be drunk' and [gʊ-l-iw-a] 'to be eaten' are separately motivated. For [gʊ-ŋw-iw-a] 'to be drunk', I propose that [i] is inserted to avoid the formation of geminates. For [gʊ-l-iw-a] 'to be eaten', I propose that [i] is not inserted but it is part of the stem. Thus, the right morphological form is [gʊ-li-w-a] not [gʊ-l-iw-a] given that the active form is [gʊ-lj-a] where /i/ changes into [j] to avoid the diphthong formation.

For the examples such as [gʊ-sɪɱv-a] 'to be dug', I still maintain that the underlying marker is the super high vowel /-u-/ which causes spirantization ([b] → [v]). Glidization and dentalization ([m] → [ɱ]) occurs in a free order. Later,

the [+labial] sound [-w-] is deleted because of its adjacency to the labial [v], which is an illegitimate combination in Kisukuma. After deletion, the semantic content of passive can be still derived from the spirantization and dentalization effect.

The illegitimate [+labial]^[+labial] combination can be also seen in the last example [gʊ-βaβ-w-a] 'to kill by fire' vs. [gʊ-βa-w-a] 'to be killed by fire'. I propose that the deletion targets [β] because [-w-] retains the sense of passivation.

The solution of deleting one [+labial] sound (whether the final consonant in the stem as in [gʊ-βaβ-w-a] 'to be killed by fire' or the passive marker itself as in [gʊ-sɪɪŋv-w-a] 'to be dug' raises difficulties, and I solve them via two rules triggered on semantic grounds. I recommend that future work should be done in this regard.

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Evaluating Information-processing-based Learning Cooperative Model on Speaking Skill Course

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Abstract—**The speaking ability of university students is still low due to the lack of information, interaction, and critical ideas in oral communication. Cooperative learning was implemented as the approach to overcome it. The research aimed at: (1) evaluating the effectiveness of cooperative approach in terms of the development of student's speaking ability, the effectiveness of speaking learning activity, and the learning instruction of guidance book; 2) figuring out the significant difference result pre and post cooperative model. The researcher employed mixed method approach (a combination of descriptive-evaluative and experimental designs) to evaluate cooperative model applied for Indonesian Language and Literature Department at IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, Ronggolawe University in Tuban, and Darul Ulum Islamic University in Lamongan. The research sample was 50% of the total population by purposive sampling technique. The research instruments (questionnaire, interview, and speaking test) were previously tested their validity and reliability. Data analysis (questionnaire and interview) have some phases: data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion drawing. The normality and homogeneity of data resulted from speaking test were tested by t-test. To evaluate learning model or obtain input from related lecturers, students, and the researcher himself, the activity of Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was utilized. The students taught by cooperative model have the speaking score of 18.9875, higher than ones with conventional learning in which score is 17.4500. Cooperative learning influenced significantly student's speaking ability as $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$ in which $F_{calculation}$ test obtained 11.380 while F_{table} was 3.91 at the significance level =0.05.**

Index Terms—**model, evaluation, cooperative learning, information process, speaking ability**

I. INTRODUCTION

Education field abounded with communication activity asks students to arouse their abilities to communicate well, both spoken and written (Darmuki, 2013). At the university level, students are demanded to communicate critically, speaking in particular (Maarof, 2012). Department of Indonesian Education offers a curriculum of speaking competence, exactly in Speaking course which aims at actualizing speaking ability in the daily life.

Along with the betterment of democracy condition, the speaking skill of students as the agent of change is really necessary in society. Speaking gives crucial contribution to students in order to have better communication skill (Rido et all, 2013). Learning process needs communication as the signal of effective and efficient interaction inside (Bahrani & Rahmatollah Soltani, 2008). Besides, the opportunity for students to speak directly is really needed to improve their speaking skill (Liao, 2009); (Alibakhsi & Padiz, 2011). A lecturer has to implement the management of interaction and elicitation upon the speaking technique to improve students' participation and create learning opportunity (Darmuki, 2013:75). Class interaction is really helpful for language learning (Rahman, 2014:1). The actualization of university students as the next generation is recognized from speaking ability. Students of Indonesian Language and Literature Department as the candidate of Indonesian teachers should be taught curriculum competence.

During the learning process at Education Institution of Teacher, many students have low speaking ability. They do not respond the learning process in the class. They as teacher candidates are expected to speak effectively. Effective communication only happens when the message can be received correctly by the receiver (Daryanto, 2010:59). To communicate effectively, a teacher candidate has to be able to process information well because information processing

refers to learning process (Wardhani, 1997:17). Teacher's success is characterized by attitudes of serious attention, never give up, understandable explanation, and good class management (Marland, 1990:13-14).

Teachers have essential roles in creating effective communication in the class. They must have influential factors such as personality, material acquisition, classroom management, speaking ability, classroom circumstance conditioning, having individuality principle, and open-minded (Suryobroto, 1997:163-164). Thornbury (2001:112) in How to Teach Speaking stated that a teacher should make a well lesson plan in teaching speaking by involving some steps as follows: (1) integrate speaking activity in the curriculum, (2) organize speaking activity in the syllabus, (3) have class discussion, (4) assess speaking activity, (5) give criteria of speaking assessment. In fact, the students have low ability in communication because they have low motivation on the speaking material. Besides, they do not have relevant information in their memories. In this case, having knowledge is not sufficient for teachers but they should also have the ability to deliver it to students.

Nurgiyantoro (2011:86) said that a productive language competence means the ability to produce language to be delivered to others. Productive language activity refers to speaker's activity to convey ideas, thoughts, feeling, and information messages. A speaker must have materials for speaking activity. Speaking merely means the ability to convey messages orally. Brown and Yule (2012:2) proposed speaking as the ability to pronounce language sounds to express or convey thought, ideas, and feeling orally. In line with the above opinion, Burhan Nurgiantoro (2011:276) argued that speaking is the second language activity done by human after listening. Speaking constitutes the ability to pronounce words (articulation sound) expressed to convey thoughts or ideas. St. Y. Slamet (2008:31) defined speaking as a communication tool commonly used in society. Go along with the previous definitions, speaking is a communication activity which invokes relationship between the speaker as the sender and the receiver as the listener (Darmuki:28). Thus, it can be concluded that speaking skill is producing articulation sound by processing the existing information in delivering ideas/thoughts, feeling, and desire to others.

Communication refers to deliver, receive, and transfer messages, ideas, opinions, and feeling (Sinayah et al, 2015:233-245). Communication is an important and complex thing as has been proposed by Leo F. Parvis (2001, Vol. 63) in his article entittled "The Importance of Communication and Public-Speaking Skill" as follows:

Communication, a complex process, is not an easy skill to perfect. Nevertheless, it is the most significant skill in human life. We hear this from the voices quoted in Karen Casey and Martha Vanceburg's Promise of a New Day: A Book of Daily Meditations: "What most of us want is to be heard, to communicate," says one. A second believes that "To live in dialogue with another is to live twice. Joys are doubled by exchange and burdens are cut in half". Life becomes so easy with communication. This necessity of life, however, must be done right.

Speaking becomes an essential skill that must be acquired by university students. Through good speaking skill, they can convey desire, information, thoughts, and ideas as well as persuade, convince, ask, and entertain others. Speaking activity reflects someone's ability to think.

Cooperative learning refers to a broader concept which comprises all group work particularly done under lecturer's direction (Andayani, 2014:195). In cooperative class, students are expected to help, discuss, and argue each other in order to sharpen their existing knowledge and close their gap in understanding (Slavin, 2009:4-8). Sugiyanto (2010:37) defined cooperative learning as the learning model which focuses on small groups of students to cooperate in maximizing the learning condition to achieve learning objectives. This model assists students to find new information, learn important skills, and process information obtained from previous learning (Arends, 2008:4). Riyanto (2010:267) stated cooperative learning as a learning model designed to teach academic skill as well as social and interpersonal skills.

Arends (2008:5) stated three purposes of cooperative learning i.e. academic achievement, tolerance, heterogeneity acceptance, and social skill development. Whereas Riyanto (2010:267) formulated the objective of cooperative learning based on its feature, they are individual, competitive, and cooperative. Principles underlines cooperative learning are positive independence, face to face instruction, individual accountability, use of collaborative/social skill, and group processing. Thus, cooperative learning contains some elements: (1) develop interaction which loves, educate, and foster each other as a life training in society; (2) positive interdependence; (3) individual responsibility; (4) face to face in learning process; (5) inter-group-member interaction; (6) evaluation on learning process through group.

The assumption of information processing are: (1) information processing happens at the stage of separating stimulus acceptance and response provision; (2) the analogy of information processing is computer processing (receiving information, keeping it in memory, getting it out whenever it is needed); (3) information processing involves all cognitive activities such as seeing, feeling, repeating, thinking, solving problems, remembering, forgetting, and telling.

Information-Processing-Based Learning Cooperative Model in Speaking

Cooperative Learning can be noticed from task structure, objective, and cooperative reward. Some features inside Cooperative Learning are as follows: (1) students work in a team to achieve learning objectives; (2) a team consists of students' achievement of low, medium, and high; (3) a team comprises a blend of race, culture, and gender; (4) reward system focuses on group and individual.

Cooperative learning on speaking follows some steps: (1) give information, objective, and learning scenario (the given information must be so familiar that it can be related to the discussed information); (2) organize students in

heterogenic; (3) guide students to cooperate each other (speaking activity is optimized for each individual); (4) evaluate performance by having group work presentation (the best presenter is asked to perform); (5) give reward.

Teaching and learning process can be carried out through network. Teacher can ease the process by helping students to relate new information with the existing knowledge in their memories. Meaningful information which then is explained, developed, and organized will be easy to merge in the network of Long Term Memory (LTM). Cognitive theories give many emphasizes on students 'information processing as the main cause of learning.

Evaluation on Cooperative-Approach-Based Speaking Learning Model

The general aim of speaking assessment is to figure out student's speaking ability. This aim is broken down into specific aim exactly to know the level of ability to express opinion, ideas/thought during discussion, question-answer, tell a story, give a speech and so forth. The means for measuring the speaking skill evaluation were test and non-test. There were two factors of speaking activity being assessed i.e. (1) language which comprises pronunciation, consonant, stress, articulation, rhyme, diction, expression, word variation, form, sentence structure, and sentence variation, (2) courage and passion which involves fluency, voice loudness, eye catching, movement and mimic, openness, reasoning and topic acquisition (Arsjad, 2008:87).

Evaluating someone's speaking skill, basically, must consider five factors: 1) are certain sounds (consonant) pronounced well, 2) are intonation patterns, sound decrease and increase, as well as syllable stress satisfying, 3) do the consistency and accuracy of pronunciation reflect that the speaker understands his/her language without internal reference, 4) are the pronounced words in the correct form and sequence, 5) how can someone's speaking reflects customary, fluency, or native-speaker sounds? (Tarigan, 2008:28).

Speaking assessment contains two aspects namely psychomotor and cognitive abilities. The former can be noticed from fluency and natural gestures while the latter comprises: (1) information accuracy; (2) inter-information relation; (3) structure and vocabulary accuracy; (4) fluency; (5) passage sequence customary; (6) pronunciation style (Nurgiantoro, 2001:278-292). The scoring rubric for oral language uses the model of O'mally and Pierce (1996:67) which is in line with Bailey's concept (2005:42) in which language features are comprehension, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and fluency. Based on the above opinions, it can be concluded that this research implements authentic assessment by observing and assessing student's performance on speaking in front of the class.

II. METHODOLOGY

The research setting for model evaluation trial was at three universities i.e. IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, Ronggolawe University-Tuban, and Darul Ulum Islamic University-Lamongan. The researcher employed the research design proposed by Fraenkel and Wallen (1990:237) namely two trial groups. One functioned as control group while the other functioned as experimental group. Both groups were given pre-test. Control group was treated by the usual learning model used at the campus so far. Experimental group was taught by the developed learning model of speaking skill. The different achievement of both groups was then compared. Interview and questionnaire were also implemented to know the response and suggestion from lecturers and students about the applied learning model.

The research populations were students of Indonesian Language and Literature Education Department at IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, Tuban, and Lamongan, while its samples were those of the first semester. Stratified random sampling was used as the sampling technique which based on the class quality at each campus (high, medium, and low). The research instruments were as follows:

1. Questionnaire

Some relevant literatures were used to develop the researcher's questionnaire by reviewing the learning model with cooperative approach. To obtain validity and delete the questionnaire ambiguity, the promoter and the lecturer of speaking course checked it.

2. Interview

The interview was intended for collecting information about lecturer perception and suggestion on the effectiveness of approach-based cooperative learning model. Interview guidance involves opened questions about evaluation, effectiveness, lecturer's learning objectives, and improvement on the learning model.

3. Speaking Skill Test

The speaking test aimed at to figure out the effectiveness or differences before and after using cooperative approach.

4. Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

FGD activity involved one lecturer of Surakarta State University as the expert in learning model development, some lecturers of speaking course, some students as the samples, and the researcher himself. This activity purposed to determine the strengths and weaknesses of cooperative-approach-based learning model.

The data analysis techniques utilized triangulation of mix-method design (a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research method) with embedded type by analyzing simultaneously to understand the research problem. In this case, quantitative data provide ways to make temporary generalization while qualitative ones reserved information on context and place.

Quantitative test was done by t-test in which the researcher used statistical program of SPSS to obtain fast and accurate data calculation. Qualitative descriptive analysis was carried out on the data of validation sheet and observation sheet of implementation phase. Besides, qualitative analysis aimed at describing students' speaking skills during the

learning process. The following data triangulation was conducted by analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data separately and then compared the results. Finally, the researcher made interpretation whether the data supported or opposed each other.

This research is a part of dissertation to be exact on the effectiveness test which aimed at testing the effectiveness of cooperative approach applied at three universities of IKIP PGRI Bojonegoro, Ronggolawe University in Tuban, and Darul Ulum Islamic University in Lamongan, East Java, Indonesia. The last phase called experimental phase/effectiveness test on the learning model with R&D research design was proposed for the scheme of Doctoral Dissertation Research. The figure below is the detail of R&D research stages which also became a research of doctoral dissertation:
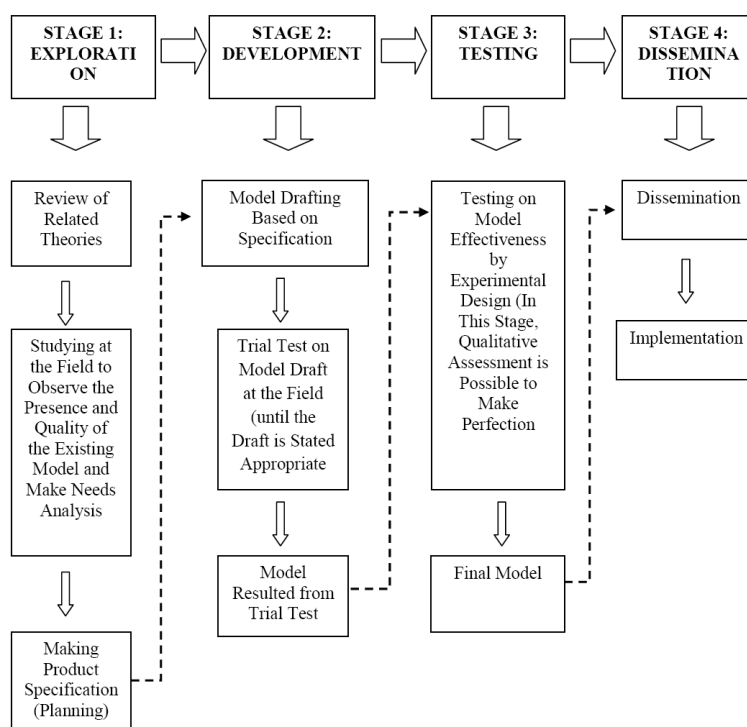
Figure 1. The Development Model of Research Adopted from Sukmadinata (2007)

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To show the effectiveness level of learning, the speaking ability before and after treatment must have comparison test. Before having speaking treatment, the speaking ability of students from both cooperative and conventional classes was relatively the same. However, after the students had got treatment, their speaking ability showed improvement by cooperative learning than by conventional one.

Based on the statistical test, $F_{calculation}$ between before and after the treatment obtained 57,062, while F_{table} was 3.91 at the significance level =0.05, so $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$. It means that cooperative approach has significant result in improving students' speaking ability at the university level (13.7531 < 16.3210).

After the students had obtained treatment of cooperative and conventional learning, their achievement showed different speaking abilities. The students with cooperative learning have the average score of speaking 16.3210, higher than ones with conventional learning in which score was 14.7654. Statistically, both scores are different because $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$ which derives from the analysis result of Anava test indicating $F_{calculation}$ of 22.141, F_{table} of 3.91 at the significance level =0.05. This difference indicated that cooperative learning gave significant influence to students' speaking ability.

The Analysis Result of Anava Test on Students Data

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY ON ANAVA TEST RESULT AT INDONESIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE EDUCATION

No	Group	Sum Squares	df	Mean Squares	$F_{calculation}$	F_{table}	P
1	I	21.025	1	21.025	2.476	3.91	< 0.05
2	II	94.556	1	94.556	11.380	3.91	> 0.05
3	III	257.556	1	257.556	30.810	3.91	> 0.05
4	IV	119.025	1	119.025	14.100	3.91	> 0.05

Notes:

I: The comparison of students' speaking scores of Indonesian Language and Literature Department between experimental and control groups pre treatment

II: The comparison of students' speaking scores of Indonesian Language and Literature Department between experimental and control groups post treatment

III: The comparison of students' speaking scores of Indonesian Language and Literature Department on both experimental groups pre and post treatment

IV: The comparison of students' speaking scores of Indonesian Language and Literature Department on both control groups pre and post treatment

Based on the analysis result of statistical data, the average score of speaking ability before having treatment was 16.4500 at experimental class and 15.7250 by conventional learning. $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$ as $F_{calculation}$ was 2.476 while F_{table} was 3.91 at the significance level =0.05. It means that before having treatment, both cooperative and conventional classes are quite the same in terms of student' speaking ability. The average scores of speaking ability after having treatment are 18.9875 by cooperative learning and 17.4500 by convention learning.

The effectiveness level of learning pre and post treatment can be noticed from comparison test on speaking ability scores before and after treatment of cooperative and conventional learning. The average scores of speaking ability pre treatment for both classes are relatively the same. However, after having treatment, there was improvement in speaking ability.

Based on the statistical test, $F_{calculation}$ of experimental group in pretest and posttest obtained 30.810 while F_{table} was 3.91 at significance level =0.05. Thus, $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$ which means that cooperative learning was proven in increasing student's speaking ability of Indonesian Language and Literature Education Department. The improvement of speaking ability also happened to conventional group in pretest and posttest in which $F_{calculation}$ was 14.100 while F_{table} was 3.91 at the significance level =0.05. However, the research results showed that cooperative learning was better in improving speaking ability than conventional learning.

After having treatment, the student's achievement in speaking ability showed differences between taught by cooperative and conventional learning. The students' average score of speaking ability by cooperative learning was 18.9875, higher than the ones by conventional learning which obtained 17.4500. Statistically, both speaking ability scores are different because $F_{calculation}$ was 11.380 while F_{table} was 3.91 at the significance level =0.05. Since $F_{calculation} > F_{table}$, it can be concluded that cooperative learning gave significant influence in improving speaking ability of students at Department of Indonesian Language and Literature Education. The result of questionnaire also indicated that cooperative learning is better than conventional one because many students preferred to use cooperative learning than conventional one.

The questionnaire result showed that the cooperative method is better than the previous one in terms of students' motivation. They have enjoyable learning in speaking and the feel confident to speak in front of the class as they had previously performed in a small group.

The lecturers gave positive responses on teaching speaking by cooperative approach. They felt more confident in implementing one of innovative learning due to the teaching guidance of speaking. These positive responses indicated that the development of speaking learning model at university level by cooperative approach was accepted. The acceptance of cooperative learning in teaching speaking is expected to bring better speaking teaching in the future, particularly at the university level. By cooperative learning, students who are reluctant to speak in front of the class will enjoy and dare to speak in front of others. They will change their thoughts from assuming speaking as difficult skill to be the easy one.

Based on the observation result during the learning process of speaking in the class, a description of students' activity and motivation was obtained as follows: (1) most students were active, creative, and could cooperate in group, (2) the students dared to speak both in group/in front of the class, (3) the students were pleased as the learning process began with many exercises in group. The lecturers and students then gave ovation and adulation to the performers. Therefore, the students did not feel shy and distressing to express ideas and thoughts coherently because they already have had rehearsal in small group. In terms of students' work, all groups could do the assignment well due to the given real example which can be seen, observed, and compared so that the students can distinguish between well-prepared and unprepared public speaking.

The Discussion on Model Effectiveness Test

The test on the effectiveness of cooperative approach toward students' speaking ability of Indonesian Language and Literature Education Department involved lecturers and students. This experimental study which invoked two groups i.e. experimental and control groups was conducted at Department of Indonesian Language and Literature of Bojonegoro Residency. All lecturers playing role as the collaborators in this research gave positive response on cooperative approach as the learning model. Cooperative learning formulated by Slavin (1985) means a learning model which demands students to work collaboratively in small groups of 4-6 with heterogeneous group structure.

The above research result of cooperative learning implementation is in line with the ones in previous research done by Slavin (1985) and Hertz-Lazarowitz et al (1993) which showed that CIRC-type cooperative learning was the best in improving language abilities (particularly in reading and writing). Moreover, National Reading Panel-USA (2000) recommended cooperative learning with Jigsaw and STAD types as the learning model for improving reading skill.

Slavin (2011:26-17) stated that a study on cooperative learning which focuses on group and individual accountabilities reveals positive impact on students' achievement from class 2 to 12 in all subjects of all schools. Cooperative learning is not only effective in students' achievement, but it also gives positive effects on inter-groups improvement (1995b), self esteem, school manner, and good acceptance from students with special needs (Ginsburg-Block, Rorbeck, & Fantuzzo, 2006; Shulman, Lotan, &Whicomb, 1998; Slavin, 1995a; Slavin at al, 2003).

All of the above results showed that the implementation of cooperative learning at all school types with various school backgrounds had significant improvement. The positive influence of cooperative learning also happened at speaking learning for university level. Significant improvement on students' speaking ability because of cooperative learning occurred at Department of Indonesian Language and Literature Education in this research. It can be seen from the comparison between pretest and posttest scores. Besides, the speaking ability of students taught by cooperative learning was better than by conventional one. The research result indicated that cooperative learning gave more significant influence to student' speaking ability than conventional one.

The same research on cooperative learning carried out by Klimoviene (2012), Meng (2010), Talebi (2012), Thuy (2005) brought to conclusion that cooperative learning is more effective than conventional one. This research result also supports theirs as cooperative learning gives students the opportunities to empower their liveliness. Based on the effectiveness test, it can be concluded that cooperative learning is more effective for speaking achievement of students at Faculty of Teacher Education in Bojonegoro Residency.

Some responses on the developing model were delivered by the lecturers as the following: (1) the model has so systematic delivery technique that make the students become active, (2) the materials presentation is student-centered so that it can arouse the students' meta-cognitive, meta-affection, and meta-psychomotor, (3) the developing model of learning speaking is very beneficial for lecturers as it eases them to teach speaking and makes the students happy, (4) the model can empower the students to think critically, creatively, and innovatively as it can be seen from the students' presentation in speaking coherently, (5) the model can improve the students' learning outcomes as it can unite the students to cooperate, become responsible of their work, feel free to argue, understand faster, and easy to remember the previous learning material, (6) the model can encourage the students to learn speaking regularly and grow the sense of belonging to Indonesian Language and Literature.

In addition, the lecturers also delivered some responses on the Guidance Book of Conducting Speaking Learning by Cooperative Approach as follows: (1) the guidance book is very helpful in implementing speaking learning in class with enjoyable circumstance, (2) the book has clear explanation and can be a reference for lecturers due to its systematical learning procedure and complete appendices, (3) the book has been in line with Instructional Analysis and has good supporting materials with many examples, (4) the details on how to conduct cooperative approach in learning speaking are also presented in the book, (5) the learning presentation of the book is student-centered in which evaluation comprises cognitive, affective, and psychomotor, (6) the book assists lecturers in teaching speaking for university level as its language is so communicative that can ease them in teaching students, (7) the book provides new ways in activating students, (8) the materials inside the book are presented in understandable words completed with explanation of material delivery, some examples, and lesson plan, (9) the book guides the students to be more creative, active, and critical in speaking fluently and coherently due to its learning instructions, (10) the book has structured pattern that can ease students to understand it, (11) the book guides students to speak at university level, (12) it provides unmonotonous learning for students and gives chance for lecturers to guide students' work, (13) through this book, the students are motivated to develop their speaking skill and have preparation before they perform speaking, (14) the students have been completed with information processing through this book so that they speak confidently, (15) by this book, the students are motivated to develop their speaking skill as they already have rehearsal in small group before they perform in front of the class.

The Head of Indonesian Education Department of Ronggolawe University in Tuban also gave some responses on the guidance book as the following: (1) the learning materials of the book has been in accordance with curriculum and appropriate to students' development, (2) the learning guidance can be applied for university level and has sequence in material presentation so that the speaking learning circumstance becomes enjoyable and the students get more active during the teaching and learning process. Almost similar responses were conveyed by the Head of Indonesian Education Department of Islamic University of Darul Ulum in Lamongan. He stated that: (1) the materials are complete, deep, and in line with instructional analysis as well as Basic Competence for speaking skill at university level, (2) the book concept is credible and accurate in which procedure is easy to implement in the class, (3) the materials can arouse learning motivation as they are delivered in varied methods which support various cultural, (4) the examples applied in the book come from daily life, (5) by student-centered cooperative learning, the students become creative in speaking for university level, they tolerate each other in giving opinions, thus, their learning outcomes are satisfied.

Based on all responses delivered by lecturers, it can be concluded that the developing speaking learning model in this research is well-received by the stakeholders (lecturers and the Head of Indonesian Education Department) as its implementation is easy and all students can understand it well.

IV. Conclusion

Learning speaking can be carried out by information-processing-based cooperative learning. Speaking skill needs the ability to choose message or information which will be communicated. It also requires language acquisition as a means of message conveying as well as language and non-language factors. Information processing which combined with some roles of group facilitates the students to develop potential of oral communication. The existing easy-to-remember information is related to the new one so that the students can respond and comment easily. The inhibitor factor of each student will be overcome through motivation, evaluation, and reward given to each group. The result of effectiveness test on the model by instruments and test indicated that the learning model of speaking by cooperative approach was effective. Thus, information-processing-based cooperative learning can improve the students' speaking ability.

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An Investigation into the Benefits of the Intercultural Approach to EFL Learning and Teaching: A Case Study of Taif University, KSA

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Abstract—**The purpose of this study is to investigate the potential benefits of using the intercultural approach to teaching English as a foreign language in the preparatory –year programme (male branch), Taif University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The intercultural approach is considered a viable means of foreign language education that seeks to address issues of culture in foreign language learning and teaching and how best to address them. Hence, this study intends to explore the attitudes of first year EFL Taif university students to the potential benefits of the intercultural approach to EFL. A sample of 200 EFL students participated in the study. Participants' views on the topic of the study are collected via a questionnaire the researcher designed and administered to the participants. In addition, the views of 50 EFL instructors teaching in the preparatory programme were gathered by a questionnaire regarding the topic researched. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the collected data.**

Index Terms—**awareness, approach, competence, intercultural, mixed-ability, target language**

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's EFL teaching-learning situation, it goes without saying that teaching English as a foreign language is not only related to the teaching of linguistic facts of the target language such as phonology, morphology, vocabulary and syntax. The contemporary models of communicative competence demonstrated that learning a foreign language brings together the vital components of cultural knowledge together with awareness, favourable attitudes to the target language and its culture and the motivation to learn them. To put it differently, the learning of English as a foreign language requires, in addition to the skills and mechanics of the language, a knowledge of some socio-cultural aspects of the target language.

Dobrovol'skij & Piirainen (2006), Colson (2008) and Williams (2010) claim that language is inseparable from its culture. Therefore, teaching any language will inevitably involve teaching its culture. Only through understanding the culture of the target language will a language learner be able to function properly in the language s/he is learning.

A. Literature Review

The intercultural approach to EFL is underlined by the multi-faceted word 'culture' which everybody inherently knows what it refers to and what it includes. Peterson (2004) envisages two levels of culture as is shown in the diagram below:

TABLE 1
(PETERSON'S LEVELS OF CULTURE)

	Big 'C' culture Classic or grand themes	Small 'c' culture Minor or common themes
Invisible Culture "Bottom of the iceberg"	EXAMPLES: Core values attitudes or beliefs, society's norms, legal foundations, history, cognitive processes,	EXAMPLES: Popular issues, opinion, viewpoint, preferences or tastes, certain knowledge (trivia fact)
Visible Culture "Tip of the iceberg"	EXAMPLES: Architecture, geography, classical literature, president or political figure, classical music	EXAMPLES: Gestures, body posture, use of space, clothing, style, food, hobbies, music artwork

It can be said that the diagram encompasses the external world of reality, a speech community and its distinct ways (i.e. culture) man-made things, and a language which is the means of bringing together all of the parts mentioned in the diagram. People use language to express facts, notions, feelings, likes and dislikes, name things, relate to one another, etc. Therefore, language, communication and culture go hand in hand in every human society.

In the context of EFL, learners are expected to achieve a degree of intercultural communication and understanding in relation to the target language and its culture. It is the duty of EFL teachers to make abundantly clear to learners that success in learning the English language requires not only knowing the words, spelling, grammar and syntactic structures of the language but also a working knowledge of the cultural aspects and meanings native speakers attach to

their language. Tomalin & Stempleski (1993) believed that injecting a culture component into the EFL learning materials helps learners to understand the following:

1. Culture influences the behaviours of speakers of all human languages.

2. Social variables such as age, gender, class, and place of residence affect the way individuals use their native language.

3. Certain situations require specific reactions depending on the native language.

4. Language units such as words and phrases have cultural elemenst.

5. Culture sharpens the ability to make generalizations about how speakers of the target language use their language.

6. Culture develops the necessary skills to understand how speakers of the target language organize their language.

7. Culture stimulates student's cognitive skills as to how to get along with speakers of other languages.

Likewise, Méndez García (2005: 208-210) sums up the importance of the presence of intercultural communication elements in the EFL syllabus for the following reasons:

• Enhancing students' knowledge of human languages.

• Acquainting them with the key behavioral patterns of the target societies.

• Promoting attitudes of respect and tolerance.

• Encouraging reflection upon one's own culture.

• Developing real intercultural communication in an intercultural world.

Of course, ELF learners, who are usually mature learners, come to the task of learning English having already acquired their L1 along with its socio-cultural modes of communication. Moreover, it is a known fact that EFL learners are usually monolingual and they learn English while living in their own country (Krieger 2005). On becoming EFL learners, students are faced with questions like these:

1. How to be competent using English in situations where culture determines language use?

2. Can they make use of their L1 culture in dealing with sociolinguistic situations that they are not familiar with in the FL?

3. Does comparing L1 culture to FL culture always work?

4. How rewarding is knowledge of the FL culture to EFL learners who are eager to succeed in learning the language?

5. What are the best ways to learn the cultural aspects of the FL in the context of EFL?

Developing adequate cultural awareness and understanding in the EFL context can be a tall order particularly in situations where the FL culture and L1 culture are quite distinct. Furthermore, it has to be born in mind that EFL learners do not have much access to the target language culture and therefore their ability to become culturally competent in the FL is very much reduced particularly if the materials and syllabuses they are using are not tailored to enhancing their socio-cultural competence in the FL. What was found to be working in building EFL learners' cultural awareness and understanding is time and adequate exposure. According to Tanaka (2006:37) EFL learners go through the following stages towards achieving cultural competence in target language:

First, Cross-Cultural Knowledge which is a prerequisite for cross-cultural understanding. The inability to appreciate other cultures often stems from the absence of knowledge about them. Respect and appreciation of a culture will be achieved if people are made familiar with it.

Second, with adequate Cross-Cultural Knowledge, people will develop Cross-Cultural Awareness i.e. they will show understanding and appreciation, which may be accompanied by changes in behaviour and attitudes towards the culture.

Third, proper cross-cultural awareness will naturally produce cross-cultural sensitivity which relates to the ability to read the situations, contexts and behaviors that are linked to culture. A suitable response indicates that not every time people bring their own culturally- determined interpretations of the situation and/or behaviour.

Fourth, only through the possession of adequate Cross-Cultural Knowledge, Cross- Cultural Awareness, and Cross-Cultural Sensitivity will learners achieve Cross-Cultural Competence which can be regarded as the final stage of cross cultural understanding and signifies the learners' ability to work effectively across cultures.

As this study seeks to answer the main question of why the intercultural approach to EFL is needed in today's world of foreign language learning and teaching can best be seen in the learner competencies list produced by the Council of Europe (2001). This list outlines five key competencies as follows:

1. Digital competence

This is about learners' ability to confidently and critically use information society technology for the purposes of work, leisure and communication.

2. Learning to learn

This competence is concerned with learners' readiness to withstand the difficulties to be encountered in learning and to organize their learning relying on the most effective learning strategies.

3. Communal competences

These involve personal, interpersonal and intercultural competences and cover all forms of behaviour that enable the individual to effectively take part in the social and working life in their communities.

4. Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship competence

This competence is concerned with the ability put ideas into actions. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking together with the ability to plan and control projects so as realize the stated aims

5. Cultural awareness and expression

This competence is said to help learners acquire the knowledge they need to learn in given any field of human knowledge. Thus, cultural awareness and expression are needed for the creative expression of ideas, experiences and emotions.

It is worth mentioning that this study focuses mainly on the last competence according to the European Council learner competencies list outlined above. According to Kiet Ho (2009:63), Intercultural language learning is the stance on language teaching and learning that emphasizes the interdependence of language and culture and the importance of intercultural understanding as a goal of language education. It is increasingly being promoted as a way to develop learners' ability to negotiate meanings in different languages which will ultimately prepare them to live in a multicultural world.

Judging by both EFL learners' and teachers' experience, it can be said that students' linguistic competence alone is sometimes insufficient for them to express their ideas and thoughts in the FL. Therefore, they need to develop their intercultural communicative competence together with their linguistic competence which is vital for effective cross-cultural communication. It is the conviction of the researcher that when EFL learners are exposed to the language via the intercultural approach, they get the benefit of developing their critical cultural awareness together with the skills to understanding and successfully interacting with people from other cultures, thus, they become interculturally as well as linguistically competent EFL learners.

In addition, EFL learners who learn the language through the intercultural approach are found to have the following characteristics:

1. Their behaviour:
   - Flexibility
   - intercultural approach
2. Their attitudes and/or affective capacities:
   - Acknowledgement of the identities of others
   - Respect for otherness
   - Tolerance for ambiguity
   - Empathy
3. Their Cognitive capacities:
   - Knowledge
   - Knowledge discovery
   - Interpreting and relating
   - Critical cultural awareness

(Byram, 2006: 22–26)

The communicative competence model of Canale and Swain (1980) is based on the understanding of the relationship between language and culture. Linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence each incorporates features of culture, and the development of these abilities is connected with the development of cultural awareness.

"The exquisite connection between the culture that is lived and the language that is spoken can only be realized by those who possess a knowledge of both" (1999: 47). In this respect bringing language and culture together for the sake of communication means more than using the four language skills. The role of culture here is seen as a facilitator to communicate with and understand speakers from different backgrounds.

Principles for Culture Teaching

Byram and Morgan (1994) stress that learners need to engage actively in the interpretations of the world and compare and contrast the shared meanings of both their own and foreign cultures. They should have access to routine and conscious knowledge held by the members of the foreign culture so that they can adjust to routine behaviors and allusive communication. They should also learn about institutions and artifacts like literature, film, history and political institutions in order to further analyze the values and meanings of foreign culture. Byram and Morgan also suggest the so-called "spiral curriculum" in which learners repeatedly encounter certain information and progress from a superficial acquisition of information to a more complex analysis.

Similarly, Kramsch (1993) emphasizes the importance of learner involvement into culture instruction by highlighting what she calls "new ways of looking at the teaching of language and culture, which include establishing a sphere of interculturality, teaching culture as an interpersonal process, teaching culture as difference, and crossing disciplinary boundaries.

Teaching culture as a component of foreign language learning has long been the concern of many scholars and researchers for decades, thus, different approaches to culture teaching have been put forward. Some of these approaches focus only on the culture of the country whose language is learned and is considered inadequate nowadays because it does not consider learners' understanding of their own culture. Other approaches seek to bring together the learner's native language culture and the target culture (Saluveer, 2004).

Risager (1998:243-252) describes four approaches to the teaching culture:
1. The intercultural approach
2. The multicultural approach

3. The transcultural approach

4. The foreign cultural approach

According to these four approaches, the intercultural and multicultural approaches include a considerable element of comparison. The transcultural approach presupposes foreign language as an international language. The foreign cultural approach only focuses on the target culture where the language is spoken.

B. Aims of the Study

The main aim of this study is to gain some insights as to whether the intercultural approach to learning and teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) offers substantial benefits to EFL university students in Saudi Arabia.

By conducting the study, the researcher would like to achieve the following objectives:

1. To study the effect of culture in EFL learning-teaching context.

2. To find out how the home culture of EFL learners affects their perception of the FL culture together with the English language itself.

3. To explore how the interaction between FL culture and the L1 culture affects positively and /or negatively EFL learners' attitudes towards learning the English language.

4. To raise EFL learners' awareness to the role culture plays in learning the English language.

C. Limitation of the Study

This study is limited to a group of beginning EFL learners (n= 200) taking a two-semester intensive English programme as part of the requirements to pursue BA study at Taif university, KSA during the academic year 2014-2015.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Questions of the Study

This study was conducted to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What effect(s) can culture have on EFL learning?

2. How likely are EFL learners going to benefit from the interplay of their L1 culture with the FL culture?

3. To what extent are EFL learners' attitudes to the English language shaped by the way they draw comparisons between the two cultures involved?

4. Can it be true that only highly motivated EFL learners are more likely to appreciate the role cross-cultural understanding plays in EFL learning?

5. Compared to other approaches to EFL learning and teaching, how effective is the intercultural approach with Saudi EFL learners?

B. Participants of the Study

The sample of the study (n=200) was randomly drawn from first-year EFL male students at Taif University, College of Education and Science in Khurma. 50 EFL instructors have also accepted to take part in the study by filling a questionnaire regarding their views on the benefits of the intercultural approach to EFL learning and teaching.

TABLE 2
(PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY)

	EFL students	EFL instructors
Study participants	n = 200	n = 50

C. Instruments of Data Collection

A two-section questionnaire was administered to the sample of the (n=200). In section (A) of the questionnaire, participants were asked to react to 20-culture related items taken from the different units of their textbooks. Responses are to be indicated using a scale ranging from very similar to very different the items are in their native culture and the target language culture (see appendix A).Section (B) of the questionnaire asks students to state whether they think that knowing about the formerly mentioned 20-culture related items in section (A) very useful, somewhat useful or not useful at all.

As for the 50 EFL instructors who participated in the study, the researcher requested them to fill a questionnaire of ten items asking their views as to what they think the intercultural approach to EFL can help their students to improve their competency and proficiency in the target language. The instructors' questionnaire uses a 3-point scale of agree, neutral and disagree (see appendix B).

III. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The data collected via the students' and instructors' questionnaires was statistically treated using measures of descriptive statistics especially the mean and the standard deviation. The first part of the analysis handles the data generated by the students' responses (n 200) to sections (A) and (B) of the questionnaire. Teachers' views (n 50) on the

intercultural approach to teaching English as a foreign language are tabulated and analysed in the second part of the analysis.

TABLE 3.1A
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION A OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	Very similar		Somewhat similar		Somewhat different		Very different	
		Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%
1	Foods and drinks	0	0	5	2.5	25	12.5	170	85
2	Family structure and relations	10	5	20	10	80	40	90	45
3	Men's wear	5	2.5	20	10	25	12.5	150	75
4	Women's wear	0	0	0	0	20	10	180	90
5	Use of photos	10	5	40	20	50	25	100	50
6	Daily routines	10	5	40	20	70	35	80	40
7	Leisure time	70	35	60	30	45	22.5	25	12.5
8	Eating with family and friends	20	10	30	15	30	15	120	60
9	Giving personal information	40	20	80	40	50	25	30	15
10	Men and women in public places	0	0	0	0	12	6	188	**94**

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

TABLE 3.1B
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION A OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	**Very similar**	**Somewhat similar**	**Somewhat different**	**Very different**	Mean	STDV
		Nr	Nr	Nr	Nr		
1	Foods and drinks	0	5	25	170	50	80.7
2	Family structure and relations	10	20	80	90	50	40.8
3	Men's wear	5	20	25	150	50	67
4	Women's wear	0	0	20	180	50	87
5	Use of photos	10	40	50	100	25	37
6	Daily routines	10	40	70	80	45	31.6
7	Leisure time	70	60	45	25	45	19.5
8	Eating with family and friends	20	30	30	120	45	46.9
9	Giving personal information	40	80	50	30	45	21.6
10	Men and women in public places	0	0	12	188	45	92

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

Tables 3.1a and 3.1b show respondents' answers to items one to ten of sections (A) and (B) of the questionnaire. According to table 3.1a respondents indicated their answers following a 4-point scale ranging from 'very similar' to 'very different' relating to ten items corresponding to the main topics of each unit in student textbooks English 1, 2 and 3. High among the items which respondents rated as very different between their L1 culture and the target language culture are: men mingling with women in public places 94% (the mean 45 and the StdDev 92); women's wear 90% (the mean 50 and the StdDev 87); foods and drinks 85%(the mean 50 and the StdDev 80.7)and men's wear 75% (the mean 50 and the StdDev 67).Interestingly, 70% of respondents rated the item leisure time' as very similar in both L1 culture and the target language culture. 60% of respondents regarded the item 'eating with family and friends' as very different in the two cultures compared. As for the item 'family structure and relations', respondents were almost split in the middle: 45% considered them as very different whereas 40% believed them to be only somewhat different.

TABLE 3.1C
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION A OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	Very similar		Somewhat similar		Somewhat different		Very different	
		Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%
11	Use of formal and informal names	20	10	30	15	50	25	100	50
12	Having a pet/ pets	15	7.5	40	20	55	27.5	90	45
13	Celebrating important events	25	12.5	50	25	60	30	65	32.5
14	Spending holidays	50	25	80	40	50	25	20	10
15	Respecting old people	15	7.5	35	17.5	60	30	90	45
16	Talking/ writing about one's own life experiences	10	5	40	20	50	25	100	50
17	Greeting/meeting other people	20	10	30	15	70	35	80	40
18	Visiting family members and friends	20	10	50	25	60	30	70	35
19	Sensitivity to gender issues	5	2.5	25	12.5	70	35	100	50
20	Planning for one's own future	30	15	50	25	50	25	70	35

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

Tables 3.1c and 3.1d show respondents' answers to the remaining statements of section (A) of the questionnaire. Half of the students who filled the questionnaire (n 200) stated that they find that the use of formal and informal names in L1 culture and the target language culture very different (i.e. 50%). May be this is due to the tradition in Arabic culture

whereby fathers and mothers are usually given the name of their elder child preceded by '*Abu*' means father of or '*Um*' means mother of. For example, if a couple had a first child named Ahmed, the father will be called *Abu-Ahmed* (father of Ahmed) and the mother will be called *Um-Ahmed* (mother of Ahmed). This tradition is generally upheld whether the elder child is a son or a daughter.

According to 45 % the respondents, having a pet/pets is very different in their culture compared to the culture of native English-speakers. Apart from using animals such as falcons and trained hunter dogs, Saudi city and town dwellers are rarely seen with cats and dogs as adults see the practice as more to do with children. Respondents' reaction to the statement about celebrating important events in the two cultures drew diverse responses ranged from somewhat similar (25%) to somewhat different (30%) to very different (32%). Regarding how the speakers of the two languages studied spend their holidays, the majority of respondents (i.e. 130 out of 200) have indicated that the two cultures are either somewhat similar (40%) or very similar (25%).

When it comes to the question of respecting old people, 45% of the respondents agreed that the L1 culture and the target language culture differ on the issue but not remarkably (the mean 45 and the StdDev 37). As to whether visiting family members and friends is similar or different in the two cultures compared, 35% of respondents stated that they are very different, 30% regarded the two cultures as somewhat different and 25% agreed that the two cultures are somewhat similar concerning the issue of visiting family members and friends.

According to respondents, the question of sensitivity to gender issues revealed that the answers tended to skew more to the somewhat different-very different sides of the scale. 170 of the respondents (n 200) tended to regard the L1 culture as either somewhat different or very different from the target language culture relating to sensitivity to gender issues. When respondents were asked about how do they culturally regard talking/ writing about their own life experiences, 50% (the mean 45 and the StdDev 29) did state that their L1 culture is very different from the target language culture on vis-à-vis the question. Concerning the issue of planning for their own future, respondents' answers scattered almost evenly along the three points of the scale of somewhat similar to somewhat different to very different; i.e. 25%, 25% and 35% respectively.

TABLE 3.1D
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION A OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	Very similar	Somewhat similar	Somewhat different	Very different	Mean	STDV
		Nr	Nr	Nr	Nr	45	35.6
11	Use of formal and informal names	20	30	50	100	45	31
12	Having a pet/ pets	15	40	55	90	45	17.8
13	Celebrating important events	25	50	60	65	45	24.5
14	Spending holidays	50	80	50	20	45	32
15	Respecting old people	15	35	60	90	45	37
16	Talking/ writing about one's own life experiences	10	40	50	100	45	29
17	Greeting/meeting other people	20	30	70	80	45	21.6
18	Visiting family members and friends	20	50	60	70	45	43
19	Sensitivity to gender issues	5	25	70	100	45	16
20	Planning for one's own future	30	50	50	70	45	35.6

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

In section (B) of the questionnaire, the students who participated in the study (n 200) were asked to indicate whether they find knowing about twenty of the target language culture-related items helpful in learning English. Responses were indicated on the basis of a three-point scale of very useful, somewhat useful and not useful.

TABLE 3.2A
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION B OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	Very useful		Somewhat useful		Not useful		Mean	STDV
		Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%		
1	Foods and drinks	85	42.5	90	45	25	12.5	66.7	36
2	Family structure and relations	70	35	120	60	10	5	66.7	55
3	Men's wear	70	35	110	55	20	10	66.7	45
4	Women's wear	60	30	100	50	40	20	66.7	30.6
5	Use of photos	95	47.5	80	40	25	12.5	66.7	36.9
6	Daily routines	65	32.5	120	60	15	7.5	66.7	52.5
7	Leisure time	60	30	100	50	40	20	66.7	30.6
8	Eating with family and friends	130	65	50	25	20	10	66.7	56.9
9	Giving personal information	88	44	90	45	22	11	66.7	38.7
10	Men and women in public places	70	35	100	50	30	15	66.7	35

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

According to the data in table 3.2a, the vast majority of respondents (i.e. 175 out of 200) did state that they find knowing about foods and drinks in the target language culture very useful in learning English. Regarding family structure and relations in the two cultures compared, 60% the students agreed that knowledge of the issue is somewhat

useful in learning the target language (the mean 66.7 and the StdDev 55). However, 55.5 of the participants pointed out that they consider topics in their EFL syllabus about visiting family members and friends very useful (see statement number eighteen, table 3.2b). Topics connected to men's and women's wears modestly feature on the English syllabus respondents study. When asked to state whether they find these topics useful to learn English, 55% indicated that they find topics about men's wear somewhat useful compared to 50% for women's wear. Given that the participants are all young male EFL students, topics related to women's wears are generally believed to be interesting and motivating for them to engage in classroom activities and discussions.

130 of the respondents (n 200) pointed out that they consider topics about eating with family and friends very useful in learning English. This may help them develop their English vocabulary pertaining to names and types of foods, table manners and etiquette in the target language culture compared to their L1 culture. Adult men and women who are not legally married or part of the immediate/ nuclear family are strictly forbidden to mingle in public places in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. 170% of the respondents ticked the very useful and somewhat useful scales of the questionnaire (35% and 50% respectively) concerning the issue of men and women socializing in public places.

It is not part of this study's aims or scope to ascertain whether the twenty items given in the questionnaire used to collect data for the study (and which match with titles of different units of students' English 1, 2 and 3 textbooks) are made according to any needs analysis survey. However, items like the ones in the questionnaire of the study are commonly found in EFL syllabi and widely accepted to motivate and enthuse learners in matters of communication and interaction.

The figures in table 3.2b show that the majority of respondents regarded knowing about how native English speakers respect their elders, how they spend their holidays and how they meet with /greet others as very useful (55%, 50% and 50% respectively). Concerning matters to do with sensitivity to gender issues, 50% of the students who took part in the study stated that they find topics in their EFL syllabus tackling gender issues as only somewhat useful.

Given that all of the respondents are very young Saudi EFL first-year university students, 130 participants (n 200) indicated that they find topics in the target language culture dealing with planning for one's own future as very useful(the mean 66.7 and the StdDev 60).

TABLE 3.2B
(STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO SECTION B OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Item	Very useful		Somewhat useful		Not useful		Mean	STDV
		Nr	%	Nr	%	Nr	%		
11	Use of formal and informal names	60	30	90	45	50	25	66.7	20.8
12	Having a pet/ pets	50	25	89	44.5	61	30.5	66.7	20
13	Celebrating important events	95	47.5	88	44	17	8.5	66.7	43
14	Spending holidays	100	50	70	35	30	15	66.7	35
15	Respecting old people	110	55	80	40	10	5	66.7	51
16	Talking/ writing about one's life experience	95	47.5	80	40	25	12.5	66.7	36.9
17	Greeting/meeting other people	100	50	88	44	12	6	66.7	47.7
18	Visiting family members and friends	111	55.5	80	40	9	4.5	66.7	52
19	Sensitivity to gender issues	77	38.5	100	50	23	11.5	66.7	39.5
20	Planning for one's own future	130	65	60	30	10	5	66.7	60

*Nr = number of respondents
*Total number of respondents = 200

Having dealt with the students' responses to sections (A) and (B) of the questionnaire administered to collect data on the benefits of the intercultural approach to EFL learning and teaching, we move on now to the analysis of the data relating to teachers' views on the issue. A ten-item questionnaire was filled by 50 EFL instructors teaching in the preparatory-year intensive English programme of Taif University, KSA. The questionnaire uses a three-point scale of agree, neutral and disagree.

TABLE 3.3
(INSTRUCTORS' RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE)

	Statement	AG Res	%	NU Res	%	DA Res	%	M	STDV
1	Intercultural learning activities help raise EFL learners' awareness.	35	70%	10	20%	5	10%	12	16
2	Intercultural learning activities make EFL learners good speakers of English	25	50%	15	30%	10	20%	5.5	7.6
3	Discussions based on intercultural topics help learners to generate ideas for writing tasks	40	80%	10	20%	0	0%	6	20.8
4	Intercultural learning techniques help EFL learners to become proficient readers in English	30	60%	15	30%	5	10%	4	12.5
5	Intercultural learning activities improve EFL learners' pronunciation	20	40%	20	40%	10	20%	3.5	5.7
6	The Intercultural approach to EFL encourage shy and introverted learners	25	50%	15	30%	10	20	3	7.6
7	Even mixed-ability EFL classrooms can be taught English via intercultural activities	35	70%	5	10%	10	20%	2.8	16
8	Intercultural learning activities may help motivate EFL learners to learn more languages	45	90%	5	10%	0	0%	2.6	24.6
9	Intercultural learning activities prepare EFL to Live and work abroad	30	60%	15	30%	5	10%	2.4	12.5
10	Intercultural learning materials make EFL learners more sensitive to politically-correct language.	25	50%	20	40%	5	10%	2	10

*number of respondents = 50   *AG= agree   *NU= neutral   *DA = disagree
*Res = respondents   M = mean   STDV = standard deviation

According to table 3.3, 70% of the instructors (n 50) who responded to the teachers' questionnaire (see appendix ii) agreed that intercultural learning activities help raise EFL learners' awareness to learning the target language. As to whether intercultural learning activities make EFL learners good speakers of English, 50% of the respondents did agree with the statement whereas 30% expressed uncertainty regarding the statement and 20 % disagreed with it (the mean 5.5 and the StdDev 7.6).

40 of the EFL instructors who participated in the study (n 50) agreed that discussions based on intercultural topics help EFL learners generate ideas needed for classroom writing tasks. In relation to the reading skill, 60% of the instructors who filled the questionnaire believed that intercultural learning techniques help EFL learners to become proficient readers in English. Interestingly, respondents' answers to the question whether intercultural learning activities improve EFL learners' pronunciation generated these responses: 40% agreed, 40% were neutral and 20% disagreed (the mean 3.5 and the StdDev 5.7).

Does the intercultural approach to EFL encourage shy and introverted learners? The figures in table 3.3 show that 50% of the instructors surveyed said yes to the question; 30% chose neither to be on the yes side nor on the no side of the question and 20% answered the question in the negative.

It goes without saying that all EFL instructors (the researcher is included) must have experienced working with mixed-ability classrooms in one way or another. Statement number seven of the questionnaire asked respondents whether they agree or disagree that the mixed-ability EFL classroom can be taught the target language via intercultural activities. 70% of the respondents agreed and 20% disagreed on the suitability of intercultural activities for mixed-ability EFL classrooms. In connection with the issue of motivation and EFL learners, 45 out of 50 of the instructors surveyed did agree that intercultural learning activities may help motivate EFL learners to learn more foreign languages.

Can intercultural learning activities prepare EFL learners to live and work in environments different from the ones they were born in? According to the views of 60% of the instructors who took part in the study, the answer is yes intercultural learning activities *can* prepare EFL learners to live and work abroad compared to 30% who said they were not sure whether they can. Statement number ten of the questionnaire asked instructors whether they agree that EFL learners who are exposed to the target language through intercultural learning materials are more sensitive to politically-correct language. 50% of the instructors indicated their agreement with the statement, while 40% said they were not certain about the issue.

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Based on the data analysis of the two instruments of data collection this study employed (i.e. students' and instructors questionnaires), a number of results were arrived at. Data was analysed using several measures of descriptive statistics, specifically, percentage tally, the mean and the standard deviation. In connection with the results and findings, a couple of caveats must be stated: first, these results and findings are of significance only in relation to the group of EFL students (n 200) who participated in the study. Second, the views expressed by the EFL instructors who took part in the study (n 50) may not necessarily be representative of EFL teachers in other parts of the world.

1. Although the majority of the students participated in the study indicated that the they find most of the questionnaire items (e.g. foods and drinks, men and women wear, men and women in public places) very different in

the L1 culture vis-à-vis the target language culture, yet they agreed that it is important for them as students of English to know these culture-specific differences.

2. Among the items respondents agreed are somewhat similar between the two cultures studied are the following: daily routines, giving personal information, celebrating important events and spending holidays.

3. The only item on the questionnaire rated as similar in both the L1 culture and the target language culture is the way leisure time is spent.

4. According to the teachers' questionnaire, the majority of the EFL instructors surveyed agreed that the intercultural approach to EFL has a lot of potential for EFL students regarding most of the language skills. In addition, the approach can also motivate students and raise their awareness to features of the target language and may prepare them to live and work in cultures different from the ones they were born in.

5. The intercultural approach to EFL instruction can be used with mixed-ability classrooms and it may also help shy and introverted learners to overcome their fears working with other class mates.

6. Half of the instructors who returned the questionnaire (n 50) did agree that intercultural learning materials may make EFL students more sensitive to using and understanding politically-correct language.

As to the extent to which the results and findings of the study may have provided some answers to the questions of the study the following can be established:

With regard to questions one and three of the study, the former asks about the effect(s) culture can have on EFL learning and teaching whereas the latter asks whether EFL learners' attitudes to the English language may have been shaped by the way they draw comparisons between the two cultures involved, the figures in tables 3.1a, 3.1b, 3.1c, 3.1d, 3.2a and 3.2b lend a lot of support for saying that culture substantially affects the way EFL learners perceive the task of learning a foreign language. Likewise and given that the study participants are all very young freshmen Saudi university students and they have access to state-of-the-art technologies to connect with the rest of the world, culture comparison must be something they are aware of and interested in.

How likely are EFL learners going to benefit from the interplay of their L1 culture with the FL culture is the second question the study asks. Both of students' and instructors' responses to the questionnaires show that awareness of target language culture by way of comparing it to L1 culture especially during classroom activities, helps a lot in matters to do with motivation, lowering shy students' affective filter and generating ideas for discussions and writing tasks.

Question five of the study asked the EFL instructors who responded to the questionnaire whether they consider the intercultural approach with Saudi EFL learners effective in comparison to other EFL approaches. Instructors' answers to statements number one, three, four, seven, eight and nine of the questionnaire (see table 3.3) indicate that they regard the intercultural approach with Saudi university EFL students effective.

V. Conclusion

This study was conducted to investigate the potential benefits of the intercultural approach to EFL learning and teaching. 200 first-year Taif University male students and 50 of their instructors teaching at the English language centre's preparatory year two-semester intensive programme took part in the study. The main aim of the study was to gain some insights as to whether the intercultural approach to learning and teaching English as a foreign language offers substantial benefits to EFL university students in Saudi Arabia.

Two instruments of data collection were employed: students' questionnaire and instructors' questionnaire. The data generated was statistically treated using several measures of descriptive statistics. Based on the statistical analysis, a number of results were arrived at which showed that the questions this study was meant to provide answers for may have sufficiently been answered.

APPENDIX A. STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Section (A)
Dear student,
According to what you have studied in your textbooks English 1, 2 and 3; comparing your own Arabic culture to the cultures of English-speaking people in the three textbooks, **how do you think the following features are similar or different from your own culture?** *(Tick √ your answer)*

	Feature	Very similar	Somewhat similar	Somewhat different	Very different
1	Foods and drinks				
2	Family structure and relations				
3	Men's wear				
4	Women's wear				
5	Use of photos				
6	Daily routines				
7	Leisure time				
8	Eating with family and friends				
9	Giving personal information				
10	Men and women in public places				
11	Use of formal and informal names				
12	Having a pet/ pets				
13	Celebrating important events				
14	Spending holidays				
15	Respecting old people				
16	Talking/ writing about one's own life experiences				
17	Greeting/meeting other people				
18	Visiting family members and friends				
19	Sensitivity to gender issues				
20	Planning for one's own future				

Section (B)

According to what you have studied in your textbooks English 1, 2 and 3; comparing your own Arabic culture to the cultures of the English-speaking people in the three textbooks, **which of the following features do you think are useful to know about and which are not?** *(Tick √ your answer)*

	Feature	Very useful	Somewhat useful	Not useful
1	Foods and drinks			
2	Family structure and relations			
3	Men's wear			
4	Women's wear			
5	Use of photos			
6	Daily routines			
7	Leisure time			
8	Eating with family and friends			
9	Giving personal information			
10	Men and women in public places			
11	Use of formal and informal names			
12	Having a pet/ pets			
13	Celebrating important events			
14	Spending holidays			
15	Respecting old people			
16	Talking/ writing about one's own life experiences			
17	Greeting/meeting other people			
18	Visiting family members and friends			
19	Sensitivity to gender issues			
20	Planning for one's own future			

Thank you very much for your time
Dr. Amir H. Abdalla
English Dept
May 2015

APPENDIX B. INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear colleague,

This questionnaire is intended to collect your views regarding the potential benefits of the intercultural approach to EFL learning and teaching at Taif University, KSA.

Please respond to each of the following statements by ticking (√) your choice:

	Statement	AG	NU	DA
1	Intercultural learning activities help raise EFL learners' awareness to learning the target language.			
2	Intercultural learning activities make EFL learners good speakers of English.			
3	In relation to classroom writing practices, discussions based on intercultural topics help EFL learners generate ideas needed for the writing tasks.			
4	Intercultural learning techniques help EFL learners to become proficient readers in English.			
5	Intercultural learning activities improve EFL learners pronunciation.			
6	The Intercultural approach to EFL may encourage shy and introverted learners to overcome their learning difficulties.			
7	Even mixed-ability EFL classrooms can be taught the target language via intercultural activities.			
8	Intercultural learning activities may help motivate EFL learners to learn more foreign languages.			
9	Intercultural learning activities prepare EFL learners to live and work in environments different from the ones they were born In.			
10	EFL learners who are exposed to the target language through intercultural learning materials are more sensitive to politically-correct language.			

I very much appreciate your cooperation and insights
• AG = Agree
• UD = Undecided
• DA = Disagree
Dr. Amir H. Abdalla
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May 2015

<div align="center">REFERENCES</div>

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Phonemic Interference of Local Language in Spoken English by Students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University

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Abstract—In the process of learning foreign language, learners often face a number of difficulties. The difficulties are related to learning new phonemics, new vocabulary, and various ways of arranging words into sentences in a new language. Learning English for students of Lambung Mangkurat University is a difficult matter. This is because their habit in using local language (Banjarese) is said to be strong, so it is difficult for them to change it. As a result, they simply apply the pattern and the phonemic rules of Banjarese language into English. This causes interference.In detail, the interference is caused by many differences between the two languages, namely Banjarese language and English. Banjarese language has 3 vowels, while English has 12 vowels. Banjarese language only has 3 diphthongs, whereas English has 9 diphthongs. Banjarese language only has 18 consonants, while English has 24 consonants. Given that the students' habit in speaking Banjarese language has been strong and there are many differences of phonemic elements, interference phenomenon cannot be avoided, which is, in this case, phonemic interference.

Index Terms—language learning problems, phonemics, Banjarese, students' habit, and phonemic interference

I. INTRODUCTION

In the effort of learning English, learners frequently face difficulties. According to Ramelan (1977), the difficulties faced by the learners are connected to learning new sound systems, new vocabulary, and various ways to arrange words into sentences (p. 6). The difficulties faced by learners can cause a number of errors in using the language being learned, both in speaking and writing. Dulay and Burt, for instance, posit that foreign language or second language learners always make errors. In this case, they state that "You cannot learn without goofing" (Richards, 1985, p. 95). The term 'goof' as what they propose means a deviation from phonetic and grammatical patterns from the original language (namely English).

The error made by learners as the result of the application or the use of the elements of first language while speaking or writing in second or foreign language is called as interference. Djinal et al. (1992) studied syntactical interference of Indonesian language in the use of written English by the students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University. There are some points which affect the errors in using languages. First, before learning foreign or second language, learners have mastered their first language and use it based on the system of the language. Each language has their own system which is different from other languages. The system of first language which is different from the language system being learned can cause the occurrence of language errors on the target language. Second, in the process of learning second or foreign language, the language of instruction used is the first language, so in learning the language the learners still think by using their first language.

Language errors caused by interference can occur on the language system which includes phonemics, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Moreover, interference occur both in spoken and written languages. This study is limited on the phonemic interference of local language (Banjarese) toward spoken language.

Research Problems

Based on the background of the study, the research problems are formulated as follows:

a. Do errors occur as the result of phonemic interference on the use of spoken language by the students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University, Banjarmasin?

b. Which phonemes of Banjarese language are applied in the use of spoken English by the students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University, Banjarmasin?.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A person who is learning a second or foreign language encounters difficulties in the learning process. This is what we have been aware of. Since childhood, they have been speaking in their first language. This language has been instilled in themselves and become a part of their habits. Their speech organs have been accustomed to produce speech sounds of the language. This habit obviously make it difficult for them to change the ways of moving their speech organs to produce speech sounds of a foreign language.

Speaking is a habit. The acquisition of habit is through repetitive and continous practice. To acquire a local language, a person must goes through imitation process and repetition of utterances expressed by the people around them. They can speak in a manner like the people do after learning the language for six to eight years.

At the years ahead, they want to learn a second or foreign language, which means that they will learn a set of new language habit. Since they already had habits in their first language, the effort of learning a new language will be collided with their established language habit. From this point, they encounter problems in leanring the foreign language.

With the presence of the problems, they might apply the features of the language they have mastered into the language they are learning. Accordingly, interference phenomena will occur.

All in all, in the description of the theoretical framework, the researcher need to point up some issues related to interference, namely bilingualism, speakers who do interference (bilinguals) and the comparison between the phonemic system of Banjarese language and the phonemic system of English.

Bilingualism

An ideal concept of bilingualism refers to "native-like control of two languages". In this regard, Bloomfield in his book "Language" asserts:

In the extreme case of foreign language learning, the speaker becomes so proficient as to be indistinguishable from the native speaker around him. This happens occasionally in adult shifts of language and frequently in the childhood shifts just described. In the case where this perfect foreign learning is not accompanied by loss of the native language, it results in bilingualism, native-like control of two languages (Bloomfield, 1935, p. 56).

Thus, according to Bloomfield, if a person is learning a foreign language and can use the language perfectly without loosing their ability in their first language, the person has achieved "native-like control of two languages". However, if the person cannot differentiate the two languages during the contact, which means the two languages are used alternately, related to the use of the rules of each language, the person will do code-switching, code-mixing or interference.

There are other factors which influence speakers to use two languages alternately or do bilingualism. A person might have a perfect mastery two languages or reach "native-like control of two languages" linguistically, but in fact, the use of language is always affected by nonlinguistic factors. It can be stated that no matter how perfect the foreign language mastery of someone, there are features of their first language (the language they have mastered earlier) which appear in their utterances or writing when they use the foreign language.

Other delimitation on bilingualism is proposed by Mackey (in Fishman, ed., 1972, p. 555): "the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual".

Bilingual

If the term 'bilingualism' is used to refer to "the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual", bilingual means an individual who is involved in the practice of the use of two or more languages. Bilingual is an individual who use two or more languages alternately.

Bilinguals who are called as "incipient bilinguals' by Diebold J. are those who have bilingualism at the stage of learning and they have minimum bilingualism ability. These bilinguals have not made meaningful and complete utterances yet (in Soetomo, 1985, p. 11). A person who is bilingual having "native-like control of two languages" as stated by Bloomfield is called as equilingual or balanced lingual, terms proposed by Raffler-Engel (in Soetomo, 1985, p. 11).

Interference

Interference, as stated by Mackey (in Fishman, 1972, p. 569), is the use of elements of a language to another language while speaking or writing. The other definition of interference is a deviation which occurs toward the norms of each language in the practice of the use of two languages by individuals, as stated by Weinrich as follows:

The practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism and the persons involved, bilingual. Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language will occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of language contact, will be referred to as interference phenomena (Weinrich, 1968, p. 1).

In the process of learning English (or can be said as a process to be bilingual speaker), the students are still at the level of "incipient bilingual" or bilingual speakers at the stage of learning. At this level, the students still experience problems in learning the system of speech sounds of the new language, new vocabulary, and the ways to arrange new words into new phrases, clauses, and sentences.

The interference phenomena which are said to be the results of mastering two or more languages by individuals might occur at all linguistic components, namely phonology/phonemics, morphology, syntax, and semantics. This study limits the analysis on the phonemic interference.

The phonemic interference which would be analyzed is the phonemic interference of local language (Banjarese) produced by the students in pronouncing English sounds. The analysis of the phonemic interference is conducted through contrastive analysis, namely comparing the phonemic systems of Banjarese language with English. This is meant to find pronunciation of English sounds which involves the phonemic system of Banjarese language.

The following is the description of the comparison between phonemic system of Banjarese language and phonemic system of English.

The Comparison between Phonemic System of Banjarese Language and Phonemic System of English.

One of the characteristics of a language is that a language is always spoken. All people in this world, without looking at their race or ethnical groups, always speak in a certain language. This means that they have a certain way to communicate ideas by manipulating sounds produced by their speech organs.

Speech sounds are defined as sounds which are produced by humans' vocal organs or speech organs and consist of vowels and consonants. The consonants are combined with vowels to produce a number of morphemes or words. Morphemes or words in the huge number can also be combined to form bigger utterances, such as phrases, clauses, sentences and so on in a bigger number as well.

Thus, a language consists of two levels of structures, namely syntactic level structure and phonological level structure. At the syntactic level structure, sentences are represented or described as a combination of words, while at the phonological level structure, sentences can be represented as holistically combination of phonemes.

Phonemes have a very important role given that if two utterances are different in their pronunciation, the listener interpret these utterances as utterances with different meanings. A small difference which can distinguish utterances with different meanings is the difference of a phoneme (Gleason, 1981:9). The study of phoneme is called as phonemics or phonology. Before describing the phonemic system of Banjarese language and that of English, several definitions of phonemics and phonology are given as follows:

1. Phonology (is the study which) deals with the phonemes and sequences of phonemes (Gleason, 1961, p. 11).

2. Phonology is concerned with this kind of linguistic knowledge. Phonetics provides the means for describing speech sounds; phonology studies the ways in which speech sounds form systems and patterns in human language. The phonology of a language is then the system and pattern of the speech sounds (Fromkin & Rodman, 1974, p. 102).

3. When we study speech sounds with a view to finding out the significant units of sounds in a given language, the science is called "phonemics". These significant units of sounds distinguish utterances and are called "phonemes" (Ramelan, 1977).

Referring to the mentioned scopes of phonology or phonemics, we can state that phonology or phonemics is a branch of linguistics which studies speech sounds by considering the function of the speech sounds to differentiate meanings. Moreover, phonemes from one language are definitely different from phonemes from other languages. Therefore, language learners obviously encounter a number of problems in imitating the phonemes from the foreign languages. As a result, they produce phonemes of foreign language with the phonemic systems of their own. This phenomenon actually happens toward foreign language learners (in this case English) whose Banjarese language background.

Phonemic System of Banjarese Language

A unit of speech sound which can differentiate meaning is called as phoneme. A phoneme, according to Fromkin and Rodman (1978, p. 107) is a more abstract unit than a phone. Because of the abstract characteristic of phoneme, one should know the phonological rules of a certain language to know how to pronounce the phoneme.

Vowels

Vowels in Banjarese language are /a/, /i/ and /u/. These vowels can be put at the initial position, middle position and final position.

Examples:

Phonemes	Initial position	Middle position	Final position
/i/	/ilat/ 'tongue'	/kilik/ 'pickaback'	/tali/ 'rope'
/a/	/abah/ 'father'	/arah/ 'direction'	/asa/ 'one'
/u/	/uma/ 'mother'	/uyut/ 'great-grand mother'	/uhu/ 'bad'

In Banjarese language, there are vowel systme with the three phonemes, namely /a/, /i/, and /u/. Two of them have variation as follows:

a. /a/ can be realized as [ə]

  /kamana/ -   [kəmana]   'where'

b. /u/ can be realized as [ɔ]

  /butul/ -   [bɔtəl]   'bottle'

  /kawu/ -   [kawɔ]   'you'

  /rawut/ -   [rawɔt]   'expression'

Consonants

Consonants in Banjarese language are as follows: (/b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /c/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /s/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ny/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /w/, /y/

Distributions of Consonants

Phonemes	Initial position	Middle position	Final position
/b/	/bara/ 'ember'	/tabas/ 'slash'	-
/p/	/parak/ 'near'	/tapak/ 'knock'	/calap/ 'dye'
/t/	/tada/ 'save'	/hatap/ 'roof'	/ilat/ 'tongue'
/d/	/dara/ 'pigeon'	/hadap/ 'to face'	-
/c/	/calap/ 'dye'	/racap/ 'frequently'	-
/j/	/jajak/ 'stampede'	/tajak/ 'stick'	-
/k/	/karak/ 'crust'	/bakal/ 'candidate'	/parak/ 'near'
/g/	/garu/ 'garuk'	/sagan/ 'for'	-
/s/	/sadaŋ/ 'enough'	/pasan/ 'bundle'	/hampas/ 'throw'
/h/	/hadaŋ/ 'wait'	/rahat/ 'frequent'	/usah/ 'chase'
/m/	/mara/ 'direction'	/humap/ 'sultry'	/masam/ 'sour'
/n/	/nani/ 'this one'	/manaŋ/ 'win'	/sagan/ 'for'
/ny/	/nyariŋ/ 'loud'	/hanyar/ 'new'	-
/ŋ/	/ŋaran/ 'name'	/buŋul/ 'stupid'	/guriŋ/ 'sleep'
/l/	/lapar/ 'hungry'	/tilam/ 'mattress'	/sumpal/ 'plug'
/r/	/rancak/ 'frequently'	/karap/ 'kerap'	/libar/ 'wide'
/w/	/warik/ 'monkey'	/hawar/ 'throw'	-
/y/	/yakin/ 'sure'	/uyah/ 'salt'	-

Diphthongs
Diphthongs in Banjarese language are as follows:
/ai/   /mamai/   'scold'
/au/   /mamau/   'lost'
/ui/   /tangui/   'broadleaf hat'

Distribution of Diphthong

Diphthong	Initial position	Middle position	Final position
/ai/	-	/kaina/ 'later'	/balanai/ 'pot'
/au/	-	/sauda/ 'no'	/badau/ 'large wounds'
/ui/	-	/kuitan/ 'parent'	/rupui/ 'crumble'

The Phonemic System of English
The number of English phonemes is more than the number of Banjarese phonemes. From this fact, it can be assumed that English learners with Banjarese language background would encounter many difficulties at their initial learning stages.

Vowels
English vowels are classified into three groups:
a. Front, Central and Back Vowels
b. High, Mid, Low Vowels
The terms 'high', 'mid' and 'low' in regard to vowel sounds refer to the differences of tongue height. The vowels are /i:/, /i/, /u:/, /u/ (for high vowels); /e/, /a:/, and /a/ (for mid vowels); and /æ/, /ɔ/, /ʌ/, and /ɔ:/ (for low vowels). If the tongue is lifted and it reaches the highest position, high vowels are produced. If the tongue position is under the highest position, the produced vowels are mid vowels. Moreover, if the tongue is at low position, low vowels are produced.
c. Rounded and Unrounded Vowels
This classification is related to lip shape while producing speech sounds. If both lips (upper and lower lips) round while producing the sounds, vowels produced are round vowels. Round vowels are /ɔ/, /ɔ:/, /u/, /ʊ/ and /u:/.

Diphthong
There are 5 closing diphthongs and 4 centering diphthongs in English. The first 5 diphthongs are /eɪ/, /ou/, /əɪ/, /au/, and /ɔɪ/ and the last 4 diphthongs are /ɪə/, /uə/, /ɛə/, and /ɔə/.

Consonants
The classification of consonants can be explained as follows:
a. Based on the place where optimum obstruction occurs, English consonants can be classified as follows:
   1. Bilabial consonants: /p/, /b/, /m/, /w/
   2. Labiodental consonants: /f/ /v/
   3. Dental consonants: /θ/, /δ/
   4. Alveolar consonants: /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /r/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/
   5. Palatal consonants: /y/
   6. Velar consonants: /k/, /g/, /ŋ/
   7. Glotal consonants: /'/, /h/
b. Based on manner of obstruction, English consonants consists of:
   1. Plosive consonants : /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /'/
   2. Africative consonants: /tʃ/, /dʒ/
   3. Fricative consonants: /f/, /v/, /θ/, /δ/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/
   4. Nasal consonants: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/

    5. Lateral consonants: /l/

    6. Semi-vowel consonants: /y/, /w/

  c. Based on the activity of the vocal cords, English consonants are calssified as follows:

    1. Voiced consonants: /b/, /d/, /dʒ/, /g/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, / ʒ/

    2. Voiceless consonants: /p/, /t/, /tʃ/, /k/, /f/, /θ/, /s/, / ʃ/

Possibilities of Phonemic Interference

It has been explained earlier that the phonemic system of Banjarese language is much different from the phonemic system of English. English phonemes vary more than Banjarese phonemes do. Thus, it can be assumed that learners with Banjarese language background will have many problems in pronouncing English phonemes in accordance with English phonology.

The researcher assumed some possibilities of phonemic interference of Banjarese language into English utterances by English learners, namely the students of English Department Lambung Mangkurat University whose native language is Banjarese language, as follows:

1. Vowel /i:/ can be found in the following English words:

meet	/mi:t/	key	/ki:/
he	/hi:/	beat	/bi:t/
see	/si:/	bean	/bi:n/
bee	/bi:/	least	/li:st/

These phonemes are not found in Banjarese language. This may let interference take place with the use of Banjarese phonem /i/. Thus, the possibility of representation of phonem /i:/ as /i/ is as follows:

/mit/	/ki/
/hi/	/bit/
/si/	/bin/
/bi/	/list/

This type of pronunciation error is classified into <u>interference a</u>.

2. Vowel /æ/ in English can be found in the following words:

band	/bæ nd/	land	/læ nd/
bad	/bæ d/	sad	/sæ d/
bat	/bæ t/	bag	/bæ g/
man	/mæ n/	gas	/gæ s/

These phonemes do not exist in Banjarese language. This makes the students replace phoneme /æ/ with the existing phoneme in Banjarese language, which is /a/, so interference is likely to occur, as can be seen in the following phoneme pronunciation:

/band/	/land/
/bad/	/sad/
/bat/	/bag/
/man/	/gas/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference b</u>.

3. Since there are no phonemes /ɔ/, /ɔ:/ and /u:/ in Banjarese language, these phonemes are likely to be replaced with phoneme /u/. The replacement can be seen in the following examples:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
gone	/gɔn/	/gun/
lodge	/lɔdʒ/	/lud/
cord	/kɔ:d/	/kud/
fool	/fu:l/	/ful/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference c</u>.

4. The absence of phoneme /ə:/ in Banjarese language creates a possibility of the use of phoneme /i/ in representing phoneme /ɛ/ in English. The examples are as follows:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
bird	/bə:d/	/bid/
first	/fə:st/	/pist/
firm	/fə:m/	/pim/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference d</u>.

5. The absence phoneme /a:/ in Banjarese language creates a possibility of the use of /a/ to pronounce the following words:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
far	/fa:/	/fa/
card	/ka:d/	/kad/
hard	/ha:d/	/had/
heart	/ha:t/	/hat/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference e.</u>

6. Phonemic interference is likely to occur because of the absence diphthong /oʊ/ in Banjarese language. The phoneme is replaced with /u/. For examples:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
code	/koʊd/	/kud/
rode	/roʊd/	/rud/
tone	/toʊn/	/tun/
coast	/koʊst/	/kust/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference f.</u>

7. The next possibility of the occurrence of phonemic interference is because of the absence of diphthong /eɪ/ in Banjarese language. This phoneme is replaced with /ɪ/ or /aɪ/ (diphthong /aɪ/ exists in Banjarese language). The examples are as follows:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
raid	/reɪd/	/raɪd/ or /rɪd/
main	/meɪn/	/maɪn/ or /mɪn/
late	/leɪt/	/laɪt/ or /lɪt/
wait	/weɪt/	/waɪt/ or /wɪt/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference g.</u>

8. The other possibility of the occurrence of phonemic interference is because there is no diphthong /aʊ/ in Banjarese language. This phoneme is then replaced with /au/ or /u/. The examples are as follows:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
how	/haʊ/	/hau/ or /hu/
found	/faʊnd/	/faun/ or /fun/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference h.</u>

9. Regarding the aspiration, both languages have differences one another. Aspiration is not recognized in Banjarese language. English phonemes /p/, /t/, and /k/ are realized with aspiration if they are located at the initial syllable followed by stressed vowels, as said by Fromkin and Rodman (1978:116) that "Aspirate voiceless stops at the beginning of a word or syllable before stressed vowels". "Voiceless stops" are /p/, /t/, and /k/.

Consequently, these phonemes are not aspirated by the students. The examples are as follows:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
time	/tʰaɪm/	/taɪm/
pen	/pʰɛn/	/pen/
key	/kʰi:/	/ki/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference i.</u>

10. English phonemes /f/ and /v/ are likely to be replaced with phoneme /p/ by the students. This is because of the absence of these phonemes in Banjarese language. The examples can be seen in the following words and pronunciation:

Pronunciation in English		Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
firm	/fɜ:m/	/pə:m/
wife	/waɪf/	/waip/
movement	/mu:vmənt/	/mupmənt/
love	/lʌv/	/lap/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference j.</u>

11. Phonemes /b/, /d/ and /g/ are recognized both in English and Banjarese language. When distributed, these phonemes only appear at the initial and middle position in Banjarese language, whereas they appear at the initial, middle, and final position in English. Since these phonemes never appear at the final position in Banjarese language, the students who are learning English tend to replace the phonemes /b/, /d/ and /g/ with /p/, /t/, and /k/ respectively. It means that phoneme /b/ is replaced with /p/, /d/ is replaced with /t/ and /g/ is replaced with /k/. The examples can be seen in the following:

	Pronunciation in English	Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
robe	/roʊb/	/roʊp/
bag	/bæ g/	/bæ k/
code	/koʊd/	/koʊt/
cord	/kɔːd/	/kuːt/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference k.</u>

12. In English, phonemes /θ/ and /δ/ exist while they do not in Banjarese language. Orthographically, the phonemes are symbolized as *t*. In Banjarese language phonemes /t/ and /d/ are recognized. The English phonemes /θ/ and /δ/ are high likely to be pronounced by the students with Banjarese language as /t/ and /d/. The examples can be seen in the following:

	Pronunciation in English	Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
thank	/θæŋk/	/teŋk/
bath	/baːθ/	/bat/
that	/δæ t/	/det/
this	/δɪs/	/dɪs/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference l.</u>

13. In English, phonemes /s/ and /z/ are two different phonemes. These phonemes can appear at all positions: initial, middle, and final. In contrast, Banjarese language only recognizes one phoneme, namely /s/. Thus, the students who are learning English will face difficulties in producing sound or phoneme /z/ and they tend to replace it with phoneme /s/ as it exists in their language. The examples can be seen in the following:

	Pronunciation in English	Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
zink	/zɪnk/	/sink/
lazy	/leiziː/	/lisi/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference m.</u>

14. In English, there are phonemes /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, while no such phonemes exist in Banjarese language. This creates problems for the students with Banjarese language background. They tend to replace the phonemes with phoneme /s/ like what exists in their language. The examples are as follows:

	Pronunciation in English	Pronunciation in Banjarese phonology
she	/ʃiː/	/si/
shin	/ʃiːn/	/sin/
ash	/æ ʃ/	/æ s/
mash	/mæ ʃ/	/mæ s/
rouge	/ruːʒ/	/rus/
mirage	/mɪraːʒ/	/miras/
camouflage	/kæ muflaːʒ/	/kamuflas/

This type of pronunciation error is then classified into <u>interference n.</u>

Based on the aforementioned description of interference, it can be concluded that the students of English Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Lambung Mangkurat University, Batch 2016/2017 are the students who are assumed to still have difficulties in pronouncing English phonemes. This is because the phonemic system of local language (namely Banjarese language) is much different from the phonemic system of English.

The difficulties may emerge because of the influence of the phonemic system of Banjarese language, which has been mastered and used in daily lives, toward English which is being learned. The influence of phonemic system of Banjarese language toward the phonemic system of English is called as phonemic interference. (Besides phonemic interference, there are other terms of linguistic interference, namely morphological, syntactical, and semantic interferences).

III. Research Method

A. Basic Assumptions

The basic assumptions in this study are as follows:
a. Bilingualism
Bilingualism is the use of two or more languages alternately by individuals.
b. Interference
Interference is a deviation occurred on the norms of each language in the practice of using two or more languages by individuals. Interference can occur on all linguistic components. In this study, the focus of the problems is on phonemic interference.
c. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is the analysis conducted on the differences between target language and source language. The differences can occur on all linguistic components. In this study, the analysis was conducted on the phonemic components.

B. Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study was formulated as follows:

"Errors occur in the realization or the representation of English phonemes resulted from the interference of phonemics system of Banjarese language in spoken language of the students of English Department, Lambung Mangkurat University."

C. Research Method

Research method employed was descriptive method. Descriptive method describes and interprets current condition. Descriptive research is related to the existing condition or relationship, current practices, beliefs, perspectives or attitudes, processes, or prevailing tendencies. The main objective of descriptive research is to picture and describe a condition naturally as it is at the moment (Ary et al., 1979, p. 25).

Regarding the characteristics of the research problems and the types of the data to be obtained in this study, the phonemic interference of Banjarese language which occurred in spoken English of the students of English Department. Lambung Mangkurat University. The spoken English was uttered by the students while they were taking Intensive Course.

D. Population and Sample

Population is a number of individuals who have the least similar characteristics. The population of this study comprised all the students of English Department, Lambung Mangkurat University who were taking Intensive English Course and their first language is Banjarese language. There were 85 students whose native language is Banjarese language.

The number of the students was relatively big. In order to guarantee that the respondents could be accessible during the field observation, it is necessary to take a part of them for being the research samples. In this study, random sampling technique was used. Using this sampling technique, 45 students were chosen as the research samples.

E. Data Collection Technique

The data were obtained by assigning the students to read predetermined English texts. The texts were created by considering the phonemes which were prone to interference.

F. Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted by collecting the words that were incorrectly pronounced. Among the incorrectly-pronounced words, some words were selected on the basis of errors caused by the phonemic interference of Banjarese language. Then, the selected words were categorized based on the types of interference. The categorization was performed by using an instrument in the form of the detail of the interference types as presented and described in Literature Review part.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Data Description

The data of this study were English words which were pronounced or uttered incorrectly according to English phonemics. The words were obtained from the recording result on the pronunciation of sentences or words during speaking or reading aloud activities of the students of English Department, Lambung Mangkurat University.

In analyzing the data, first, the words which were incorrectly pronounced (not suitable with English phonemics) were found. Among the number of the incorrect pronunciations, pronunciation errors resulted from the phonemic interference of Banjarese language toward English were searched. The words with incorrect pronunciation were categorized based on the types of the interference which occurs. The instrument of categorization can be seen at the end of Chapter II (Literature Review).

Based on the analysis, the data of phonemic interference were obtained as follows:

1. Vowel /i:/ was replaced with vowel /i/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
He	/hi:/	/hi/
see	/si:/	/si/
key	/ki:/	/ki/
beneath	/bɪni:θ/	/bɪnit/

2. Vowel /u:/ was replaced with vowel /u/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
prove	/pru:v/	/pruʋ/
crew	/kru:/	/krʋ/
rule	/ru:l/	/rʋl/

3. Vowel /a:/ was replaced with /a/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
laugh	/la:f/	/laf/
guard	/ga:d/	/gad/
park	/pa:k/	/pak/

4. Diphthong /ou/ was replaced with /u/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
code	/koud/	/kud/
no	/nou/	/nu/
show	/ʃou/	/su/
bone	/boun/	/bun/

5. Diphthong /eɪ/ was replaced with /ɪ/ or /aɪ/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
late	/leɪt/	/lɪt/
tail	/teɪl/	/tɪl/
fail	/feɪl/	/faɪl/
raid	/reɪd/	/raɪd/
bay	/beɪ/	/baɪ/

6. Diphthong /au/ was replaced with /u/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
allow	/ə'lau/	/əlu/
count	/kaunt/	/kun/
how	/hau/	/hu/
town	/taun/	/tun/

7. Consonants /p, t, k/ were not aspirated.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
key	/kʰi:/	/ki/
people	/pʰi:pl/	/pipl/
time	/tʰaim/	/taim/

8. Consonants /f, v/ were replaced with /p/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
wife	/waɪf/	/waɪp/
save	/seɪv/	/sɪp/
life	/laɪf/	/laɪp/

9. Consonant /b/ was replaced with /p/, /d/ was replaced with /t/. And /g/ was replaced with /k/.
   Examples:

English words		pronounced as
rob	/roub/	/roup/
robbed	/roubd/	/roubt/
bag	/bæg/	/bæk/

10. Consonant /θ/ was replaced with /t/, consonant /ð/ was replaced with /d/.
    Examples:

English words		pronounced as
think	/θɪŋk/	/tiŋ/
theory	/θɪərɪ/	/tɪəri/
this	/ðɪs/	/dɪs/
they	/ðeɪ/	/deɪ/

11. Consonant /z/ was replaced with /s/.
    Examples:

English words		pronounced as
because	/bikɔ:z/	/bikɔs/
his	/hɪz/	/his/
houses	/hauzɪz/	/hauses/

12. Consonants /ʃ,ʒ/ were replaced with /s/.
    Examples:

English words		pronounced as
she	/ʃi:/	/si/
ship	/ʃɪp/	/sip/
pleasure	/plɛʒə:/	/ples:/
treasure	/trɛʒə:/	/tres:/

B. Discussion

From the obtained data on the errors resulted from interference <u>a</u>, it can be explained as follows:

In English, speech sounds /i:/, /ɪ/, /i/ exist, while in Banjarese language, only sound /i/ exists, like in words *ikam* /ikam/, *ibit* /ibit/, and *inggih* /iŋgih/. This causes difficulties for the students whose language background is Banjarese language to pronounce /i:/ as in word <u>see</u> /si:/. Therefore, there is a tendency for them to pronounce /si/.

(1) From the obtained data on the errors resulted from interference <u>c</u>, it can be explained as follows:

Not all the vowels are affected by interference <u>c</u> as explained in the previous point. To be specific, all vowels /ɔ, ɔ:, u:/ are not replaced by /u/. The interference only occurred on vowel /u:/ in which /u:/ was replaced with /u/. The replacement of vowel /u:/ takes place since in Banjarese language only sound /u/ is known as in word *urak* /urak/ and *buruk* /buruk/.

(2) From the obtained data on the errors resulted from interference <u>e</u>, it can be explained as follows:

Since in Banjarese language only vowel /a/ is known, the students whose Banjarese language background find it difficult to pronounce sound /a:/, like in word <u>far</u> /fa:/. They tend to pronounce it /fa/.

(3) In the case of interference <u>f,</u> it can be explained that diphthong /ou/ does not exist in Banjarese language. Consequently, there is a tendency that the students whose Banjarese language background replace diphthong /ou/ with /u/ since sound /u/ is close to diphthong /ou/. They pronounce word <u>code</u> with sound /u/, namely /kud/ which is supposed to be /koud/.

(4) Regarding interference <u>g</u>, the replacement of /eɪ/ with /ɪ/ is caused by the absence of diphthong /eɪ/ in Banjarese language. Students with Banjarese language background tend to replace diphthong /eɪ/ with /ɪ/ or /aɪ/ since they are already accustomed in using it in their language, such as in word ilat /ilat/ and kaina /kaina/. The word <u>late</u> was pronounced /lɪt/, and <u>fail</u> was pronounced /fail/.

(5) Regarding interference <u>h</u>, diphthong /au/ is not known in Banjarese language. Similar to interference <u>f</u>, the closest sound to /au/ is /u/. In Banjarese language, sound /u/ exists. Therefore, the students with Banjarese language background replace the sound /au/ with /u/. For instance, word <u>town</u> /taun/ was pronounced as /tun/.

(6) In the case of interference <u>i</u>, in Banjarese language there is no aspiration for sounds /p/, /t/ and /k/ in certain position. In contrast, English recognizes aspiration for sounds /p/, /t/ and /k/ if the sounds appear at the beginning of a word or syllable before stressed vowels as explained by Fromkin : "Aspirate voiceless stops at the beginning or a word or syllable before stressed vowels" (1978, p. 116). As a result, English learners whose Banjarese language background tend to not aspirate sounds /p/, /t/ and /k/ at the positions explained by Fromkin.

(7) Interference <u>j</u> is related to the absence of sounds /f/ and /v/ in Banjarese language. Thus, English learners whose Banjarese language background tend to replace sounds /f/ and /v/ with /p/ as sound /p/ is the closest sound to /f/ and /v/.

(8) Interference <u>k</u> is related to the system of English language which allows sounds /b/. /p/, /d/, /t/, /g/ and /k/ to appear at all positions (initial, middle, and final). In Banjarese language, sounds /b/, /d/, and /g/ never appear at the final position and they are replaced with allophones /p/, /t/, and /k/ respectively. This hinders English learners whose Banjarese language background to produce sounds /b/, /d/, and /g/ at the final position in English and tend to replace them with sounds /p/, /t/, and /k/ respectively.

(9) Interference <u>l</u> is related to the absence of sounds /θ/ and /ð/ in Banjarese language. The closest sound to /θ/ is /t/, while the closest sound to /ð/ is /d/. English learners whose Banjarese language background tend to replace /θ/ with /t/ and /ð/ with /d/.

(10) In interference m, sound /s/ and /z/ are pronounced as /s/ at the final position. Sounds /s/ and /z/ at the initial and middle position can be distinguished by learners. The replacement of sounds /s/ and /z/ is caused by the absence of sound /z/ in Banjarese language.

(11) Regarding interference n, learners have difficulties in producing the sounds that do not exist in their language, namely /ʃ/ and /ʒ/. This fact enforces them to replace these sounds with the closest sound, namely /s/.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusions

Based on orientation results, field observation, data analysis and data interpretation as described in this report, several conclusions can be drawn as follows:

(a) Banjarese and English languages have major differences in terms of phonemes. Banjarese language only has 3 vowels (/a/, /i/ and /u/), while English has 12 vowels (/iː/, /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /æ/, /a/, /aː/, /ɔ/, /ɔː/, /u/, /uː/, /ə/, and /əː/. Moreover, Banjarese language has 18 consonants (/b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /c/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /s/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ny/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /w/, /y/). In contrast, English has 24 consonants (/b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /'/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, /s/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /w/, /y/).

Banjarese language has 3 diphthongs, namely /ai/, /au/, and /ui/, while English has 9 diphthongs, namely /eɪ/, /ou/, /aɪ/, /au/, /ɔɪ/, /ɪə/, /uə/, /ɛə/ and /ɔə/.

The major differences of phonemes and phonemic system between Banjarese language and English cause difficulties for students with Banjarese language background. As a result, linguistic phenomenon occurs, namely phonemic interference.

(b) The possibilities of interferences b and d do not occur in students' utterances. In other words, interferences b and d were not found in this study although phonemes investigated using the instrument of this study do not exist in Banjarese language.

B. Suggestions

As the implications of the research results, the researcher suggests the followings:

(a) Lecturers, especially those who teach speaking course, are supposed to provide adequate pronunciation practice to their students and give accurate pronunciation model based on English phonemics.

(b) Students who still face many difficulties in the pronunciations English phonemes are suggested to do more practice individually and in groups.

(c) Future researchers are supposed to conduct similar research to obtain data of other two possibilities of interference which have not been found in this study.

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Explicitation in Translation: A Case of Screen Translation

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Abstract—**Explicitation is a method of clarifying into the TT what is implicit in the ST. Blum-Kluka (1986) formulated explicitation hypothesis and regarded explicitation as a translation universal, i.e. a feature that is mainly existed in the translated texts. So, the present study considers expliciation in screen/film translation, and tries to investigate the most frequent explicitation type and subtitling strategies used by the Persian subtitlers. To achieve the goals of the study, the three original English films subtitled into Persian language were selected and the first 20 minutes of them was studied and compared with their Persian equivalents through sentence-by-sentence comparison. The subtitling strategies were identified and their percentage was calculated. The findings indicated that translation-inherent explicitation was used mostly in subtitling, and expansion was the most frequent subtitling strategy employed by the Persian subtitlers in subtitling English original films into Persian.**

Index Terms—**audiovisual translation, English language, explicitation, Persian language, strategies, subtitling**

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is a way of transferring ideas and facilitating communication among nations and translators should be qualified in a wide range of issues especially Source Language (SL), Target Language (TL) and content of translation as one element. Hence, as Gouadec (2007) mentions "languages are essential, but insufficient; what is needed beyond absolute linguistic proficiency is a perfect knowledge of the relevant cultural, technical, legal, commercial backgrounds and full understanding of the subject matter involved." (p. xii) He further argues that translation allows effective communication; and "it is vital for the dissemination of goods, products, services, concepts, ideas, values, etc.." (p. 5) Reiss and Vermeer (Cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004) also assert that translation of a text should perform the concerned purposes of it in the TL and culture. Gouadec (2007) states that translators must comply with the following issues: (a) the client's aims and objectives; (b) requirements of the users; (c) the standards and conventions, value systems, modes of reasoning, terminology, etc. of the related community, so the translation must represent the community of the people speaking that specific language. He also enumerates the features of quality translation: (a) accuracy which means the contents should be conveyed truly; (b) meaningfulness: the message must be meaningful in the TL and culture; (c) accessibility: readerships of the translation should be able to understand the information and message conveyed through translation; and (d) effectiveness: translation must fulfill the purposes of its users.

When translating from one language into another, different issues should be considered by translators such as semantic, syntactic, etc. Preserving natural and clear meaning of the ST in translation needs understanding original text, its purpose and readership in the TL. Therefore, in those cases which TT is not clear for readerships, translators add some elements to clarify meaning, i.e. they turn to explicitation. Séguinot (1988) argues that explicitaion should be considered as additions which cannot be expressed by structural, and stylistic differences between the SL and TL and further reiterates that addition is only one way of showing explicitaion; other ways are the cases where: (a) implied information are overtly expressed in translation; (b) the elements of SL text are given emphasis in translation by various methods such as focus, emphasis and lexical choice. This research is a focus on explicitation in subtitling original English films into Persian language.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Subtitling is a form on AVT which is increasing in screen translation all over the world. Therefore, when subtitling in the act of translation from one language into another, subtitlers face different issues such as how to subtitle verbal-visual signs, kinetic elements, silences in the film, etc.. The subtitlers should identify such elements in the film and render them in the written form of TL as accurately and naturally as possible. Hence, spoken forms are different from

written ones and subtitlers should take these issues into account. In general, they should subtitle films and their audiovisual elements in such a way that be comprehensible to the TLs' viewers. To achieve this goal, loss and gain are necessary in the process of translation when subtitling. Thus, one of these strategies is explicitation which helps subtitlers to make film more understandable to the audiences, and it is of an absolute necessity for natural and accurate subtitling when films and audio-visual products are translated.

III. Significance and Purpose of the Study

Subtitling and its strategies in translation is one aspect of AVT and the subtitlers should have careful attention to the aim, audiences, and TL norms. The study helps researchers in the field of translation especially AVT. It is also to the benefit of the translators, film/screen translators, and is a helpful source for the translation students. It can also open a new avenue for subtitlers. The purpose of the study was to identify subtitling strategies in translation and explicitation type into account in AVT genre.

IV. Research Questions

1. Is there any explicitation in subtitling film from English into Persian, and if yes, what is the most common explicitation type?
2. What is the most frequent subtitling strategy from English into Persian in AVT?

V. Review of the Related Literature

Explicitation and implicications are issues which exist mostly in spoken and written. Becher (2011) defines implicitness as "the non-verbalization of information that the addressee might be able to infer." (p. 18) From his point of view, explicitness refers to verbalization of information that can be understood if not stated clearly. The focus of attention in this study is on explicitation, so implication needs a separate research.

Blum-Kluka (1986) introduces the term explicitation hypothesis in translation studies and argues that in rendering and interpreting SL into the TL text, translators might produce a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. Séguinot (1988) further states that "explicitation should therefore be reserved in translation studies for additions in a translated text which cannot be explained by structural, stylistic, or rhetorical differences between the two languages." (p. 108) He phrases that explicitation has three forms in translation: (a) an element or item which is not in the ST but experienced in translation; (b) an item which is implied in the ST is explicitated in the TT; and (c) an item in the ST is getting more attention and importance in translation by emphasizing and lexical choice.

Baker (1993) argues that universals of translation are features which are common in translated texts rather than original ones; and states that they are identified by contrastive analysis of Source Text (ST) and their translations. She identifies some of these features as follows: (a) simplification; (b) avoidance of repetitions existing in the SL; (c) explicitation; (d) distinctive distribution of lexical items; (e) discourse transfer; and (f) normalization. Pym (2005) also expresses that "explicitation takes place, for example when a SL unit of a more general meaning is replaced by a TL unit of a more special meaning; the complex meaning of a SL word is distributed over several words in the TL." (p.4)

One aspect of Audiovisual translation (AVT) is screen translation which has different varieties such as subtitling, dubbing, etc.. This study considers one form of screen translation i.e. subtitling. It is identified as a special type of translation. (Hatim & Mason, 1997). Gottlieb (1998) enumerates two forms of subtitling namely intralingual and interlingual subtitling; by intralingual he means subtitling within SL itself, and interlingual subtitling refers to subtitling in the TL. These two kinds of subtitling are used as a way of teaching and learning foreign languages. (Diaz Cintas, 2009; Gambier, 2003). Gottlieb (1998) also maintains that "subtitles usually consist of one or two lines of an average maximum length of 35 characters, and they are placed at the bottom of the page in general." (p.245) From his perspective, semiotic composition, time and duration, and pragmatic dimension are distinctive features of subtitling. Under semiotic composition he argues that translators have four channels for communication in film and screen programs: (a) "the verbal auditory channel; including dialogue, background voices, and sometimes lyrics; (b) the non-verbal auditory channel including music, natural sound, and sound effects; (c) the verbal –visual channel including written signs on the screen, and (d) non-verbal-visual channels are picture composition." (p. 245) By time and duration he mentions time for text production and its presentation in the TL; and pragmatic aspect should consider audience understanding of the film. The study aimed at investigating explicitation in AVT. Klaudy (1998) defines explicitation as a technique which produces and makes clear that information in the Target Text (TT) that is implicit in the Source Text (ST) and asserts that explicitation is inherent in the act of translation. Klaudy (1998) introduces different types for explicitation: (a) obligatory explicitation which consider semantic and syntactic differences between the two languages, so this type is obligatory since without applying them in translation, TL sentences are not correct grammatically; (b) optional explicitation relating to stylistic difference and text building strategies between the two languages; they are optional because neglecting them lead to unnatural texts while the texts are grammatically correct; (c) pragmatic explicitation considers cultural difference among languages; i.e. in cases where there are cultural difference between the two language such as food items, geographical names, etc., the translator uses explicitation to avoid ambiguity and (d) translation- inherent explicitation related to the nature of the translation process itself.

VI. AUDIOVISUAL TRANSLATION

Diaz Cintas (2009) states that there are two basic approaches in transferring the original speech into another language" either oral output remains oral output, as in the original production, or it is transformed into written output; if the first option is adopted, the original soundtrack is replaced by a new one in the TL, a process which is generally known as revoicing". (p.4) AVT has a wide variety, film translation is one part of AVT; TV series, documentaries, videogames, etc. constitute other aspects of AVT (Diaz Cintas, 2009). AVT is ever increasing in the globe especially in the area of screen translation. In AV genre, the translators render the spirit of the work to their audience rather than providing a literal translation of spoken words (pettit, 2004).

In language transfer on the screen, the replacement of material from one language into another may be total, as in the cases of lip sync dubbing and narration where we do not hear the original soundtrack; or partial, as in voiceover and interpreting where the original soundtrack can be heard in the background (Diaz Cintas and Anderman, 2009).

Bartrina (2004) states that synchrony between verbal and non-verbal messages are of paramount importance and necessity to understanding the intended meanings in AVT. Diaz Cintas (2009) also states that "AVT is the means through which not only information but also the assumptions and values of the society are filtered and transferred to other cultures". (p. 8) He further argues that in AVT, translators should have close attention to the audiovisual context, to the established relationships between images, character interaction and individual verbal strategies, i.e. they should consider semiotic aspects of AVT.

VII. SUBTITLING AND DUBBING

Based on Diaz Cintas (2009) subtitling, dubbing, and voice over are three modes of AVT. According to him "subtitling involves presenting a written text, usually along with the bottom of the screen, which gives an account of the original dialogue exchanges of the speakers as well as other linguistic elements which form part of the visual image (insert, letters, graffiti, banners and the like) or of the soundtrack(songs, voices off)." (p.5) According to Pettit (2004) "in a subtitled version the viewer hears the dialogue in another language, reads the subtitle and watches the picture; in a dubbed version, the viewer listens to a translated version of the original dialogues while watching the original image." (p.31)

Georgakopoulou (2009) argues that "subtitles need to comply with certain levels of readability and be as concise as necessary in order not to distract the viewer's attention from the programme." (p.21) From his point of view, the shift from speech to writing form is a challenging issue for subtitlers; for instance, pauses, false starts, unfinished sentences, ungrammatical constructions, slips of the tongue, dialectal, idioletcal and other pronunciation features are difficult to render in subtitling in writing form. Considering subtitling strategies, Georgakopoulou (2009) highlights that reductions is obviously the most important strategy in subtitling, and the expansion rate is 30% to 40% when translating from English into most European languages. As for subtitling, Pettit (2004) mentions that in AV genre especially in news programme and documentary "the subtitler prefers to remain very close to the original dialogue ensuring that the audience will receive the essential facts with the esthetic concerns being of lesser importance." (p. 37) Sanchez (2004) maintains that subtitling methods and procedures depend upon client and studio.

Dubbing also refers to the replacement of the original soundtrack with that of the TL so that TL sounds and the actors' lip movement synchronized, and the TL viewers believe the actor on the screen are speaking their language. (Diaz Cintas, 2009) Voice over also represents "reducing the volume of the original soundtrack to a minimal auditory level, to ensure that the translation, which is orally overlapped onto the original soundtrack, can be heard by the target audience." (Diaz Cintas, 2009, p. 5) He argues that in this mode of AVT the recoding of translation finishes seconds before the end of the original speech, therefore, provide the audience with the chance to listen to the original speech on the screen. From his point of view, dubbing, subtitling, and voiceover are translational modes which belong to audiovisual text type as opposed to written and spoken text types. Baker and Hochel (1998) also introduce subtitling and dubbing as the most well-known modes of AVT. But Bassnet (2002) puts subtitling and dubbing on the category of literary translation. Zoepettit (cited in Diaz Cintas, 2009) phrases that nonverbal elements of films are often neglected in translation when subtitling since they cannot be produced in written text into the TL. Perego (2003) also emphasizes that neglecting nonverbal elements in subtitling affect understanding and comprehension of the message since nonverbal dimensions transfer the information for the SL to TL and also complete the verbal message and support those strategies which attach great importance to the silences, kinesics, proxemics, and other paralinguistic features in translation when subtitling. As for subtitling and dubbing, Sanchez (2004) argues that subtitled and dubbed dialogue do not synchronized; and time discrepancy is one issue which leads to differences in subtitled version and dubbed one of a film.

Considering subtitling strategies, Gottlieb (1994) enumerates the following strategies: (a) transferring; (b) expansion; (c) condensation; (d) paraphrase; (e) imitation; (f) transcription; (g) omission; (h) resignation; (i) decimation and (j) dislocation. Regarding these strategies, he mentions that omission strategy, transcription, dislocation, and condensation are used with highest frequency in subtitling. Sanchez (2004) also identifies four subtitling methods namely pre-translation, spotting, adaptation and translation. Jabbarzadeh (2007) studied ten Iranian and American subtitled film with focusing on translational norms. She found that in these subtitled films, the informal forms were replaced by

formal ones; the culture specific items: (a) were replaced by proper target culture specific items; (b) were omitted; (c) were preserved and also were translated to be understandable. Jabbarzadeh further came up with the result that verbal visual signs were not subtitled, songs were either subtitled or not subtitled; and social dialects were also preserved. Roozgar (2007) studied textual explicitation in expressive and informative text types. In his study the data were extracted of the first 200 translated sentences of the three informative and expressive text types. The STs were analyzed to identify explicitation cases. The study came to the conclusion that firstly, informative texts are explicit by nature and are more explicit than expressive ones; secondly, explicitation is much higher in the translation of informative texts than expressive ones.

VIII. METHOD

This study was a descriptive one in nature, and the purpose was to consider explicitation in subtitling film from English into Persian and also to identify the most frequent type of subtitling strategies used by the subtitlers in subtitling English films into Persian language. To achieve the goal of the study, three original English films subtitled into Persian were chosen and the first 20 minutes of them were examined. Then, the cases of explicitation and subtitling strategies were identified. Finally, attempt was made to analyzed the data based Klaudy (1993)'s explicitation types and Gottlieb (1994)'s subtitling strategies. The following English films subtitled into Persian constituted the material of the research:

1. Lost: it is a drama series with science fiction elements, and aired from 2004 to 2010 in American TV. It is about a plane crash and its survivors who lived with each other on a remote island; critics argue that it is one of the top 10 series in the history of American television and won numerous awards including Golden Globe Award for drama in 2006.

2. Princess Protection Program: it is about a princess whose country was invaded and forced to go to America where nobody knows of her until the situation in her country become safe for her to return. It released in 2009 in U.S. in English language and won the Teen Choice Award in 2009.

3. The Lake House: it is a romantic drama film, released in 2006 in English language in the U.S.; the film focuses on an architect and a doctor living in two different times and met with each other by letters left in a mailbox, and they were separated from each other by this time difference.

IX. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The study aimed at identifying subtitling strategies in AVT. To achieve the objective of the study, the first 20 minutes of the intended English films were considered. Then, attempt was made to identify the most frequent subtitling strategy and explicitation applied in these subtitled films. The first 20 minutes of English films were compared with their Persian subtitled through sentence by sentence analysis to identify strategies and types of explicitation used by Persian subtitlers. Finally, the data were analyzed and their percentage was calculated.

X. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To fulfill the goal of the study, and provide answer to questions, some examples were included and also descriptive findings of the data were presented as follows in tables and figures:

Examples extracted from the corpus:

- All clear? Clear → کنار؟ همه کنار

- There you go. Mm..hm. Stop **(eating)**, now **(eat)**→ حالا، وایسا، ممم، بفرما

- That one? Okay, there you go→ بفرما. باشه؟ یکی اون

- It means we're close **(to them)** → شدیم نزدیک بهشون که اینه معنیش

- Hi, hi, **(you're)** Shannon, right? Yeah→آره؟ درسته، هستی شانون تو .سلام ِسلام

- Hypothetically, yes **(I can find it)**.→ تونم می کن فرض

In the first three examples Persian subtitlers used transferring strategy, and in the second three ones, they employed expansion strategy.

-You are…(protecting your mother) → تو→ condensation strategy

- Sure, there is. → البته → omission strategy

- Thanks for coming to help Rosolinda → رزالیندا به کمک برای ممنون → omission strategy

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF SUBTITLING STRATEGIES FROM ENGLISH INTO PERSIAN IN THE CORPUS

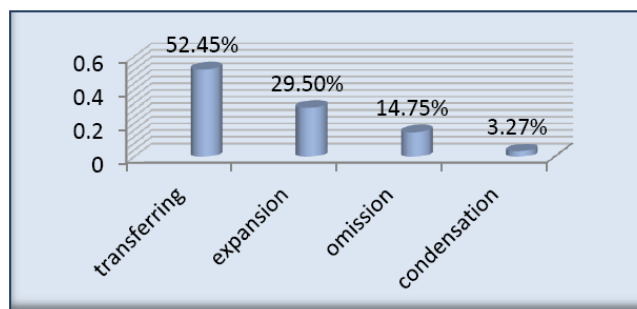| Strategies	Frequencies
Transferring	96
Expansion	54
Omission	27
Condensation	6

Figure 1. Percentage of subtitling strategies from English into Persian in the Corpus

As table 1and figure 1 indicate transferring has the highest frequency (96) and percentage (52.45%) in the corpus and condensation contains the lowest percentage (3.27%).

The study attempted to identify the most frequent subtitling strategy in subtitling English original films into Persian language and also to determine the most common explicitation type in subtitling English films into Persian. Based on descriptive data, the study indicated that transferring strategy was applied with the highest frequency (96) in comparison with the other subtitling strategies in the corpus and condensation had the lowest one (6). Thus, considering the first research question and providing clear answer to it, the study found that there were explicitations applied in subtitling films from English into Persian and the translation-inherent explicitation was used in most cases by the subtitlers; since subtitlers conveyed the information that was conceived in the SL. As for the second research question, it was crystal clear in the data section that transferring strategy was used with the highest frequency by the Persian subtitlers in subtitling English films into Persian. These may be because of the following reasons: (a) speakers in film are in direct and face-to-face contact with each other, so there is no need for explicitation because some semantic aspects and implied meanings are conveyed through facial expression; thus, subtitling related to written language and subtitlers might need to explicit those implicit meanings; (b) subtitlers may want to render information explicitly to perform communicative translation.

XI. CONCLUSIONS

Explicitation is a process of clarifying meaning in the TL which requires translators to make some additions in the act of translating from SL into TL. It has different types and translators apply them based on purpose of translation and target readerships. Explicitation in subtiling films is also employed differently depending on subtitlers native language structure and subtitling strategies. As it was stated before, the research aimed to consider the most frequent subtitling strategy applied in English films subtitled into Persian language; and also to investigate the type of explicitation used in subtitling these three films. The study concluded that transferring was employed with the highest percentage (52.45%) in subtitling and condensation was rendered with the lowest percentage (3.27%); and translation-inherent explicitation was used in most cases by the Persian subtitlers.

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The Challenges and Opportunities for English Teachers in Teaching ESP in China

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Abstract—In recent years, English for Specific Purposes has been widely adopted in College English courses, which presents a great challenge for all English teachers. With particular characteristics, ESP calls for the interdisciplinary knowledge to meet the needs of learners. Accordingly, teachers' role changes dramatically from the traditional language lecturer to multiple roles especially as a cooperator with content teachers. Cooperation with content teachers is a complex process which involves what and how to cooperate. By analyzing the previous researches and different specialisms of English teachers and content teachers, English teachers will not strive to learn as much content knowledge as possible but find their own and unique status in teaching with their linguistic knowledge. In this way a successful teaching of ESP can be achieved. Along with the challenges, ESP also provides a platform to conduct the communicative approach in class. With the equal status and the common ground built in ESP class, communicative teaching will be more effective.

Index Terms—English for Specific Purposes, cooperation, teacher training, status, communicative teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of language for specific purposes has a long and interesting history, reaching back to classical times (Hutchinson, 1987). Since the 1960s, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become a significant field within Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second Language (Howatt, 1984), and particularly in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Kennedy, 2012). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 9) list three fundamental reasons for adopting an ESP approach: the expansion of demand for English to suit particular needs; and developments in the fields of both linguistics and educational psychology.

II. THE DEFINITION OF ESP

ESP refers to the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain (Paltridge and Starfield, 2013). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p 19) see ESP as a broad approach rather than a product, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p.5). Strevens' (1988) definition highlights the characteristics of ESP; they are:
i. designed to meet specified needs of different learners;
ii. related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
iii. centred on language appropriateness;
iv. Useful in the analysis of discourse.
Robinson (1991) adds that ESP is 'normally goal-directed and ESP courses aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English.' Tony (1998) further adds that ESP is adapted to the characteristics of the student, as it is typically designed for adult learners.

ESP has been conceptualized by its leading scholars, like Hutchinson and Waters (1987) or Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), as a multi-stage process, where the ESP practitioner fulfils a variety of roles, including learner needs researcher, course designer, language instructor, learning assessor, and course evaluator. The performance of these roles requires considerable knowledge of a linguistic, socio-cultural and pedagogical nature, necessary to inform the teacher's cognitive processes. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) summarised five key roles of ESP practitioner: teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator. According to Kennedy and Bolitho (1991), there are additional requirements of ESP, compared with the general English teachers. For example, they need to be able: to carry out and interpret a needs analysis for a group of students; to design a syllabus for their classes; to select and adapt teaching materials for their classes, to device appropriate activities; to prepare course outlines; to develop a working knowledge of their students' subject.

III.   ESP IN CHINA

In recent years, ESP has become the core of the reform in English teaching in China. Undergraduates are required to study ESP after the study of College English. The focus on ESP has been motivated by a number of factors. The first is that globalization has given rise to the use of English as a global language (Kennedy, 2012). International businesses increasingly require a bi-or multi-lingual workforce, with English as one of the working languages. The demands of vocational training for employment have necessitated ESP teaching in universities world-wide, including programmes across English-medium institutions. Two noteworthy examples are the linked UK-China programmes between Nottingham University and Ningbo University, and between Liverpool University and Xi'an Jiaotong University, which offer students the opportunity to study in both the countries by dividing the study periods. The students need to increase their English language competence to access their content subjects. In the *Guideline for Reform and Development of National Education in the Middle to Long Term*, it is proposed that the objective of internationalism, as part of the push to social and economic reform, can be attained by cultivating batches of intellects with world vision, a command of international regulations, and the ability to be involved in international affairs and competitions. Jigang Cai (2014a) proposes that, with the increasing English competence of students and greater exposure to English in daily life, it is the right time in China to shift from general English to ESP pedagogy.

The second reason for the increased emphasis on ESP is that it is recognized as a learner-centred approach to language instruction. It is distinguished from other approaches by 'a commitment to the goal of providing language instruction that addresses students' own specific purposes' (Belcher, 2009:2). For a long time English teaching in China has been criticized for producing low output with high input. It is generally accepted that successful learning is crucially dependent on motivation (Ellis, 1997). Chinese students complain that, despite assurances of the usefulness of English, after studying English and passing examinations for at least ten years, they have gained little from College English classes (Fan, 2013). This greatly reduces their motivation. By contrast, involvement with academic subjects in ESP prioritizes learners' needs and makes them aware of the practical value of English, thus increasing their motivation. Strevens (1988) summarizes the advantages of ESP: being focused on the learner's needs, it wastes no time; is relevant to the learner; is successful in imparting learning; and thus is more cost-effective than 'general English'.

The third reason is provided by the requirement, set by the Chinese Education Department in 2007, for communicative language teaching (CLT). The aim is to raise learners' English level significantly, especially in listening and speaking, in the context of study, work and social interaction (Cai, 2014 b). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p 7) characterize the focus on communication as a revolution from the traditional linguistic approach. ESP, which draws its content from particular disciplines, occupations and activities (Strevens, 1988), is one way to achieve this aim, as it emphasises the connections between different subject areas, so that the study of language is linked to other subjects in the curriculum. In making these links, learners develop a stronger grasp of subject matter, a stronger motivation for learning, and a greater ability to analyse situations in a holistic manner (Brinton, Snow& Wesche, 1989).

Notwithstanding the theoretical strengths of ESP compared with the traditional general English, English teachers, the vital practitioners in the process, are confronted by a considerable challenge: to develop advanced levels of subject-specific expertise. In a picturesque phrase, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p159) describe ESP teachers as all too often reluctant 'dwellers in a strange and uncharted land'. However, as is explored below, opportunities are always embedded in challenges.

IV.   THE CHANGING ROLE OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Traditional language teaching typically emphasises developing knowledge *about* the language, as a means of improving learners' listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. The roles of the teacher are guide, organizer, problem solver, and, particularly in China, the ultimate authority of knowledge. English teachers have been trained to fulfil these roles by a Master's degree in linguistics or literature. A change to ESP, which is linked to a particular profession or discipline, imposes a new demand, as it requires the teacher to have at least a working knowledge of other subjects (Cai, 2014 a).

In contrast to the traditional class, in the ESP class the teacher is no longer the authority on subject knowledge. He or she is more like a language consultant, accepting equal (or even lesser) status with learners who have their own expertise in the subject matter (John, 1998). Therefore, in a cultural context in which the teacher is regarded as a knowledge provider, learners may doubt the teacher's competence. Furthermore, having to use new and often unfamiliar materials, the teacher may feel in control of neither language nor content is under control and wonder, "Where's the English?" (Barron, 2003, P 189). Robinson (1991) enumerates the problems confronting ESP teachers, in order of importance: the low priority given to ESP in timetabling; a lack of personal and professional contact with subject teachers; lower status and grading than subject teachers; isolation from other teachers of English doing similar work; lack of respect from students.

ESP teachers are expected to make use of a new approach, centring on language communication, that differs from that used in EGP. Students and teachers have to learn to make contribution to the constructive learning environment which is beneficial to different students' professional and personal situations by working in partnership. The teacher is a partner and the student plays the role not only as a learner but also a provider of information and knowledge because of

his expertise in subject. (Para, 2015).

It is much easier to observe a rise in the level of students' motivation to learn with the match between language and subject content (Kennedy, 1991). However, it is very obvious that ESP has raised learner expectations which correspondingly result in the considerable demands on an ESP teacher who has to live up to them ultimately. To a teacher, s/he may have to dedicate to a measure of success in his/her task (Kennedy & Bolitho 1991: 141). Nonetheless, English teachers cannot be expected rapidly to become subject specialists. Johns and Duley-Evans (1980) believe that subject-specific work often best approached through collaboration with subject specialists, in the form of team teaching with, or at least being advised by, a subject specialist teacher.

V. THE CHALLENGE FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS AS COLLABORATORS

Among the new roles the ESP teacher has to adopt, that of collaborator is the most significant and demanding. Sullivan and Girginer (2002) argue that collaboration with subject specialists is essential to effective ESP programmes, along with subject-relevant materials and knowledgeable instructors. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and (Alibakhshi, Ali, & Padiz, 2011) further point out that meaningful communication in the classroom depends on a common fund of knowledge and interest between teacher and learner.

The importance of an interdisciplinary approach to ESP programmes was first noted by Swales (1988). Dudley-Evans and John (1998) suggest three levels of cooperation for subject-specific work: Cooperation, Collaboration and Team-Teaching. *Cooperation* is lower-level advice and guidance from the subject teacher. Language teachers ask and gather information about the students' subject course. *Collaboration* involves ESP teachers in consulting subject teachers about different aspects of the academic field and working together to design appropriate syllabuses and teaching and learning activities. In *team-teaching*, both English and subject teachers are together in the same ESP classroom and teach the material simultaneously. In a similar vein, Barron (1992) provides a four-point continuum according to the extent of subject teachers' contribution: informant—consultant—collaborator—colleague.

The efficacy of collaborative and team teaching activities in ESP programmes has been explored by many researchers (e.g., Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Street & Verhoeven, 2001; Hyland, 2002; Johns & Swales, 2002; Warschauer, 2002). The findings of such studies are that teaching English in many ESP settings is very complex. Neither English teachers nor subject teachers can accomplish the teaching task efficiently separately. Students' academic needs are insufficiently met by the English teacher, and they are unlikely to acquire appropriate language knowledge and skills from the subject teacher (Ghafournia & Sabet, 2014). Research has found that team teaching in ESP classes leads to improved performances by students in writing (Jordan, 1997) and reading comprehension (Mahala & Swilky, 1994).

Such collaboration is not without its difficulties, however. For example, Barron (2003) argues that shared methodologies and shared knowledge will not necessarily lead to better learning outcomes through team teaching. He describes an attempted collaboration between subject teachers and EAP teachers on a course for second-year science students at the University of Hong Kong. He found that differences in methodology, epistemology and ontology led to an inability on the part of learners to reconcile what appear to be incompatible discourses. He recommends a constructivist approach to collaboration at both the disciplinary and intercultural levels because it relies on reciprocity. There has to be a flexible ontological background that is open to negotiation and change. Constrcutivism means with their emphases on the status of their respective knowledge, controlling context and managing the task, both the subject and language teachers are concerned about reciprocity and participate in arrangement where both parties contribute and influence each other equally.

Further, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 160) conclude that ESP teachers "have to struggle to master language and subject matter beyond the bounds of their previous experience", but it is difficult to say what level of discipline-related knowledge is necessary for ESP teachers. Harding (2007, p.7) sees "understanding [of] the nature of the material of the ESP specialism", rather than a high level of subject knowledge, as essential. Ferguson (1997, p. 85) is one of the few to address this issue in detail. He identifies three key kinds of knowledge:

i. disciplinary cultures and values (rather than content, which is the domain of the subject specialist): this is a form of knowledge which is essentially sociological or anthropological;

ii. the epistemological bases of different disciplines: a form of knowledge which is philosophical in nature;

iii. disciplinary genres and discourses: a form of linguistic knowledge.

Other researchers have investigated the pedagogical basis for collaboration in ESP. For Dudley–Evans and St John (1998，p 44), collaboration involves "the more direct together of the two sides, language and subject, to prepare students for particular tasks or courses". Mulford and Roger (1982) describe it as "characterized by informal trade-offs and by attempts to establish some reciprocity in the absence of rules". Similarly, Gray (1989, p 5) sees as a dynamic process, "through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited version of what is possible".

Another problem confronting the ESP teacher is that of status and role. In the eyes of some subject teachers, English language teaching is not a discipline. Barrono (2003) cites EAP teachers' comments in which they expressed their concern about losing their disciplinary identity. Benesch (2001) found that EAP teachers frequently find themselves in a subservient relationship; in an equal, collaborative relationship the English teacher and the subject teacher adopt complementary roles. These roles partially overlap, but neither should aim to extend this overlap. In the words of

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p164), 'the subject specialist can help the ESP teacher in learning more about the learners' target situation … the ESP teacher can make the subject specialist more aware of the language problems learners face'.

This latter contribution may, moreover, assist a subject specialist whose lack of proficiency in English may hinder professional communication. A recent example occurred in an article on PLOS ONE by Cai (Cai, 2016), in which he used the term "creator", which led to his being criticized for creationism and retraction. In his apology Cai wrote, 'English is not our native language. Our understanding of the word "creator" was not actually as a native English speaker expected. Now we realize that we had misunderstood the word.'

Through collaboration in team teaching, ESP teachers can develop close ties with subject teachers. As they become more familiar with the particular teaching contexts, English teachers are able to identify the particular linguistic needs of the students (and incidentally those of subject teachers). A close rapport between the two can lead to major improvements in both content and language domains (Jackson, 2004). If ESP and subject teachers provide mutual support and development, the problem of status is less likely to arise.

VI. ESP IN CLT

As stated in Section Two above, CLT is now official policy in China, but the outcomes are far from satisfactory. As we have argued, ESP has great potential to improve English pedagogy because it is predicated on subject-oriented domains, in which the learners' need—and hence their motivation—to communicate are clear, and the linguistic knowledge and skills necessary to enable them to do so are readily specifiable. There are, however, cultural difficulties to overcome if this approach is to be successfully adopted. ESP relies on collaborative learning, but in the deeply Confucian culture of China learners are oriented to passively receiving from the teacher rather than actively engaged in constructing it for themselves. Confucianism emphasizes dependency and nurture rather than independence; hierarchical rather than equal relationships (Bond and Hwang 1986; Cheng 1987), which are not conducive to learning languages for interactive communication (Sullivan, 2000, p120).

Yet, in relation to the subject matter, the ESP teacher will often know less than the learners, and will assume the role of an interested and equal co-student (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). A general knowledge of and common interest in the subject empowers the students and opens possibilities for them to engage in genuine communication in the class. Thus, although the precise future communication requirements in any given workplace cannot be wholly predicted, students can develop a communicative competence to a level that will enable them to cope with them as they arise:

What is needed are activities whose outcome depends on information exchange and which emphasize collaboration and an equal share of responsibility among classroom participants. (Pica, 1987, p 17)

Some researchers (e.g, Canale and Swain 1980; Faerch, Hasstrup, and Phillipson 1984; Bachman 1990) identify the key components of such competence: linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, and fluency. In the traditional approach to EGP teaching in China, teachers focus on linguistic competence, which is concerned with knowledge of the form and meaning of the target language (Tricia, 2000). The emphasis is on correctness in syntax, morphology, and lexis; as a consequence, learners may acquire a good knowledge about English, but limited ability to use it as a means to the end of communication (Krashen 1982).

Thus, university students typically have a foundation of linguistic competence; ESP teachers can focus on developing the other competencies. For example, the study of authentic conversation should not be confined to constructing the students' own utterances and the understanding the meanings of their collocutors' utterances, but more importantly on the ability to enter into meaningful interaction. This includes appropriate turn-taking, topic management, self-disclosure, establishing common ground, and the like.

VII. TRAINING FOR ESP TEACHERS

The teachers' preparation and qualifications determine the success of ESP. It will require diligence and patience, allied to sound pedagogical research and development, to establish a well-informed and practically effective ESP programme in China. ESP teachers will need to be carefully trained to meet the challenges outlined above.

In China, ESP teacher training is in high demand, owing to a lack of qualified teachers but ESP is frequently absent from pre-service training. This can be a significant obstacle to effective teaching. Although ESP teaching prioritizes the specific needs and goals of learners, somewhat paradoxically such learner-centred language pedagogy is also highly teacher-dependent, since the teacher is integrally involved in every aspect of the learning process: teacher autonomy is greater than in traditional EGP.

We give one example of the insufficiency of the preparation of teachers. It is drawn from personal experience, but is almost certainly typical of many institutions in China. In the college in which one of the authors (Jing & Garner) works, all English teachers are required to teach an ESP course, but are provided with neither support from content teachers nor subject-oriented training, which gives rise to a sense of inadequacy in many of them. By contrast, some of the teachers approach ESP as though it involved no more than a change of textbook. Such people are ill-equipped to play the demanding role of simultaneously participating in and guiding the learning process.

Alongside the imperative to equip teachers with an appropriate pedagogical approach, there is the need to develop at

least a basic level of subject knowledge. This is, in some instances, achieved through both pre-service instruction and, more frequently, in-service self-training. Self-training programmes, however, although based on a detailed needs analysis of ESP learners (Master, 1997), are too often insufficient to prepare teachers to cope with real classroom demands (Boswood & Marriott, 1994).

Training for ESP practitioners in China needs to be more goal-oriented and sophisticated, which will require a more extensive evidence base than is currently the case. Ethnographic research is needed to inform pedagogical practice, with greater focus on actual, rather than theoretical or hypothetical, classroom experiences (Ghafournia & Sabet, 2014). A practical dimension in teacher-training programmes is considerably more effective than training "without the practical base and impetus of an actual course to run" (Northcott, 1997, p.9). Chen (2000) proposes an Action-Research Programme, in which an ESP teacher starts with a set of theoretical assumptions, puts them into practice, and learns to related them to actual contexts through processes of reflection, problem solving and decision-making (Wu & Badger, 2009).

The aim of training teachers of ESP is not to make them subject experts, but to maximize their linguistic knowledge and skills. Teachers must acquire an essential general grasp of the subject with the co-operation and/or collaboration of subject teachers. They further need to supplement their linguistic expertise with socio-cultural understandings and pedagogical competences to fulfil a variety of roles. Only through programmes that incorporate these elements can the ultimate goal of ESP be achieved: the capacity of learners to engage in real communication in English.

VIII. CONCLUSION

ESP is increasingly important to the future development of English language teaching in China. We have attempted both to provide an overview of the challenges confronting the profession, and to examine some of these challenges in more detail. Perhaps the most significant challenge in this context is the change of the teacher's role from expert authority to a collaborator with subject-specialist colleagues and with learners. Fulfilling this new role requires supplementing linguistic knowledge with familiarity with one or more specific disciplines, including adequate knowledge of subject content; it also necessitates a pedagogy significantly different from that which has long been the norm in China. Mastery of these twin elements is a prerequisite for achieving recognition and status for ESP as a specialist pedagogical undertaking, essential to realizing the aims of the government policy of CLT. The success of ESP is dependent upon a new, evidence-based and practically-oriented approach to the training of English teachers.

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The Effect of Recast vs. Clarification Request as Two Types of Corrective Feedback on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Structural Knowledge

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Abstract—**The present study, considering Form-Focused Instruction as the theoretical framework f the study, is an attempt to study the benefits of two types of teacher feedback in structural knowledge. In the current study, in the two experimental groups, students were taught syntactic items. One of these classes was offered recast as the main feedback type. The other groups offered clarification request feedback. Later the outcome of these groups compared to one another and to the control group who did receive no feedback on their structural knowledge errors. The participants in this study included three groups of Intermediate level English language learners from intact classes of Marefat Language Institute. The selected students were sampled based on their scores on PET proficiency test. In the main study 90 students (30 students in clarification request group, 30 students in oral feedback group, and 30 students in the control group) were selected out of 120 students based on the homogeneity test. Students in the clarification request group and oral feedback group received the related treatment while students in the control group received regular planning. The result of statistical analysis (ANOVA) suggested that recast group and clarification request group outperformed the control group and the clarification group outperformed the recast group.**

Index Terms—**corrective feedback, recast, clarification request, structural knowledge**

I. INTRODUCTION

Feedback may be considered as one of the important ways in which syntax can be put into practice. Feedback in general has been defined as "any information that provides information on the result of behavior" (Richards & Schmidt, 2013, p.217). They additionally note that in teaching a second language, the term feedback, refers to the comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other person. The term feedback sometimes has been considered as corrective feedback. This is a type of feedback in which the learners receive comments and information from a competent interlocutor. This interlocutor may be his/her teacher, peer, or parents. Corrective feedback shows that a second language learner is deviated from the correct use of the target language.

Recasts, on the other hand, are implicit, since they do not point out the error explicitly. Recast in second language acquisition has been defined as "a type of negative feedback in which a more competent interlocutor (parent, teacher, native-speaking interlocutor) rephrases an incorrect or incomplete student utterance by changing one or more sentence components (e.g. Subject, verb, or object) while still referring to its central meaning." (Richards & Schmidt, 2013, p. 487).

Recent research in the realm of second language teaching has been overwhelmed with contradictory arguments for and against the provision of feedback to learners in second language classes. While different and abundant research has been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the different contexts of EFL, there are still arguments on the effect of different kinds of corrective feedback on EFL learners' English achievement.

Regarding the importance of corrective feedback, it seems that not very studies have been done in our country on this aspect of language learning and teaching. Meanwhile, corrective feedback can be an important instrument for facilitating the acquisition and improving syntactic accuracy. In doing so, this study aims to investigate the effect of two different but crucial kinds of feedback namely, clarification request and recast on the intermediate EFL Learners' syntactic knowledge.

The present study, considering Form-Focused Instruction as the theoretical framework f the study, is an attempt to study the benefits of two types of teacher feedback in structural knowledge. Form-Focused Instruction or Focus on Form that draws students' attention to form is an approach to language teaching proposed by Long's interactional approach. In this approach, the focus is on the grammatical form of language features communicatively. Ellis (2001)

makes a distinction between Form-Focused Instruction and Focus on Forms. In 'Focus on Forms' the focus is solely one explicit language features but in "Focus on Form" language learners are made aware of syntactical features of the language communicatively.

In the current study, in the two experimental groups, students were taught syntactic items. One of these classes was offered recast as the main feedback type. The other groups offered clarification request feedback. Later the outcome of these groups compared to one another and to the control group who did receive no feedback on their structural knowledge errors. In this study, considering the two types of feedbacks (recast and clarification request) as the independent variable of the study and learners' grammatical knowledge scores as the dependent variable, the researcher aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the two types of corrective feedback on grammar instruction. The findings of this comparison hoped to shed light on which of these two feedback types are far beneficial to enhance syntactic knowledge of the learners.

A substantial body of research in SLA has been devoted to the role of classroom interaction in second language acquisition. However, comparing the two types of feedback namely, clarification request feedback and recast feedback is an intact area of research, especially in the Iranian context. Corrective feedback is among the techniques which are believed to facilitate L2 development by providing learners with both positive and negative evidence (Long, 2003). It is as one of the effective focus on form and meaning techniques that have been employed so long to prompt the learners on focus on syntactic features and meaning in L2 classroom.

This study is an attempt to provide the intermediate EFL Iranian learners and teachers with a better understanding of which type of corrective feedback is more beneficial in teaching syntactic rules. The students receive two kinds of corrective feedback, namely recast and clarification request, by focusing on these two kinds of feedback in second language classrooms; this research claims that the differential effectiveness of these two feedbacks has a great research value, because of the following reasons,(1) theoretically, providing the data in the area of these two feedbacks can inform the issues such as the cognitive roles and processing of recast and clarification request feedback in the area of learning syntactic features of the second language,(2) pedagogically, the findings of this research will be useful for the language teachers in giving advice concerning the learners' classroom error correction in promoting the learners syntactic knowledge. This study test the interactional approach to SLT developed by Long (1989). It also tests the conductive teaching in an Iranian context. Considering practical aspect, this study explains how both teaching and learning can benefit from corrective feedback in developing learners' structural knowledge.

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the following research hypotheses were proposed:

To systematically investigate the proposed questions, the following null hypotheses are also formulated.

1. Clarification request does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' structural knowledge.

2. Recast does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' structural knowledge.

3. There is not any significant difference between the effect of clarification request and recast on Iranian intermediate EFL learner's syntactic knowledge.

II. METHOD

This study aimed to investigate the effect of two different but important kinds of corrective feedback namely, clarification request and recast on the intermediate EFL Learners' structural knowledge. The variables of the study included various types of feedback (independent variable) and Iranian EFL Learners' structural knowledge (dependent variable).

A. Participants

The participants in this study included three groups of Intermediate level English language learners from intact classes of Marefat Language Institute. The selected students were sampled based on their scores on PET proficiency test. Totally, 90 intermediate level language learners were homogenized using PET proficiency test. These students were assigned to two experimental groups and one-control group. That is 30 students were in each group. All of the participants had the same level of proficiency, they also had the same native language and received an equal amount, type and length of instruction during the treatment phase.

B. Instrumentation

A). PET

Cambridge English: Preliminary, also known as the Preliminary English Test (PET), is an English language examination provided by Cambridge English Language Assessment Preliminary is designed to show that a learner can use their English language skills in everyday situations when working, studying and traveling.

B). Teacher made structure tests

For the pre-test and post-test, the structure questions of the first five units of TopNotch 3was used to assess the structural knowledge of the students before and after the treatment sessions. It was administered to measure the participants' pre and gained structural knowledge to investigate the differential effects of recast two kinds of corrective

feedbacks. The pretest and post-test for three groups were the same regarding their contents and equivalent form but not completely equal.

C). Pre-test

This test was composed of 45 items based on the first five chapters of TopNotch intermediate English book. This test was used to measure students' structural knowledge before the treatment. After piloting the test among 20 participants those problematic items were identified based on reliability test and item discrimination index. The final remaining was a test with 40-structure questions. The reliability index of the test was.79.

D). Post-test

The same procedures were taken for another 45-item test which was based on the first chapters of TopNotch intermediate English book to construct posttest items. After piloting the tests among 20 intermediate level English language learners, the problematic items were identified, and finally, 40 items remained as the post-test. The reliability index of the test was found to be .81.

E). Instructional materials

Based on the Pearson Longman website, TopNotch is an award-winning communicative course for adults and young adults that set new standards for reflecting how English is used as an international language.

C. Design

Quasi-experimental design is thought to be the most appropriate design for the present study since the sampling was not random. This study was a pretest-treatment-posttest for two experimental groups while the third group served as the control group without specific treatment.

D. Procedures

To measure overall English proficiency of students, (PET) which is the second level of Cambridge examinations in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) was used.

In the main study 90 students (30 students in clarification request group, 30 students in oral feedback group, and 30 students in the control group) were selected out of 120 students based on the homogeneity test. Students in the clarification request group and oral feedback group received the related treatment while students in the control group received regular planning. The following procedures were conducted in the two experimental groups.

1. First group: Recast

Session 1

At the first session in recast class, the purpose of the study, the procedures and ethical issues were introduced to students. At this session, the researcher took pre-test which was a teacher-made test and piloted it on 30 students to measure their structural knowledge.

Session 2

At first the researcher taught tag question grammar and asked the students to do the exercises related to this grammar, in the recast class, the teacher asked the students to do pair work and having interaction with each other and when the students were doing exercises, the teacher recast when they made a mistake like:

1 .S. Robert Roston is the director of English program, doesn't he?

    T: doesn't he?   Isn't he?

    S: yes isn't he?

Then the teacher asked them to look at the picture in conversation pair work and make small talk as pair work. When they did the exercises, the teacher gave isolated declarative recast to the related grammatical mistakes. A sample from their mistakes and the teacher's recast feedbacks are provided in the following.

1. S: We have met each other before, didn't we?

    T: Haven't we?

    S: yes, haven't we?

The teacher, furthermore, asked the students to have a role play according to the exercise in their workbook in which there were two people talking with each other. The focus of the exercise was on using tag questions in small talks. This is a sample from the students' sentences and the teacher's isolated declarative recasts. Such as:

1. S: We have met each other before, didn't we?

    T: Haven't we?

    S: yes, haven't we?

The researcher wrote this situation on the board for more practice, and the researcher asked the students to read that situation and make sentences about that situation and use tag questions. The researcher writes this situation on the board.

Your friend got good grades on her science test.

Moreover, the researcher asked the learners to make sentences. They made the following sentences, and the researcher gave recast on their grammatical mistakes.

1. Today is Saturday, is it?

    T. is it?

    S. isn't it.

Session 3

At the 4th session in the recast class, at first, the researcher asked the students to have a conversation with each other and to use tag questions and to have role play and interaction with each other, and they did it.

Then the researcher taught past perfect grammar and asked the students to do the exercises related to past perfect. Based on the learners' answers the teacher gave recast as the implicit provision of correct reformulation of the student's ill-formed utterance on their grammatical mistakes. Then the teacher asked learners to look at the table and to do the exercises, and the researcher gave recast on their grammatical mistakes.

For example:

1. S: At 8:30 Lyne had dropped off her jacket, but she didn't yet taken the cats to Mara's house.

    T: she didn't yet taken the cats?

    S: She hadn't yet taken the cats to Mara's house. (Recast)

The researcher wrote another question on the board in the recast class for more practice, and the researcher asked the students to use past perfect for answering this question. The question was as follows:

What had you accomplished by 2013?

Moreover, they gave different answers and the researcher gave recast on their grammatical mistakes like:

1. S. By 2012 I got my Diploma.

    T. You got your Diploma.   You had got your Diploma.

    S. Yes, I had got my Diploma.

Session 4

At first in the 5th session in the recast class, the researcher asked the students to do the exercises of the book, and then the researcher gave recast on their grammatical mistakes while doing the exercises in the recast class like:

S. You are not from around here, aren't you?

T. Aren't you?   Are you?

S. Yes, aren't you? (Uptake)

Then the researcher asked them to look at pictures of the book and to make conversation and have interaction with each other regarding the pictures and use tag questions in their small talks and provided recast feedback in the class. Students also were requested to have interaction during the activity.

Such as:

S: It's a good place for traveling, is it?

T: is it?

S: Isn't it?

Then the researcher taught the grammar (may, might, must and be able to) and then asked the students to do the exercises which was related to this grammar and to use may and might in this exercise. The researcher, then, provided recast on their grammatical mistakes when they were doing this exercise like:

1. T. When will you practice English outside the class?

    S. I must practice English tomorrow morning.

    T. You may practice English tomorrow morning

    S. Oh,

Session 5

In recast class, after teaching causative get, have and make on page 30, the researcher asked the students to make sentences using causative get and these are the sentences they made and I gave recast feedback on their grammatical mistakes such as:

1. S.I got my friend copy the report for me.

    T. I got my friend to copy the report for me. (Recast)

    S. sorry, yes, .I got my friend to copy the report for me. (Uptake)

We use make to suggest an obligation and use make with an object and the base form of the verb.

Moreover, the researcher asked them to make sentences by using causative make, and I gave incorporative interrogative recast on their grammatical mistakes.

S. she made me to reserve the hotel.

T. she made you what? (Recast)

S. sorry, she made me reserve the hotel. (Uptake)

2. Experimental group 2: Clarification Request

Session 1

At the first session in clarification request group, the purpose of the study, the procedures and ethical issues were introduced to students. At this session, the researcher took pretest which was a teacher-made test and piloted it on 30 students to measure their structural knowledge.

Session 2

In clarification request class, at first, the teacher taught tag question grammar and the teacher asked the students to do the exercises related to this grammar. When they were doing exercises, the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. This is a sample of their mistakes and the teachers' clarification request feedback.

1. Robert is the director of the English program, does he?

T. Sorry, I don't understand?

S. Robert is the director of the English program, isn't he?

Then the researcher asked them to look the picture in conversation pair work part of the book and to make small talk and interaction as pair work with them. They did the exercise, and the teacher gave clarification feedback on their mistakes. This is a sample of their mistakes and the provided clarification request feedback:

1. S. You are staying in Tehran, don't you?

T. would you please repeat again? (Clarification request feedback)

S. You are staying in Tehran, don't you? (Uptake)

In clarification request class, the teacher asked the leaners to look at the same picture in which two people were talking to each other and asked them to imagine that they were these two ones and to have interaction with a role play with each other. They have to use tag question in their small talks, and the teacher provided clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. This is a sample of the sentences students made and the clarification request feedback such as:

1. S. It's not 3:30 yet, is it?

T. What do you mean?

S. It's not 3:30 yet, is it?

Session 3

In this session, the teacher taught causative get, have and make and asked the students to make sentences using causative get/have. These are the sentences they made and the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes such as:

1. S. They can have the film process.

T. Would you please repeat your sentence?

S. They can have the film processed.

Then the teacher explained causative made and said that we use make to suggest an obligation. Then the teacher asked the learners to make sentences and use causative make.

This is a sample of the sentences they made and the related clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes such as:

1. I made my aunt to make food.

T. Would you repeat your sentence please?

S. I made my aunt make food.

Session 4

In this session, after teaching future in past grammar, the teacher asked the students to do the exercises related to this grammar in the book in which they were asked:

They compared the plans and beliefs they had about their future when they were young.

The students did the exercise, and the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes such as:

S. When I was young I thought I would finished my University.

T. what?

S. When I thought I would finished my University.

Then the teacher taught the grammar on page 42 perfect modals, expressing regrets about the past with should +have + pp and would +have + pp / may +have + pp/ might + have + pp for speculating about the past and must +have+ pp for drawing the conclusion about the past. And I asked them to do the exercise of the book which was related to this grammar.

In that exercise, the teacher asked them to share their regrets and tell their partners what they regret about their life , their studies, their work, or their actions in the past and use should have or shouldn't have and would have/ might have/ may have + pp . Then the teacher provided them recast with their grammatical problems.

When they were doing exercises the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. These are the clarification request feedbacks:

1. A. I should have married marry.

B. why?

A. I would have be a good husband.

T. would you repeat again?

A. I would have been a good husband.

Then in the class, according to the book exercise, in which there were sentences and asked the students to provide reasons for these sentences and to use perfect modals grammar. The teacher wrote one of those sentences and asked them to provide reasons for each of these sentences and to use perfect modals in their reasons. At first, the teacher wrote this sentence.

All the students failed the exam

Then the teacher asked the learners to provide grounds for each of these sentences and speculate with may have / might have / may not have / might not have or draw conclusions with must have / must not have.

They made the following sentences:
S1.They don't have studied hard.
T. They what?
S1. They wouldn't have studied hard.

Session 5

In this session in clarification request feedback class, the teacher asked the following question from students:
What they think might have happened if they had been a doctor?

They gave different answers and used perfect modals grammar in their answers and the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. The following is one sample from the session:
S.I would be happier.
T. what?
S. I would have been happier.

The teacher taught adjective clause with subject relative pronouns and after doing the exercises which were related to this grammar, the teacher asked them to create five sentences with adjective clauses to describe some holidays in their country. They did this exercise as pair work. While doing the exercises as pair work, the clarification feedback was provided.
S. There is a man which celebrates the harvest each month.
T. what?
S. There is a man who celebrates the harvest each month.

In clarification request feedback class, the teacher asked them to make sentences with adjective clauses with a subject relative pronoun. I gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. These are the sentences students made and my feedbacks.
1 .S. The film you bought gives you great information.
   T. What?
   S. The film that you bought gives you great information.

Session 6

In this session, in clarification request feedback class, I asked the students to make sentences with adjective clauses (relative pronoun is the subject of the clauses).

When they were doing exercises, the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes. These are the clarification request feedback that the teacher gave:
1. S. The film you bought gives you great information.
   T. What?
   S. The film that you bought gives you great information.

Then the teacher explained relative pronouns as the object of the clause, and the teacher asked the students to do the exercises of the book which was related to this grammar and then the teacher asked the students to make sentences and to use a relative pronoun as the object of the clause. They made these sentences, and the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes as follows:
1. S. The man who you talked to is my brother.
   T. What?
   S. The man whom you talked to is my brother.

Then in clarification request class, I asked the students to make sentences about the picture at the end unit 5 which was about red pepper festival and to use adjective clauses in their sentences. They made the sentences and the teacher gave clarification request feedback on their grammatical mistakes such as:
1. S. There are two boys are laughing with each other.
   T. "sorry."
   S. There are two boys who are laughing with each other.

3. Group 3   the Control Group

At the first session in the control group, the purpose of the study, the procedures and ethical issues were introduced to students. At this session, the researcher took pretest which was a teacher-made test and piloted it on 30 students to measure their structural knowledge.

In control group class, grammatical points (such as tag questions) were taught as inductively and then the teacher asked the students to do the exercises related to this grammar. The teacher gave no feedback while they were doing the exercises and the teacher corrected their grammatical mistakes ordinarily.

Practicing grammar in conversation was one of the regular activities in the control group.

For instance, the teacher asked the students to look at the picture on conversation pair work part and ask the students to have interaction with each other and make small talks as pair work about the picture and its subjects. They did the exercises, and the teacher gave no feedback on their mistakes and corrected their grammatical mistakes ordinarily. Then the teacher asked the students to the exercises in the workbook which was related to this grammar in which there was a picture, and two people were talking. The teacher asked the students to have role play about it and to use tag questions

in their small talks. They did the exercises, however in this group as the control group the teacher gave no feedback on their mistakes, and she corrected their grammatical mistakes ordinarily.

For more practice, the teacher wrote the following situation on the board and asked the students to read the situation and to make sentences about that situation and to use tag questions in their sentences.

The teacher wrote the following situation:

Your friend got good grades on her science test

They made these sentences, and the teacher gave no feedback on their mistakes and corrected their grammatical mistakes ordinarily.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

After homogenizing the students regarding language proficiency, a pretest was given to the participants to assure that the participants did not have prior knowledge of the content of the materials to be taught before the treatment. The results of students' scores on pre-test are reported in the table below.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRE- TEST

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RecastG	pretest	30	6.00	19.00	12.20	3.73
	Valid N (listwise)	30				
ClarificationRG	pretest	30	7.00	25.00	15.10	4.16
	Valid N (listwise)	30				
ControlG	pretest	30	6.00	19.00	12.4333	3.39049
	Valid N (listwise)	30				

A. Pretest

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether there is any significant difference between the means of three groups (Recast group, Clarification request group, and control group) in the pretest. There are some assumptions to run ANOVA test.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE FOR ANOVA (PRETEST)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
RecastG	30	12.10	3.67	.67	10.72	13.4706	6.00	19.00
ClarificationRG	30	12.56	2.71	.49	11.55	13.5795	7.00	17.00
ControlG	30	12.43	3.39	.61	11.16	13.6	6.00	19.00
Total	90	12.36	3.25	.34	11.68	13.0	6.00	19.00

This is the table that shows the output of the ANOVA analysis and whether we have a statistically significant difference between our group means. We can see that the significance level is 0.06 (p = .06), which is above 0.05. Moreover, therefore, there is not a statistically significant difference in the mean score of the groups in the pre-test. Therefore, the students in all group were homogenized in structural knowledge before the instruction.

TABLE 3:
ANOVA PRE-TEST

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.46	2	1.73	.16	.85
Within Groups	937.43	87	10.77		
Total	940.90	89			

B. Post-test

Hypothesis One:

1. Do providing clarification request feedbacks have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntactic knowledge?

H01: Providing clarification request does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntactic knowledge.

To test the mentioned hypothesis an independent sample, a t-test was used. The independent-sample t-test compares the means between two unrelated groups on the same conditions. One of the two groups were (Recast G, and Control G), and the other was (Clarification G, and Control G).

Considering all of the mentioned assumptions, the result of the post-test analysis is reported in the following tables.

TABLE 4:
GROUP STATISTICS

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	ClarificationRG	30	25.8667	4.19962	.76674
	ControlG	30	20.2333	4.64375	.84783

As the table of descriptive statistics show the mean of clarification request group (M= 25.86, Std. Deviation.= 4.19) was more than that of the control group (M=20.23, Std.Deviation= 4.64).

TABLE 5:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		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
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.000	.99	4.98	58	.01	5.63	1.14		3.34	7.92
	Equal variances not assumed			4.92	57.42	.01	5.63	1.14		3.34	7.92

As the table of independent sample t-test shows there was a significant difference in the mean score of clarification request group (M=20.23, Std.Deviation= 4.64), and that of control group (M=20.23, Std.Deviation= 4.64) at t (58)= 4.92, p=.01), suggesting that the null hypothesis was rejected, that is recast group outperformed the control group.

Hypothesis two:

Do providing recasts have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntactic knowledge?

Providing recast does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntactic knowledge.

TABLE 6:
GROUP STATISTICS

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	RecastG	30	23.76	4.78	.87
	ControlG	30	20.23	4.64	.84

As the table of descriptive statistics show the mean of recast group (M= 23.76, Std. Deviation.= 4.88) was more than that of the control group (M=20.23, Std. Deviation= 4.64).

TABLE 7:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		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
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.670	.417	2.90	58	**.009**	3.53	1.21		1.09	5.96
	Equal variances not assumed			2.90	57.95	.009	3.53	1.21		1.09	5.96

As the table of independent sample t-test shows there was a significant difference in the mean score of the recast group (M=20.23, Std.Deviation= 4.64), and that of control group (M=20.23, Std.Deviation= 4.64) at t (58) = 2.90, p=009), suggesting that the null hypothesis was rejected, that is the clarification group outperformed the control group.
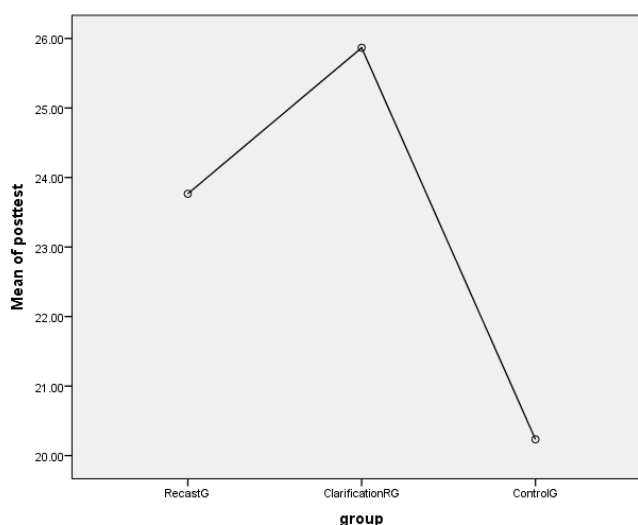
Hypothesis Three:

Is there any significant difference between the effect of clarification request feedbacks and recast feedbacks on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntactic knowledge?

H03:

3. There is not any significant difference between the effect of clarification request and recast on Iranian intermediate EFL learner's syntactic knowledge.

TABLE 8:
GROUP STATISTICS

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	RecastG	30	23.76	4.78	.87
	ClarificationRG	30	25.86	4.19	.76

As the table of descriptive statistics show the mean of clarification request group (M= 25.76, Std. Deviation. = 4.78) was more than that of recast group (M=23.76, Std.Deviation= 4.78).

TABLE 9:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		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	
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.87	.35	-1.80	58	.046	-2.10	1.16	-4.42	.22	
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.807	57.046	.046	-2.10	1.16	-4.42694	.22	

As the table of independent sample t-test shows there was a significant difference in the scores of clarification request group (M= 25.76, Std. Deviation. = 4.78), and recast group (M=23.76, Std.Deviation= 4.78). at t (-1.80)= 2.90, p=046), suggesting that the null hypothesis is rejected, that is the clarification group outperformed the recast group.

Figure 1: students post-score in three group

The results of the current study indicated that the first and the second null hypothesis were rejected, and alternative hypotheses were accepted. That is to say, implementing clarification request strategies and recast positively affect student's structural knowledge. Furthermore, the third null hypothesis is rejected, since there was a significant difference between the effect of clarification request and recast on Iranian intermediate EFL learner's structural knowledge and the clarification request outperformed the recast.

The finding of the study mostly confirmed some of the related studies in the literature. The finding of the current study was in line with the findings of Ding (2012) on the role of recast in developing the linguistic feature. Ding (2012) argued that recasts can be a beneficial tool in encoding different kinds of knowledge (declarative and procedural). This was actually as one of the areas of research interest f in studying the effectiveness of corrective feedback. The current study, as an empirical study of the related field, proved that these claims can be generalized to an EFL setting (Iranian context).

This study like the previous studies found corrective feedbacks effective in eliminating possible erroneous structures in the learners' interlanguage. In other words, in response to the question whether to correct or not we can say that leaving the errors unnoticed might result in the fossilization of these erroneous structures. Hence, the researcher stood against too much error negligence and subsequently believes that errors should be corrected either on the spot as in this study or with delay.

Given the significance of syntax, learning and teaching it seem to be considerably important in the process of foreign language learning. Feedback could be assumed as one of the important ways in which syntax can be put into action. It sometimes has been considered to be as corrective feedback, a type of feedback in which the learners receive comments and information from a competent interlocutor (e.g., his/her teacher, peer, or parents). Corrective feedback shows that a second language learner is deviated from the correct use of the target language.

Feedbacks provided through clarification requests were more effective than those of recast, and the mean difference between the two groups was significant at the posttest. The reason may be resulted from the fact that the clarification request feedback may be provided to the learners more interactively. Ellis et al. (2003) argued that these interactions can be beneficial to the students in some ways. Firstly, it helps students to receive comprehensible input, it also helps learners with negative feedback, and finally it prompts learners to reformulate their utterances.

IV. CONCLUSION

There may be some pedagogical implications for these kinds of studies. It should be noted drawing a generalizable pedagogical implication from a single study may be somehow erroneous. However, there are some stakeholders who may benefit from this study. First of all, syllabus designer and specialists in material development Syllabus designers can incorporate different kind of tasks involving different kinds of feedbacks in their syllabus. This study confirmed that providing and corroborating feedback to learners' erroneous utterances have significant effects on the elimination of such erroneous structure from the learners' interlanguage. Among the different feedback types, the current study focused on recast and clarification request. The examples and prompts used in the current study can be productive examples to be used in teaching grammar.

The results of this study can also be useful for teacher training courses. Teacher trainers may inculcate certain types of interactional teaching and providing feedbacks to their trainees.

The current study had some limitations. First of all, the participants in this study were from intact classes at Marefat language institute. Hence, the generalizability of this study to the larger population might be questioned. Then, the study was limited to investigate intermediate learners. The final limitation of the study was related to the design of the study. The design of the study was quasi-experimental; therefore random sampling was not possible. To have an accurate understanding of the effect of the effect of recast and clarification feedback on the Iranian EFL learners' syntactic knowledge we should have complete randomization.

Some suggestions for further research can be proposed based on this study and the related studies in the literature. This study is exclusively focused on the role of corrective feedback in grammar instruction. Other researchers can investigate the effect of corrective feedback in other areas of language learning like interlanguage pragmatics development. Corrective feedback and the learner's uptake is another line of research for interested researchers. Interested researchers can explore the effect of different kinds of feedback on learner's uptake.

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The Impact of a Cultural Research Course Project on Foreign Language Students' Intercultural Competence and Language Learning

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Abstract—**This study explores whether using a cultural research course project can positively impact foreign language students' intercultural competence and language learning. Using a case study method, the researchers recruited 12 student participants from an Intermediate Mandarin Chinese I class and from an Introduction to Mandarin Chinese I class in the Fall 2014 semester at a small public southwest university in USA. The project asked the participants to do a PowerPoint oral presentation on special topics from the target language culture and then to write a reflective cultural comparison English essay on this learning experience during the final exam. The findings show that, through doing the project, the students have improved their intercultural competence in that they have a more positive attitude towards "otherness," enriched their cultural knowledge of the target language society and that of their own, and obtained skills in critically appreciating and evaluating both similarities and differences between the target language culture and their own. The students also expanded their language learning experience beyond the classroom and textbook and acquired better language skills in listening, speaking, and writing Chinese characters while they became more interested in and motivated by learning the target language and culture. Recommendations for future study are discussed.**

Index Terms—**foreign language education, intercultural competence, course cultural research project, Mandarin Chinese**

I. INTRODUCTION

As globalization further expands its influences on the 21st century economy, culture, and education, foreign language teachers have realized that their students will work and interact with people of diverse cultures and will have to be able to communicate effectively across boundaries that are not merely linguistic. Just as Catrinel (2011) explains that learning a foreign language goes beyond the mere development of four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), and it is also about enlarging individual boundaries, opening new perspectives, providing explanations for different social, cultural realities, and demonstrating understanding and respect for people from other cultures. Furstenberg (2010) argues that the goal of foreign language teaching should no longer be limited to helping students develop and achieve linguistic and communicative competence, but it should include developing students' intercultural competence To emphasize this goal, Kramsch (1993) states that language should be taught as a cultural practice, and instructors should provide learners with opportunities to develop intercultural understanding and critically examine stereotypes by objectively analyzing target culture and their own.

According to *The Standards for Foreign Language Learning for the 21st Century* (National Standards, 2006) in the USA, three out of the five foreign language learning objectives emphasize communication, culture, and comparison. These cultural objectives involve students' being able to demonstrate an awareness of the relationships among the practice, products, and perspectives of the target culture and to understand the concept of culture development through comparison between the target culture and their native culture.

These national standards of foreign language education in USA in the 21st century highlight the importance of taking an intercultural orientation to teaching languages, which encourages students to analyze and reflect on the significance or meanings of similarities and differences between the target language culture and their own culture(s). In so doing, as Scarino (2010) claims, students decenter from their linguistic and cultural world to consider their own situatedness from the perspective of another and learn to constantly move between their linguistic and cultural world and that of the users of the target language. In this process, students gradually come to understand culture not only as information about diverse people and their practices but also, and most importantly, as the contextual framework that people use to exchange meaning with others and through which they understand their social world (Scarino, 2010). This intercultural learning process will certainly help prepare each student to become what Byram & Zaratethe (1997) and Kramsch (1998) call an "intercultural speaker/mediator" (p.17), who has the ability to interact with 'others', to accept other perspectives

and perceptions of the world, to mediate different perspectives, and to be conscious of their evaluations of differences (Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001). However, to become such an intercultural speaker/mediator, Byram et al (2001) believe that students clearly need both linguistic competence and intercultural competence composed of "knowledge, skills, and attitudes, complemented by the values one holds" (p. 5).

So, foreign language teachers need to provide learning opportunities to help students acquire intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence. Byram & Morgan (1994) point to the important role language education can play, suggesting that teachers can, in fact, have influence over cognitive, affective, and moral development, and thereby play a significant role in young people's education. Hoff (2013) also expresses this sentiment, stating that "teachers should make the interrelationship of language and culture an explicit topic for discussion and reflection in the FL classroom, as this could be a significant contributing factor to the development of the learners' intercultural competence" (p.30). However, as many educators of foreign languages have noted, the big question is how we, as language teachers, can improve our students' intercultural competence through foreign language teaching and learning. In order to contribute to the ongoing discussion of this important issue, this paper presents a case study that embedded cultural teaching and learning in a target culture course research project to help develop language students' intercultural competence in college level Mandarin Chinese classes.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Definition of Intercultural Competence in the Context of Foreign Language Education

According to *The Common European Framework of References for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001), intercultural competence in foreign language learning refers to the ability to establish a relationship between the native culture and a foreign culture, raise cultural sensitivities, use varied strategies to establish contact with people from another culture, and to efficiently handle situations comprised of cultural misunderstanding and conflicts. This definition emphasizes the idea that cultural knowledge and intercultural awareness are essential aspects of language learning, specifically linked to the promotion of personal development.

Bryam (1997) introduced "A Model of Intercultural Communication Competence" to the field of foreign language education, which privileges intercultural competence in foreign language education. Catrinel (2011) states that Bryam's intercultural competence has been perceived as the guiding concept for the overall aim of foreign language education. Hoff (2013) further points out that Bryam's influential contribution to this field suggests that a nuanced understanding of intercultural competence is essential.

Indeed, Bryam's model for educational action in the FL classroom identifies five aspects of intercultural learning, which should be cultivated if students are to develop such intercultural competence (also see Figure 1):
  • Attitudes (savoir-être)
  • Knowledge (savoir)
  • Skills of interpreting and relating (savoir-comprendre)
  • Skills of discovery and interaction (savoir-apprendre/-faire)
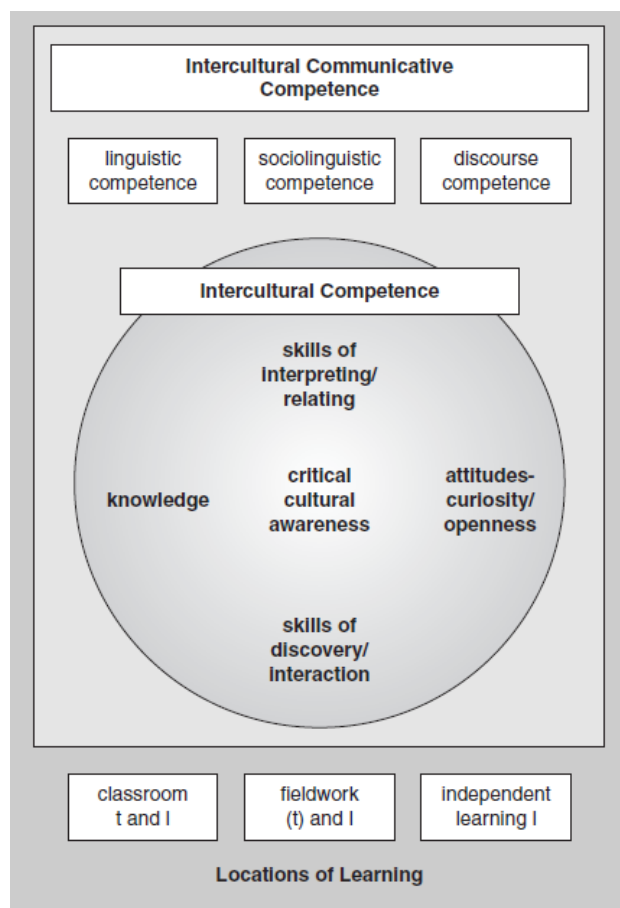 • Critical cultural awareness (savoir-s'engager) (Byram, 2009, p. 323).

Figure 1. A Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (Bryam, 2009).

For the purpose of distinguishing "A Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence" from the approach of imitating the native speaker as a basis for teaching linguistic competence, Bryam (2009) introduces the concept of the 'intercultural speakers/mediators' in this new approach. Among the five aspects in the model, "[t]he foundation of intercultural competence is in the attitudes of the intercultural speaker and mediator" (Bryam, 2009, p. 5). Bryam's intercultural speaker/ mediators approach other cultures with 'curiosity and openness,' and a "readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own" so that they will acquire "the ability to 'decenter'" (Bryam, 2009, p.5). "Another crucial factor is knowledge," and the intercultural speakers/mediators possess the knowledge "of social groups and their products and practices" as well as "the general processes of societal and individual interaction" (Bryam, 2009, p.5-6). Then, there are the two aspects of skills. Bryam (2009) emphasizes "the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own" (p. 5). He also highlights the significance of being able to "acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices" (Bryam, 2009, p.6) and to "operate knowledge, attitudes and skills [in] real-time communication and interaction" (Bryam, 2009, p.6). Finally, Bryam (2009) points out that the intercultural speakers/mediators are able to critically evaluate "practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (p. 6); thus, they can "become more aware of their own values and how these values influence their views of other people's values" (p.7). So, it is evident that intercultural competence for Bryam's (2009) model is composed of a language learner's attitudes, knowledge, skills, and critical cultural awareness in a dynamic foreign language education context.

B. A Working Definition of Intercultural Competence for this Study

Educators who study the teaching of intercultural competence have embraced Bryam's model (Hoff, 2013). Likewise, the present study uses a working definition of intercultural competence for foreign languages informed by Bryam's (2009) model. The intercultural competence for a foreign language learner means:

1) the ability to decenter from one's own cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors while being able to appreciate and respect perspectives of "outsiders" from other cultures

2) the capability of knowing both social processes and illustrations of those processes and products for one's own culture and others'

3) the ability to interpret and relate different cultural practices and perspectives via comparison and to discover and interact with the new things in the process of intercultural language learning experiences

4) the ability to critically evaluate and reflect on the target language culture and their own native culture

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions

1. Can a cultural research project in a language course help improve foreign language students' intercultural competence?

2. Can this course cultural research project help promote the students' language skills?

B. Participants and Settings

The present paper presents a case study that lasted four weeks. The participants were 3 students from an Intermediate Mandarin Chinese I class and 9 students from an Introduction to Mandarin Chinese I class in the Fall 2014 semester at a small public southwest university in USA. First, all were given four weeks' time to create a 15 minute-oral PowerPoint presentation on a Chinese cultural topic research project. Later, they were asked to write a reflective essay in English about this cultural learning experience during their final exam.

C. The Cultural Topic Course Research Project/Assignment

During November 2014, the project was assigned to the student participants. The following is the assignment descriptions the researchers created:

Instructions:

Part I: 1). Choose a topic from Chinese culture and prepare a 15 minute-oral PowerPoint presentation in both English and Chinese to the whole class. 2). Compare the chosen topic to something analogous in your native culture. 3). Please include at least five outside sources from your research and do MLA style documentation for your PowerPoint presentation.

Part II: You will write a reflective comparison essay about the cultural topic from this research project during the final exam.

D. Procedures

Stage 1: At the beginning of November 2014, the student participants were given four weeks' time to conduct their research on their chosen cultural topics and to create their PowerPoint presentations.

Stage 2: At the end of the November 2014, students did individual oral presentations on their Chinese cultural research projects.

Stage 3: At the beginning of December 2014 during the final exams for the two Chinese classes, the participants were requested to write reflective cultural comparison English essays based on their learning experience of this Chinese cultural topic research project and also to use their general cultural learning from their Chinese classes.

E. Data Collection and Instruments

Two types of research data were collected by the researchers. The first one was from 12 student participants' PowerPoint oral presentations on the cultural research project (see the assignment description in the section C as the instrument).

The second type was from 12 student participants' reflective cultural comparison English essays in their final exams. The writing prompt (the instrument) for the final exam (the researchers created it) read:

Instructions: You are going to write a short English essay of about 300-350 words on **ONE** of the given topics that compare Chinese culture with American Culture, or you can choose your own topic:

• Chinese Spring Festival holiday and the American Christmas holiday
• Chinese Mid-Autumn Moon Festival and the American Thanksgiving holiday
• Tea in Chinese culture and Coffee in American Culture
• The New Year's Day Celebration in Chinese culture and in American culture

In your essay, you should discuss the following aspects:

• Clearly identify at least two differences about the chosen cultural topic
• Clearly articulate at least two similarities regarding the chosen cultural topic,
• Analyze your comparison through using examples and details, and explain why you think the similarities and/ or differences exist.
• Finally, conclude with at least two positive things you have learned from this comparison between Chinese culture and American culture.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section will present the results and discussion on the study in the form of responding to the two research questions presented in the beginning.

A. Findings for and Discussion on Research Question 1

Research Question 1: Can a cultural research project in a language course help improve foreign language students' intercultural competence?

The findings from the student oral presentations and their reflective cultural comparison essays in the final exam help to answer this research question.

First, we will discuss the findings from student PowerPoint oral presentations on the Chinese cultural topics (Part I of the Cultural Topic Course Research Project/Assignment). From the data analysis on the PowerPoint presentations, we summarize and classify the findings into three categories (see TABLE 1).

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FROM STUDENT POWERPOINT ORAL PRESENTATIONS ON THE CULTURAL PROJECT

1. Cultural Topics from the Student PPT Oral Presentations	2. Main Bi-Cultural Knowledge Student Learned from the PPT Oral Presentations	3. The Target Language Skills Reinforced through the PPT Oral Presentations
Chinese Medicine and Western Medicine	Origins and principles/ theories of medicines from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Opera and Western Opera	Histories, costumes, and music from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Tea in China and Coffee in America	Histories, beliefs, and social occasions from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Spring Festival and American Christmas Holiday	Origins, beliefs, customs, and ways of celebrations from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Mid-Autumn Moon Festival and American Thanksgiving Holiday	Origins, beliefs, customs, and ways of celebrations from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Way of Addressing People and American Way of Addressing People on Different Occasions	Traditions, beliefs, and social occasions from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Fashion and American Fashion	History, customs, and social occasions from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese and American String Instruments	Histories, music, technique, and social occasions from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Popular Chinese Foods and Popular American Foods	Traditions, customs, and health concerns from both cultures	Oral Chinese, new vocabulary, and Written Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters

The first two categories (cultural topics and knowledge learned) in TABLE 1 demonstrate that the project encourages students to study the target language culture beyond the classroom. In many college introductory and intermediate level Chinese classes, learning about culture would usually be discussed when the subjects of the lessons being studied involve some target language traditions such as how to address people of different age groups and ways to celebrate holidays. Furthermore, the discussion time on the cultural topics would be limited due to the fact that the class focus is on linguistic competence such as understanding grammar and sentence patterns. However, the findings here reveal that when doing the PowerPoint oral presentations, the students explored nine different Chinese vs American cultural topics of their own interests in more depth, ranging from the subjects of holidays, music, and medicine to those of fashion, music instruments, drinking, and foods. Additionally, when studying each cultural topic, the students had different focus on the cultural knowledge such as its history, its theories, its practice and its development. Thus, this cultural research project has helped provide students with more opportunities to encounter Chinese culture. The project also allows an opportunity to reexamine the similar topics of their own culture in a new light of comparing them with those of Chinese culture; thus, they can acquire new perspectives on both cultures. So, based on the findings from PowerPoint oral presentations, we can say that the answer to the Research Question 1 is "YES" because the course project promoted students' intercultural competence through increasing their knowledge of both social processes defined by cultures and illustrations of those processes and products for one's own culture and others' (Bryam, 2009).

Now, we will examine and discuss the findings from students' reflective cultural comparison essays related to their oral presentation learning experiences from the final exams (Part II of the Cultural Topic Course Research Project/Assignment). The significance of connecting the oral presentation with reflective essay writing is just as Hoff (2013) claims, that after studying the cultural subjects in a public context, moving on to the reflection stage gives the students the opportunity to absorb and process new knowledge and alternative perspectives through more in-depth individual inquiry.

In fact, through analyzing the data, we can say that the findings here also provide an affirmative answer – "YES" to Research Question 1 because they demonstrate that the students' intercultural competence is improved in the three areas that are emphasized by Bryam's Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (2009): 1) showing positive attitudes towards "otherness," 2) being able to interpret different cultural practices and perspectives and relate them to their own, and 3) being able to critically evaluate and reflect on their own cultural practice and that of others.

We use three TABLES (TABLE 2-4) to display and illustrate the findings from student participants' essays from three sample cultural topics among the five, which all support the same findings but use different examples.

TABLE 2
THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDENT COMPARING CULTURAL ESSAYS ON THE TOPIC OF DRINKING TEA AND DRINKING COFFEE

Findings	Illustrations of Findings from Student Comparing Cultural Essays
Topic	Comparing Drinking Tea in China with Drinking Coffee in America (N= 4)
Finding 1 *a.* Being able to decenter from one's own cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors while appreciating and respecting perspectives of "outsiders" from other cultures *b.* Being able to interpret and relate different cultural practices and perspectives with their own via comparison and to discover and interact with the new things	"In both cultures, drinking tea and coffee is a habitual and enjoyable pastime. Both cultures use it as a way to socialize…" (Student 1) "They both can bring people together in a social gathering… This can be done because both cultures value relationships between people. Another aspect they share is that they are both used for relaxation. In China, having a calm mind and spirit is important for health." (Student 2) "…, they are surprising similar in their symbolization of each country: they are both used as ways of interaction in business meetings and social events. They are also used as gifts for friends, family, and coworkers." (Student 3) "In America, coffee is used primarily as a fuel. Its caffeine content is used by Americans to get a 'jumpstart' for their day. However, in China tea is used specifically for health reasons. The many different herbal teas found in China have been proven to have extraordinary benefits…. So Chinese use tea for remedy." (Student 4) "One difference is that in China tea is seen as an important drink for health. But American coffee is seen as unhealthy due to the sugar and caffeine." (Student 2)
Finding 2 Being able to critically evaluate and reflect on their own cultural practice and that of others.	"I learned that people in both countries love to find enjoyable ways to come together and share time with each other by dirnking warm and cold beverages. And I have learned that both cultures share their ideas with each other; there is a Starbucks in China and many tea cafes in America." (Student 4) "I learned that both America and China embrace the importance of social gatherings and it was due to this that these beverages became so well known." (Student 2)

TABLE 3
THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDENT CULTURAL COMPARISON ESSAYS ON THE TOPIC OF CELEBRATIONS OF NEW YEARS IN CHINA AND IN AMERICA

Findings	Illustrations of Findings from Student Comparing Cultural Essays
Topic	Comparing Celebrations of New Years in China and in America (N=3)
Finding 1 *a.* Being able to decenter from one's own cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors while appreciating and respecting perspectives of "outsiders" from other cultures b. Being able to interpret and relate different cultural practices and perspectives with their own via comparison and to discover and interact with the new things	"On New Year's eve, both cultures like to spend time with friends and family and celebrate with foods and drinks. This shows that both cultures view spending time with friends and family is important and that the best time to start the New Year is to celebrate, not worry about the future." (Student 1) "Chinese celebrate it by cleaning the house and putting on decorations for luck and lightening fireworks to drive bad luck away while Americans celebrate by drinking and making New Year's resolutions." "These differences suggest that for the Chinese, luck plays an important role in a person's life, and people should increase their good luck and decrease their bad luck. In contrast, luck doesn't play as an important role in American culture, and Americans like to believe that free will alone determines the future not luck." (Student 2) "Another difference is that the Chinese tend to celebrate the New Year with the whole community, not just with a small group of people or by themselves. In contrast, most Americans celebrate with only the people closest to them or alone, not with acquaintances or neighbors. I think this is because Chinese culture is more focused on the well-being of the community, while the Americans culture focuses more on the individual." (student 2) "Americans see the New Year as the time for them to try to make up for what they previously failed at, for example, keeping their ideal weight or finally accomplishing some sort of small personal goal. Chinese New Year seems more about improvements to health and prosperity. The different goals show that Chinese New Year is about adding to something that is already good for sake of even better while American New Year is to stabilize the bad things so the New Year can even out. Maybe, it's because 'the grass is always greener on the other side?'" (student 3)
Finding 2 Being able to critically evaluate and reflect on their own cultural practice and that of others.	From this comparison, I have learned that Chinese culture values the spirit of community, not just the individual and that their traditions are kept alive, not forgotten with the passage of time. I have also learned that American culture doesn't worry about the future; they just live in the moment and don't worry about luck or fate." (Student 1) "I think both Chinese and American reasons for New Year are ideal: either having something good be great, or fixing what you thought was wrong… I think that a hope for things to better is the same." (Student 2)

TABLE 4
THE FINDINGS FROM THE STUDENT CULTURAL COMPARISON ESSAYS ON THE TOPIC OF CHINESE SPRING FESTIVAL AND AMERICAN CHRISTMAS

Findings	Illustrations of Findings from Student Comparing Cultural Essays
Topic	Comparing Chinese Spring Festival and American Christmas (N=3)
Finding 1 *a.* Being able to decenter from one's own cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors while appreciating and respecting perspectives of "outsiders" from other cultures *b.* Being able to interpret and relate different cultural practices and perspectives with their own via comparison and to discover and interact with the new things	"The Chinese spring Festival and American Christmas are all related to their religions. The Chinese honor their gods and deities for bringing them protections and good luck while Americans celebrate the birth of God, Jesus Christ." (Student 1) "They are similar, too. They are both times when families gather and spend time with relatives and during both holidays, gifts and blessings are exchanged." (Student 2) "Both holidays have a legend behind them. Chinese Spring Festival traditionally aimed to drive away the evil spirits such as 'Nian.' On Christmas tradition, children are told that a generous person, named Santa Clause, brought them all the gifts like toys and cookies on Christmas eve." (Student 3) "Chinese dominate the Spring Festival celebration with some traditional beliefs that dictate what clothes (such as new ones) and what color (such as red) to wear, when to eat certain foods on Spring Festival; for example, on New Year's day , dumplings must be eaten. But Americans are free to wear and eat whatever they prefer on Christmas holiday." (Student 1) "Christmas is much short (only one day) while Spring Festival lasts for more than a week due to its traditional activities. The themes of decorations for the two holidays also differ. The decorations on Spring Festival are meant to bring good luck and drive away evil spirits, but the decorations for Christmas are used to create a holiday atmosphere and not much meaning in them." (Student 2)
Finding 2 Being able to critically evaluate and reflect on their own cultural practice and that of others.	"During the Spring Festival, family bound is very important, but it seems like in our current generation Christmas is more about money and presents other than family. Although Spring Festival is also losing some traditions due to the younger generations, its significance still surpasses Christmas in America. " (Student 1) "When the Chinese spend the Spring Festivals with the family and have good food and make memories, the focus is on the true meaning of the history behind the holiday and pass it on to the younger generation. While Americans really don't focus on much, other than the food and football, and a large portion don't even understand the history of the holiday. What I learned from this is that 1) Americans need to learn about their history prior to celebrating a holiday, and 2) the Chinese have done well to preserve the festival's history and promote cultural awareness for future generation." (Student 3)

The findings here tend to support Hoff's (2013) study that shows a course cultural project of reading fiction chosen from the target language culture in his FL classroom can foster "the students' conscious recognition of new cultural knowledge and competence and the process which has led them to this new level of achievement" (p. 47). He claims that, at the end of the project, the students should exhibit the ability to put new knowledge into a wider context, which entails both a better understanding of the foreign culture (the 'Other') and a heightened perception of the students' own identity and culture ('Self'). Our findings also support Hoff's insight since it is evident that writing comparing cultural essays helped students not just look at the surface similarities and differences between the Chinese and American cultures but dig deeper to see how the world views such as values and beliefs under them affect people in both cultures to behave in a certain way. Furthermore, the findings tend to agree with Su's (2011) study that reveals her use of a course cultural portfolio project in her college EFL class can help students shift from an ethnocentric view, show more respects to cultural differences, and increase awareness of the their own cultural limitations.

B. Findings for and Discussion on Research Question 2

Research Question 2: Can this course cultural research project help promote students' language skills?

The data analysis from students' PowerPoint oral presentations produced the finding classified as category 3, "The Target Language Skills Reinforced through the PPT Oral Presentations." This finding demonstrates that doing PPT research presentations improves students' language ability in the aspects of speaking and listening in Chinese and of learning new vocabulary in both Chinese Pinyin and Chinese Characters. This is because that during the oral presentations, students were required to speak as much Chinese as they could while they were allowed to use English to communicate the main messages. In order to do a good job in both Chinese and English during the 15 minute – presentations, the students had to spend plenty of time practicing by themselves, which offered them more opportunities to speak the target language, Mandarin Chinese. Since the PPT oral presentation was also a research project, the students went beyond their textbooks and learned new vocabulary from studying and presenting different cultural topics. Additionally, during the oral presentations, all the students in the class were engaged in listening to each other attentively so as to understand and follow the presentations. Thus, everyone had some practice in his or her target language listening and in encountering new vocabulary in Mandarin Chinese. TABLE 5 displays some of the new vocabulary the students acquired from doing different cultural topics.

TABLE 5
THE SAMPLES OF NEW VOCABULARIES ACQUIRED FROM STUDENT PPT ORAL PRESENTATIONS

Cultural Topics	New Vocabularies in both Chinese Pinyin and Chinses Characters
Chinese Medicine and Western Medicine	Shengzi de 东药 • 商代 Shāng dài Shang Dynasty (1766-1122 BC) • 五行 Wǔ xíng Five emotions or elements • 木 mù wood, 火 huǒ fire, 土 tǔ earth, 金 jīn metal, 水 shuǐ water • 天人合一 tiān rén hé yī harmony of heaven and humanity • 防止 Fángzhǐ prevent • 平衡 Pínghéng balance • 气 Qì life energy • 草药学 Cǎoyào xué Herbology • Kèfú 克服 • Shēngchéng 生成 • 阴阳 yinyang Shengzi de 西医 • 十九世纪 Shíjiǔ shìjì 19th century • 效果 xiàoguǒ • 实验室 Shíyàn shì laboratory • 西药的效果 Xīyào de xiàoguǒ • 打针 dachen • 手术 shoushu • 发烧 fashao
Chinese Spring Festival and American Christmas Holiday	Chunjie 春节 • nián shòu 年兽 • wǔshī 舞狮 • 8ang biān pào-set off fireworks 放鞭炮 • hóng bāo-red envelope 红包 • tiē chūn lián-red banners 贴春联 • bài nián-pay a New Year's visit 拜年 • yā sui gián-money in red envelope 压岁钱 • Bàn nián huò-New Year shopping 办年货 • guò nián- Chinese New Year 过年 • Gōng xǐ fā cái-Congratulations & Prosperity 恭喜发财 • Xīn nián kuài le-Happy New Year 新年快乐 • Chú jiù bù xīn-Replace the old with the new 除旧布新 • Suì suì píng ān-Said to ward off bad luck if something breaks. 岁岁平安 • ___ xíng nián dà yùn-Good luck for the year of ___. ____ 年行大运. Chunjie 春节 Foods • 饺子 Jiaozi Roast Dumplings • 鱼 yú Fish • 鸡 Jī Chicken • 面条 Miàntiáo Noodles • 橘子 juzi Mandarin Orange Shengdn Jie 圣诞节 • Christmas 绿色 Lùsè. • The Lùsè is supposed to represent eternal life. 圣诞树 shengdan shù • 圣诞老人 shengdan laoren Shengdn Jie 圣诞节 Foods • 甜点 Tiándiǎn • 蛋酒 Dàn jiǔ Eggnog, 饼干 Bǐnggān Cookies, • 热巧克力 Rè qiǎokèlì Hot Chocolate • 到 Dào Pie • 糖果手杖 Tángguǒ shǒuzhàng Candy Cane • 肉 Ròu • 火腿 Huǒtuǐ ham, 火鸡 Huǒ jī Turkey

The findings displayed in TABLE 5 further illustrate that the oral presentations offer students learning opportunities for both cultural content and language learning. They tend to support Tsou's (2003) study that concludes that, when cultural lessons were integrated into EFL instruction, students' language proficiency could be significantly improved, and students could become more interested in language learning.

V. CONCLUSION

This article has explored whether using a cultural research course project can positively impact foreign language students' intercultural competence and language learning. We can conclude that it is beneficial and helpful for foreign

language teachers to use such a course research project to promote not only language students' intercultural competence but also their linguistic competence.

Through doing the project, the students improved their intercultural competence in that they have a more positive attitude towards "otherness," enriched their cultural knowledge of the target language society and that of their own, and obtained skills in critically appreciating and evaluating both similarities and differences between the target language culture and their own. Meanwhile, via the project, the students also expanded their language learning experience beyond their classroom and their textbooks and acquired more language skills in listening, speaking, and writing Chinese characters while they became more interested in and motivated by learning the target language and its culture.

Finally, the study shows that the cultural research course project helped the language teachers and students to meet the national cultural objectives for 21 century language education in the USA, which expect students to be able to demonstrate an awareness of the relationship among the practice, products, and perspectives of the target culture and to understand the concept of culture development through comparison between the target culture and their native culture (National Standards, 2006). As Hoff (2013) argues, "it is important to keep in mind, however, that the development of intercultural competence is a complex and time consuming endeavor" (p.46) for foreign language education. We recommend that in a future study, we might try to recruit additional language students to participate in a similar course research project to enrich the research data. We also suggest that a future study consider incorporating more qualitative research methods such as focus group discussions or individual interviews for analyzing some in depth individual opinions or thoughts about intercultural awareness and cultural diversity in foreign language teaching and learning.

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The Impacts of Post-task Activities on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Achievements

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Abstract—As learners' proficiency is more important than their abstract knowledge of the language rules, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is of crucial values today. Task-based instruction has three phases: pre-task, during-task, and post-task. Studies have demonstrated that all of them might play a significant role in language teaching. Moreover, recent studies have compared different tasks over time. However, it is still unclear how different phases of a task impact learners' language ability. To better understand this issue, this particular study investigated the effect of post-task activities on EFL learners' reading achievements. To conduct the study, 47 Iranian EFL learners in a private language institute in Esfahan, Iran were selected. The participants were assigned into three groups randomly (two experimental groups and one control group). Through ten sessions (five weeks), the participants learned how to focus on post-task activities such as reflection on the task and repeated performance in a task-based instruction. The required data were collected through pretest, posttest, and semi-structured interview. After the course, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with five students from experimental groups. The results of both quantitative and qualitative data indicated that post-task activities have a significant effect on learners' language proficiency, their reading achievements, and their motivation to participate in classroom tasks. The implementation and discussions were also discussed.

Index Terms—task-based language teaching, post-task activities, reading achievements, repeated performance

I. INTRODUCTION

The notion of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has recently become a widespread approach in many educational contexts (Ma & Kelly, 2006; Shintani, 2011; Wang, 2012). However, the notion has received a status of orthodoxy since stakeholders and curriculum leaders prescribe teachers in worldwide language settings how they should teach, and approximately all publishers are describing their new textbooks and materials as task-based; therefore, defining TBLT clearly is an effective action (Littlewood, 2007). There has also been a permanent augment in the number of studies in which tasks and task-based education are the fundamental parts of learning process (Ellis, 2009). TBLT has drawn generally on research into second language acquisition. TBLT considers task as the fundamental unit which teachers and curriculum designers design their lesson and content just based on it. In addition to all the uniqueness characteristics that a task should have such as meaning, gap, need for learners' resources, etc, it should be clearly distinguished from other types of classroom activities such as situational grammar exercises (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Ajideh, 2003; Mcdonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007; Lee, 2011; Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011; Huang, Eslami, & Willson, 2012).

Ellis (2009) stated that in every task-based education three issues should be considered clearly. The issues are the kinds of tasks which teachers include in a language course, the content of those tasks, and finally the way of sequencing the tasks to facilitate language learning. He also states that in addition to those three issues methodological points which consider how to structure a task-based lesson and what type of participatory structure to employ should be defined clearly in the early phases of task-based instruction. A task-based lesson or a task-based instruction according to Ellis (2009) has three phases (pre-task phase, main task phase/during task, and post-task phase). There are different modes for the performance-based on the types of tasks and phases. Tasks can be performed in a whole-class context, in pairs, in groups, or by learners working individually (as cited in Khodabakhshzadeh & Mousavi, 2012).

Previous studies mostly emphasized during phase in their studies (Ajideh, 2003; Derwing et al., 2004; Finch, 2006; Huang et al., 2012; Brabander & Martens, 2014; Lynch & McLean, 2001; García Mayo, 2007; Samuda and Bygate, 2008). Other phases of task-based instruction have been ignored in the literature; therefore, the present study aimed to attract the attention of teachers and stakeholders towards the crucial role that other phases especially post-task phase. According to Ellis (2009) post-task phase provides an interesting opportunity for a repeated performance encourages

reflection on how the task was performed and encourages attention to form in particular to those forms that proved problematic to the learners when they performed the task. The assumption underlying this study is generally the effect of the application of the second language teaching theories and specifically the Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) theories on second language learning. This theory is mostly based on the application of whatever is the facilitating, effective, and situationally appropriate in second language teaching and learning. In fact, one can trace the roots of these types of task-based language teaching methods in second language learning theories and the researches done in this realm. Designing and applying a task-based instruction needs special attention to the process through which the task is considered pivotal. Although there are diverse ideas (Littlewood, 2007; Ellis, 2009; Shintani, 2011; Lee, 2011, Mellati, Khademi, & Etela, 2015) concerning the steps and procedures, the consensus about the three main steps cannot be ignored.

The first phase of this task-based instruction is the pre-task. This phase includes all types of activities that the teacher and learners do before getting involved in the main task. The main purpose of pre-phase is preparing second language learners to do the task in a way which promotes their acquisition (Ellis, 2009). According to Lee (2011) a pre-task activity provides what second language learners will be required to perform and the nature of the outcome they have in their minds. The second phase is the during-task activities. In this phase the teacher decides about the activities needed to perform the task. Ellis (2009) believes that the methodological options underlying this phase are of two basic kinds: first, 'task performance options' and second, 'process options'. The third phase according to Ellis (2009) is the post-task phase or post-task activities through which we can accomplish three main goals. Firstly, a post-task activity offers an appropriate opportunity to repeat a task; secondly, it encourages learners to reflect on how the task was performed; and finally, it fosters attention to form, it means that as a feedback to learners' performance has paid especial attention to problematic parts of the task that learners have performed.

This study is to focus the vital role of the post-task activities in learning the second language. Traditionally it is believed that the first two phases of the task-based activities play a significant role in learning while according to Ellis (2009) the third phase can be more important in this regard. Repeating what learners have learnt in the first and second phases and specifically different methods of this performance are appropriate strategies for intensifying and internalizing what learners have learnt in the first two phases; therefore, this study investigated the impacts of post-task activities on the Iranian EFL learners' reading achievements.

II. Review of Literature

One of the major developments during the last decade was different task-based approaches to instruction. There were mainly two approaches namely strong and weak versions (Skehan, 2009). The advocates of the first approach proposed that tasks are not the driving force for syllabus design and it cannot specify a particular educational instruction. Those in favor of the second approach, however, considered the emergent of acquisitional process as central. In this approach the task is the center of attention in both teaching and learning theories. Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) stated that a task is an activity that involves learners to use language to attain a desired goal. Tasks have been considered as the organizing unit of learning in many studies recently done by researchers (Bygate et al., 2001; Stylianides and Stylianides, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Van den Branden, Bygate, and Norris, 2009).

In spite of quite a few differences and various approaches, all teachers and researchers have some common goals in conducting a task-based instruction. All of them mostly focused on communicative language ability rather than focused on form or grammar ability (Nunan, 2006). It is, henceforth, the Nunan's (2006) definition of task that this paper refers to that term: A task is a classroom activity that engages learners in processes such as comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language. Learners' attention is on manipulating or monitoring their grammatical knowledge to express their intended meaning. A task in this definition should also have some fundamental characteristics such as a sense of completeness, a goal, and a communicative act with a beginning, middle and end. Ellis (2009) sets some criteria for a classroom activity to be considered as a task. He stated that the principal focus of that activity should be on meaning. Every task should have some kinds of gap; it means that learners have to convey information, or express their opinions through a task. Second language learners should use their own language knowledge and ability to perform a task or activity. These abilities and skills can be linguistic or non-linguistic. The final and the most important characteristic of a task is that every task should have a clearly defined outcome. This outcome should be non-linguistics. Learners use their language knowledge as a medium to reach the outcome. Widdowson (2003) however, argued that the criteria to define a task are formulated loosely. They cannot differentiate tasks from other classroom activities. Ellis (2009) supports Widdowson's (2003) idea and stated that he is right to point out that for example in Skehan's (2009) criteria it is not clarified whether the meaning which is the primary criterion is semantic or pragmatic. In other words, it is hard to distinguish classroom tasks from other kinds of classroom activities. However, Ellis (2009) mentioned that Widdowson (2003) overlooked the point that the goal of task definitions are not to specify their learning outcomes. They just focused on the kind of instructional activity that a task covers. The result of such challenges was the notion of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT).

The concept of TBLT was first established by Prabhu (1987). He stated that this notion focused mainly on communication rather than grammar teaching and language form. The major goal of a task in the TBLT is negotiating meaning to perform a particular activity (Samuda and Bygate, 2008; Khodabakhshzadeh & Mousavi, 2012). In TBLT,

language learning occurs when learners doing some classroom activities which have goals and need to be completed. Teachers and curriculum designers try to focus on non-linguistics functions. Learners should use language as a tool to obviate their real needs in the context. Authenticity is one of the major features of task-based instruction. When learners complete a task, they use language in the real-world context (Lynch and McLean, 2001). There is no pre-selected language need or syllabus in TBLT. Teachers manipulate tasks as facilitators and try to cover learners' needs and interest and to meet the demands of the activities and tasks (Nikula, 2015). The primary driving force in this approach is motivation for communication; therefore, even unlimited knowledge about language is useless and inapplicable. The only applicable knowledge is a knowledge which language learners use in their classroom and out of classroom communications. Another influenced factor that got a lot of attention is exposure to the authentic target language which occurs only in a naturally occurring context. This means that, authentic and unleveled materials are more appropriate than educational materials that are designed especially for the language classroom (Littlewood, 2007; Llinares and Dalton-Puffer, 2015). Exposure to authentic sources will lead into language proficiency. Learners would be able to communicate in target language proficiently. TBLT and task-based instruction can provide adequate environment for delivering authentic sources (educational tasks) as well as authentic language use in the classroom that eventuate in learners' language proficiency. Researchers believed that an effective task-based instruction improve proficiency and language ability of second or foreign language learners (Derwing, Rossiter, and Thomson, 2004; Schmitt and Carter, 2004; Skehan, 2009; Shintani, 2011; Brabander and Martens, 2014).

One of the main challenging concerns for English language teachers is improving the learners' proficiency. Finding appropriate and convenient ways to facilitate language learning and support language learners to improve their proficiency level. This is significantly challenging problem especially in countries where learners share a common first language and have little or no exposure to the second or foreign language outside the classroom. Lyster (2014) claimed that pair and group work communication tasks or task-based instructions are mostly unproductive or not as efficient as teachers expect. The reason of this phenomenon is very simple. The problem is that language learners performed these tasks mostly in their native language. Learners are eager to express their ideas in English; however, not only it is pretty hard for them to do it, but also they do not have skillful teachers that can convince them. Mozgalina's (2015) solution to this problem is focusing exclusively on proficiency and making learners communicate with English only. He also added that the only outcome of the years is an extensive knowledge of grammar and vocabulary that teachers cannot put them into practice (as cited in Khodabakhshzadeh & Mousavi, 2012). Many teachers and researchers believe that task-based instruction is the most prominent language teaching strategy to improve language learners' proficiency level. When they utilize this proficiency-enhancing strategy or educational framework, second language learners would get enough practice from task-based course (Nikula, 2015; Khademi, Mellati, and Etela, 2014; Hei, Strijbos, Sjoer, and Admiraal, 2016). Nikula (2015) have focused on super segmental elements with proficiency practice. In this study, classroom activities such as repetition, the proper use of discourse markers, prosodic cues and cohesive links are chosen as post-task activities.

Llinares and Dalton-Puffer (2015) stated that in countries where learners have a common first language, finding techniques to help learners improve their language proficiency is an important factor. They believe that task-based instruction was very effective in encouraging Japanese to improve their language proficiency, even in large classrooms (Ellis, 2001; Nation, 2001; Lewis, 2002; Kim and Tracy-Ventura, 2013; Sadeghi and Sharifi, 2013; Bao, 2015). In other words, by delivering classroom tasks teachers forced learners to be creative and use their own ability and strategies in completing educational tasks.

Numerous studies in the literature have focused on task-based instruction and the impacts of task on different aspects of language teaching and learning. Ruiz-Funes (2015) investigated the effect of task complexity and to reexamine the relationship between task complexity and linguistic output on the level of language proficiency and performance on task of the learners. The results indicated that there is an effective interaction between task complexity, linguistic output, and language proficiency. Asgarikia (2014) explored the effects of task type, strategic planning and no planning on written performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners and found that giving students enough time to plan before starting the task, leading them to a better performance. Also, the type of the task had a significant effect on their performance; for instance, the structured tasks were easier to perform than the other tasks. Geng and Ferguson (2013) investigated the influence of task type and participatory structure (or classroom organization) in pre-task on the fluency, complexity and accuracy of students' speaking ability. The obtained results indicated that teacher-led planning had some excellent benefits for accuracy, and individual planning for complexity, however, neither of them are meaningful and significant. Najjari (2014) have explored theoretical and practical considerations of implementation of TBLT in Iran and found that implementing TBLT in Iran is possible if teachers follow valid textbooks and communicative-oriented activities. Bagher Shabani and Ghasemi (2014) have investigated the effect of TBLT and Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT) on the Iranian intermediate ESP students' reading comprehension ability. The study was conducted with 60 participants that were assigned into two groups: a control group (CBLT) and an experimental group (TBLT). The findings indicated that TBLT has been more effective than CBLT in teaching reading comprehension to Iranian ESP students. However there are a lot of studies have conducted on the effect of different types of task and task-based instruction in the literature, there is no study that investigated the impacts of post-task activities on EFL learners'

language proficiency. Therefore, the current study investigated the impacts of task-based instruction and post-task activities on the Iranian EFL learners' reading achievements.

Research Question

Do task-based instruction and post-task activities such as repeated performance and asking personal questions have any significant effects on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading achievements?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total number of 47 intermediate EFL learners from 62 participants were randomly assigned in to three groups after taking the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). All participants showed interest to take part in this study. Group A consisted of 15 learners, group B consisted of 15, and group C consisted of 17 learners. Group C was the control group. Participants' ages range from 18 to 23 years. All of them were intermediate EFL male learners at a private language institute in Esfahan, Iran.

B. Instrumentations and Materials

To conduct the present study, the following materials and instruments were employed:

Oxford Placement Test. OPT is a standardized language proficiency test (a version of OPT that is called Solutions Placement Test) that was administered to determine homogenous learners. The test contained 50 multiple choice questions and also included a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions (five true-false and five multiple choice items). Based on the institute's placement test, all participants were in intermediate level. However, to ensure that all of them were in the same proficiency level OPT was administered.

Michigan English Language Assessment Battery. University of Michigan developed a standardized test to evaluate reading competence of adult non-native speakers of English. This test battery consists of three parts including written composition, listening comprehension, and grammar, cloze, vocabulary and reading comprehension multiple-choice questions, and also one optional speaking test in the form of a one-on-one interview with an examiner. In the current study, reading comprehension part of MELAB (1997) test was administered to the participants to determine the students' reading comprehension competence. This test included four reading passages with total 20 multiple-choice reading comprehension questions for students to be answered in 30 minutes. This test was employed as pretest in the current study. Since one part of this test was employed in the present study, it was piloted with 20 learners of similar test-takers at the Science Innovators Language Institute in Esfahan, Iran. Cronbach's Alpha formula for multiple choice items was employed and the results showed a reliability index of .764 (r= .764).

Reading posttest. A reading posttest was developed from Select Reading Textbook by the researcher to determine the learners' reading comprehension competence at the end of research and after treatment. This researcher-made course-based test contained 20 items; four reading passages followed by five multiple choice questions similar to the content of the reading text book. This test was piloted with 20 learners of similar test-takers at the Science Innovators Language Institute in Esfahan, Iran. Cronbach's Alpha formula for multiple choice items was employed; the results showed a reliability index of .808 (r= .808).

Semi-structured interview. The researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with five participants to investigate in-depth information about conducting post-task activities in the classroom. In these face-to-face interviews that were conducted in 30 minutes, the researchers began with lines of questioning and allowed the participants to address other related topics if they liked. The lines of questioning were as follows: Attitudes toward task-based instruction; benefits of employing task-based instruction and post-task activities in language teaching contexts; challenges of conducting such a program; and learners' motivation about participating in such language environments.

Select readings: Intermediate. This reading textbook (Second Edition) (Lee & Gunderson, 2011) is a teacher-approved American English reading textbook series for intermediate and university students. It contained a range of high interest reading texts approved by American experienced teachers. This four-level American English reading course uses carefully selected reading texts to assist learners to read more effectively. Exercises before and after reading practice reading skills, check comprehension and build vocabulary. This textbook has some special features that are suitable for this study.

C. Procedures

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants at the outset of the study, OPT was administered to 62 intermediate female EFL learners studying at a private English Language Institute in Esfahan, Iran. Having analyzed the data, 47 participants were chosen for the purpose of this study. Then, the selected participants were randomly assigned to three groups (two experimental groups and one control group). They were taught by three different teachers. To find out the effect of treatment (the effects of post-task activities such as asking comprehension questions, repeated performance, and analyzing and noticing the form or reflecting on the task) participants' reading comprehension was evaluated at the beginning of the study; therefore, the participants in three groups were asked to answer the MELAB at the outset of the study. During 10 sessions (two sessions per week and every session lasted one hour and half) of the treatment, participants in the experimental groups were exposed to task-based instruction and particularly post-task phase and

post-task reading activities. The material of the study was *Select Readings Intermediate* textbook. The participants were randomly assigned to three groups.

In groups A and B, learners received reading tasks and the teacher activated learners' background knowledge by asking them questions about their opinions and linking the key concepts through comprehension questions. In these groups, the teachers proposed questions of the learners that encourage the skill of metacognition and allow learners to ask their own questions. A regulatory checklist is a list of questions learners need to ask themselves during a problem solving task. This helps the learners arrange, monitor and evaluate their own learning by using a series of questions. Reflection on their learning is one of the important post-task activities. In this study, reflection on their learning was conducted through journaling. Journaling about their thinking help learners monitor their own understanding by giving them the opportunity to question the content, summarize key concepts, make predictions and connect it to prior knowledge. With the incorporation of concept maps, regulatory checklists and journaling, teachers can develop the metacognitive thinking in their classrooms. In this way learners can take control of and monitor their own learning. Learners can undergo greater conceptual changes and retain the information longer. In the last phase of task-based instruction which was the main concern of this study was, learners repeated their performance but in different forms. A watchful repeated performance shed light on learners' strengths and weaknesses. Consequently, learners can reflect on their performance and review their learning process. Repeated performances and some sort of self-monitoring and self-reflection were the central actions of learners in the two experimental groups. In group C (control group), just like the conventional reading class, the teacher read the passages and wrote the synonyms and antonyms of new vocabularies and the board. After the teaching, the learners can ask their questions if any.

During the pretesting, attention was devoted to the length of time should be allowed for work on each of the problems or topics selected for use (most appropriate time that learners can perform their tasks). What was wanted was a span of time long enough so that members of the groups would have adequate opportunity to express all the ideas which occurred to them within the working period. At the same time, the time period should be short enough in a way that individuals would not become bored by being forced to continue to solve a problem long after they had essentially exhausted their opinions and ideas. A thirty-minute time period was finally selected as the most appropriate time in which would permit learners to express all ideas to solve their classroom problems. In addition, this time period would not result in excessive periods of silence for language learners (Taylor, Berry, and Block, 1958).

Finally, the groups took a reading comprehension posttest in order to check and compare their reading comprehension achievement. The participants of three groups took the post-test at the very last session of their intensive reading course. Data were collected for further statistical analyses. The final results were compared within and between groups employing statistical techniques. After the course, the researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with five participants from experimental groups to investigate in-depth information about conducting post-task reading activities in the classroom. In these face-to-face interviews that were conducted in 30 minutes, the researchers began with lines of questioning and allowed the participants to address other related topics if they liked. The lines of questioning were as follows: Attitudes toward task-based instruction; benefits of employing task-based instruction in language teaching context; challenges of conducting such a program; and learners' motivation about participating in such language environments.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Quantitative Data Analysis

In order to classify them in almost homogenized groups and elicit the required number of participants for the purpose of the study, they were given the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to determine their levels of proficiency in English. After scoring the papers, those who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean (i.e., mean±1) were selected for the main part of the study. To ensure the homogeneity of the participants, those who get the score between 30-47 from the total score of 60 in OPT were selected as the intermediate level for main participants of the study. In other words, 47 learners got the scores 30-47, therefore, the total number of participants in the main study was 47 (N=47). And those 15 students who got the score below 35 were excluded from the study because they were regarded as heterogeneous.

In many research situations, however, researchers are interested in comparing the mean scores of more than two groups. In this situation, they would use analysis of variance (ANOVA). Having collected the results of reading part of MELAB in the pretest, the researcher analyzed the data employing One–way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The purpose of this analysis was to estimate the participants' level of reading comprehension before the study began.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Group A	15	12.87	1.922	.496	11.80	13.93	9	16
Group B	15	12.93	1.870	.483	11.90	13.97	8	16
Group C	17	12.35	1.656	.402	11.50	13.20	10	15
Total	47	12.70	1.793	.261	12.18	13.23	8	16

As the results in TABLE I show, mean and standard deviation of three groups are (M= 12.87, SD=1.922) for group A, (M= 12.93, SD= 1.870) for group B, and (M= 12.35, SD= 1.656) for group C respectively. The results do not show much difference between the three groups in their general level of reading comprehension at the outset of the study. Meanwhile, to ensure true homogeneity of the participants' reading comprehension competency (N=47), One–way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

TABLE II.
RESULTS OF ANOVA FOR PRETEST

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.281	2	1.640	.499	.610
Within Groups	144.549	44	3.285		
Total	147.830	46			

A one way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the reading comprehension competency of participants as measured by MELAB. The participants were divided into three groups randomly. There was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in MELAB scores for the three groups: $F (2, 44) =.499, p = .610$. The results of one way ANOVA showed that there is no significant difference between three groups at the outset of the study.

To determine the effects of treatment that was the effect of post-task activities on EFL learners' achievement, the researchers employed one way ANOVA.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POSTTEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Group A	15	14.87	1.506	.389	14.03	15.70	12	18
Group B	15	16.73	1.831	.473	15.72	17.75	13	20
Group C	17	13.18	1.185	.287	12.57	13.79	11	15
Total	47	14.85	2.095	.306	14.24	15.47	11	20

As the results in TABLE III show, mean and standard deviation of three groups are (M= 14.87, SD=1.506) for group A, (M= 16.73, SD= 1.831) for group B, and (M= 13.18, SD= 1.185) for group C respectively. The results show significant difference between the three groups in their general level of reading comprehension at the end of the study. Meanwhile, to ensure true difference of the participants' reading comprehension competency (N=47), One–way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted.

TABLE IV.
RESULTS OF ONE–WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) OF POSTTEST

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	100.820	2	50.410	21.931	.000
Within Groups	101.137	44	2.299		
Total	201.957	46			

A one way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the reading comprehension competency of participants at the end of the study as measured by Reading Posttest. The participants were divided into three groups randomly. There was statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in Reading Posttest scores for the three groups: $F (2, 44) = 21.931, p = .000$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .49. This size effect indicated that the actual difference in mean score between groups was quite large.

TABLE V.
RESULTS OF POST HOC TEST FOR POSTTEST

Post Hoc Tests

	(I) Groups		(J) Groups		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LSD	Dimension 2	Group A	dimension3	Group B	-1.867*	.554	.002	-2.98	-.75
				Group C	1.690*	.537	.003	.61	2.77
		Group B	dimension3	Group A	1.867*	.554	.002	.75	2.98
				Group C	3.557*	.537	.000	2.47	4.64
		Group C	dimension3	Group A	-1.690*	.537	.003	-2.77	-.61
				Group B	-3.557*	.537	.000	-4.64	-2.47

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of one way ANOVA showed the significant of treatments in groups. However, to determine the difference between groups Post Hoc Test was conducted. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated the mean score for group A was significantly different from group B and group C. Based on the results of Post-hoc

comparisons, employing past-task activities in the classrooms have significant impacts on EFL learners' reading achievements.

B. Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data was gathered through semi-structured interviews with five learners who participated in this study. The procedure for analyzing qualitative data was as follows: Each data set was read several times to gain some sense of the main ideas being expressed. Then the data was coded and analyzed manually and subjectively.

There are some important points in interviews that are presented here:

• As students can monitor their own progress in a task-based instruction, especially post-task activities, they had a positive attitude toward employing post-task activities in language classrooms. Mohammad said in his interview: "*when we repeat a task in the classroom, we can detect our mistakes and try to obviate them in the future and I believe that practice makes perfect."*

• Students mentioned repeatedly in their interview that task-based instruction provides a remarkable opportunity for them to check their classmates' performance. Peer feedback has a positive impact on students' attitudes. Mohammad and Parham are classmates. They said in their interview that they learn best when they correct their friends. "*I like it very much when Mohammad discovers my mistakes".* (Parham said in his interview)

• Most students show strong motivation to participate in such kinds of language classrooms. "*In my opinion, doing tasks in the class change its atmosphere. Students learn the points in a friendly environment. I think all students like to participate in this classroom. In my previous class, only our teacher gave us information about the lesson and we had no role in the class. The teacher was a knowledgeable teacher but we don't [didn't] like the class atmosphere".* (Meysam stated in his interview)

• Lack of confidence was the main obstacle for students to participate in the educational tasks. "*Before this course, we largely relied on our teacher ability. The most stressful time of the class was when the teacher asked some questions or took quiz. But in this course, we should rely on our own and our classmate ability. Of course, it is an effective way of language teaching, but I think I am not ready to participate in these tasks voluntarily".* (Reza claimed in his interview)

The results of both quantitative and qualitative data indicate that conducting task-based instruction with focusing on post-task activities enhance students' ability to monitor their progress effectively. They can also take advantage of peer feedback that would be a praiseworthy feature of every task-based instruction. They also stated that individual differences can be a determining factor in learners' engagement in classroom tasks. This finding is confirmed with what Mellati, et al. (2015) who stated that individual factors such as learners' anxiety have significant impacts on learners' participation in classroom activities.

The findings of present study are in confirmed with Ellis (2009) who states that post-task activities provide great opportunities for repeating a task; persuade learners to reflect on how the task was performed; and foster their attention to language form, especially those language forms that learners had problem with them when they wanted to perform a task. The results also are consistent with Mozgalina (2015) who explains that task-based instruction motivates language learners to engage in classroom activities that lead into their satisfaction at the end of the course. Just like Nikula (2015) and Llinares and Dalton-Puffer (2015), the present study demonstrated that repeated performance enhances learners' proficiency. The results of interview also demonstrated that noticing post-task activities in the classroom increase learners' motivation and self-confidence to participate in the task and change their attitudes about language learning. Generally, there is a consensus among teachers and researchers that task-based instruction is an effective and useful method for teaching language; however, attention to post-task activities has at least three advantages for language learners. According to the results of interviews: 1) Post-task activities shed light on learners' strengths and weaknesses especially in the repeated performance. They understand what they learned and what not. Learners can promote their strengths by practice and obviate their weaknesses by efficient learning strategies. 2) Post-task activities increase learners' motivation to participate in classroom activities. There is a general agreement in the literature that motivation plays an integral role in successful learning. Motivation is one of the most frequently used words in psychology. It refers to what drives a person into doing something and has two types: intrinsic and extrinsic. To a large extent, everything that we perform is because of at least two important reasons: the first one is a reward and the second one is a consequence of not doing something. These two reasons can be obvious tangible benefits as Pae (2008) stated can be a financial reward; enjoyment; or the risk of these being taken away through losing one's job. Here, knowing about their strengths and weaknesses are good potential reasons to boost learners' intrinsic motivation. 3) Post-task activities have significant impact on learners' positive attitudes about learning context, teacher, peers, and material. In a task-based instruction that is followed by post-task activities, learners understand clearly what they learned and they need to learn. Obviously, this point changes their attitudes about that language class. They follow the instruction precisely as they know the lesson plan and its possible results evidently. In sum, contrary to the Lyster (2014) who stated that task-based instruction is not as significant as mentioned in the literature, the findings of present study demonstrated that post-task activities enhance learner' language proficiency. The findings also are consistent with Lynch and McLean (2001), García Mayo (2007), and Samuda and Bygate (2008) who claimed repetition of a task will increase its effectiveness and consequently the language level to complete that task. They believe that when language learners do a task again their language production and their results will be improved, for instance, they will be able to use more complex expressions, to transfer their intended meaning more clearly, and finally they will be able to use language more fluently.

V. Conclusions

The present study investigated the effects of task-based instruction and post-task activities such as asking comprehension question, reflection on task, and repeated performance on EFL learners' reading achievements. The results of both quantitative and qualitative data demonstrated that task-based instruction and post-task activates have a significant effect on learners' language ability and language proficiency. Post-task activities provide a remarkable opportunity for learners to monitor their own progress and enhance their language ability by focusing on peer feedback. The results of interview indicated that learners are strongly motivated to participate in such programs. The findings demonstrated that post-task activities are as important as pre-task and during-task activities. However, lack of self-confidence is the main obstacle in these kinds of language classrooms. The findings provide adequate guidelines for policy makers, stakeholders, and teachers for planning more effective teaching and learning contexts. They should consider post-task activities in their lesson plans. Learners' characteristics and individual differences also should be noticed in a task-based instruction. Furthermore, more studies are required to focus on different phases (pre-task, during task, and post-task) of a task-based instruction exclusively. Considering contextual factors on task-based instruction will lead researchers into new facts about effective learner-teacher relationship and adequate language teaching environment.

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Promoting Interpreter Competence through Input Enhancement of Prefabricated Lexical Chunks

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Abstract—**This research is intended to illustrate that enhancing input of prefabricated chunks in the training of interpreters will help promote their competence in actual interpretation situations. With more prefabricated chunks stored in mind, an interpreter can not only save time for thinking, but also lower anxiety and tension, thus improving fluency and accuracy.**

Index Terms—**prefabricated lexical chunks, interpretation, interpreter, input enhancement, competence**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Interpretation involves understanding and expressing, with the former being the process of deconstructing the original text and the latter being the process of constructing the target text. The task of an interpreter is to express as fluently and accurately as possible the speaker's meaning following his or her train of thoughts immediately after he or she finishes the speech. Compared with translation, interpretation requires immediate deconstruction and construction, without sufficient time for thinking and polishing. Since it is more demanding in terms of time and response, an interpreter should be more prepared for interpretation tasks.

Of the skills required for an interpreter, linguistic competence is by far the most important aspect which plays the pivotal role in aiding his or her expression of ideas, namely, the output of information. To achieve quality output, the input, namely the stored information in one's mind is of primary importance. One's input has direct impact on the quality of his or her output. So efforts shall be made to enhance input of relevant information. In the case of interpretation, the input of an interpreter consists of vocabulary, grammar, culture, professional knowledge, etc..

B. Current Situation

In current interpretation courses, it is found that, students who had been learning English for nine years from primary through high school, and have been studying English intensively for two or three years as English majors, still can not achieve the basic level of fluency and accuracy in interpretation. This indicates, to certain extent, that, the mere learning of words, grammar and culture is far from enough to make a qualified interpreter. Professional training is required. Of the training courses provided, a typical training program generally includes such units as: Introduction; Interpreter's Code of Ethics and Standards of Practice; Roles, Boundaries and Essential Practices; Theory of Interpreting and Memory Development; Culture Bridging; Interpersonal Skills; Sight Translating and Note-Taking; Interpretation Practice.

These units are quite necessary; however, the most important component of an interpreter is linguistic competence, which directly determines the quality output in interpretation. So besides the conventional learning of words, grammar and cultural knowledge, we should enhance the input of prefabricated chunks to promote timely and comprehensive output of an interpreter.

C. Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to demonstrate that, the enhancement of input of prefabricated chunks in the training of interpreters, combined with grammar, culture and professional knowledge, will help construct interpreter ability and promote competence in more fluent and accurate output.

D. Methodology

To achieve the purpose of this research, an experiment is conducted to elicit relevant statistics for analysis. After the experiment, some interviews were made to ask the subjects some questions about the differences between sufficient and insufficient input of prefabricated chunks. So experiment, interview, together with literature review will be adopted in this research.

II. COMPONENTS OF INTERPRETER COMPETENCE

A. Characteristics and Requirements of Interpreting

Unlike translation, interpreting does not mean a word-for-word translation; instead, it transfers spoken messages from

one language into another, instantly and accurately. Interpreting takes place in real-time situations, with interpreters being in direct contact with both the speaker and the audience. In interpreting, some unimportant details of the original speech might be omitted when transferred into the target language. Interpreters therefore rely primarily on their linguistic expertise acquired through a lot of training and experience, because a sentence in one language may be rendered an entirely different way in another. So excellent interpreters are those endowed with very quick responses, a good memory as well as standard and comprehensible speaking voice. An interpreter also acts as a facilitator between speaker and listener, both linguistically and diplomatically.

To sum up, interpreting is a spontaneous activity, requiring wide knowledge, strong independence, ability to work under high pressure (Mei Deming, 2000).

B. Components of Interpreter Competence

As a complex mental process, interpreting is a much demanding job, consisting of input, interpretation and output. It can be further divided into five stages, namely reception of specific information, decoding, recording, coding and message presentation. In the process of interpreting, the interpreter must follow closely the train of thought of the speaker. Based on the characteristics of interpreting, an interpreter is generally believed to have the following basic abilities:

Δ Thorough and deep knowledge of the general subject to be interpreted;

Δ Being familiar with both cultures;

Δ Extensive vocabulary of both languages;

Δ The ability to express thought and ideas clearly and concisely in both languages;

Δ Excellent memory and note-taking skills;

Δ Excellent listening and standard pronunciation.

To put the above items in details, it can be extended that an interpreter should possess such components of competence:

Firstly and primarily, an interpreter must have bilingual ability, which includes a thorough understanding and skillful use of both languages and cultures, deep knowledge of linguistic characteristics of both languages, as well as sharp listening and expressing ability, so as to transfer freely between the two languages.

Secondly, an interpreter must be possessed with the ability of clear and accurate expression in target language, conveying the close or equivalent meaning of the speaker.

Thirdly, an interpreter must have excellent memory and note-taking skills, since in the process of interpreting, there is no time for him or her to resort to some references or somebody else for help. Totally depending on himself or herself, he or she has to store a large vocabulary, cultural and professional knowledge, abbreviations, waiting to be drawn out in case of use, to ensure accuracy and fluency.

Fourthly, quick response and emergency-dealing abilities are also a prerequisite for an interpreter. Besides transferring the contents between two languages, an interpreter should also be prepared to deal with emergencies at any time.

Lastly, an interpreter should master encyclopedic knowledge, such as professional knowledge, social knowledge, knowledge of regulations and policies, knowledge about international relations and background, as well as national and local customs, places of interest, trees and flowers, insects and other animals. Interpreting is actually a cross-cultural communication, so strong cross-cultural awareness is also quite important for an interpreter to ensure smooth and perfect communication between two or more parties involved.

III. MEMORY AND COGNITION IN INTERPRETATION

A. Short-term and Long-term Memory

Short-term memory, also known as primary or active memory, is the capacity for holding a small amount of information in mind within a short period of time. It is brief in time and limited in storing information. Some information can last for up to a minute in short-term memory, but most information will spontaneously decay quite quickly without conscious efforts for retaining.
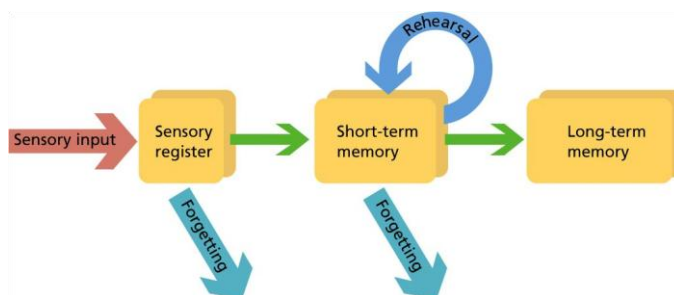
In contrast, long-term memory refers to the storage of information over an extended period. It has a seemingly

boundless capacity and duration. Of course, there is not a clear line between short-term and long-term memory. It is generally believed that **chunking** and **rehearsal** can help facilitate information from short-term memory into long-term memory. Once stored in long-term memory, information can be recalled sometime later, as short as a few minutes, or as long as many years to come. However, information stored in long-term memory can also be forgotten without conscious efforts for retaining.

B. Memory and Cognition

According to Collins dictionary, cognition is "the mental process involved in knowing, learning and understanding things." While the definition given by wikipedia is "the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses." As a part of cognition, memory plays an important role in the learning process. New knowledge, once memorized and stored into long-term memory, will become existing knowledge, which will, in return, help learn and memorize newer knowledge. With more and more knowledge stored in our long-term memory, a structured knowledge will come into shape in our mind, we will have a clearer picture of what we are learning or the world around us, thus a better cognition.

C. Interpretation Based on Memory and Cognition

The output of interpretation is influenced by both short-term and long-term memory. Short-term memory can be applied in sentence to sentence interpretation. For consecutive interpretation which involves the transference of more messages extending to the time period of more than twenty seconds or more, note-taking and long-term memory must be applied. Otherwise, the complete and accurate interpretation will not be likely to be accomplished.

In fact, long-term memory has an effect on short-term memory. The more information an interpreter stores in his or her mind, especially more deeply rooted information, the easier it will be to treat information from short-term memory. According to Neisser (1967), the American psychologist who first used the term "cognitive psychology", cognition involves "all processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used." Therefore, one's memory influences his or her cognition, which then influences his or her understanding of the subject matter, and thus affecting the output of interpretation.

From the relationship between memory, cognition and interpretation, we can come to the assumption that, enhancing input will facilitate more fluent and accurate output. Then what to be input into our mind as stored information? Vocabulary, grammar, culture, expertise, etc. can all be included. It has been mentioned above that, **chunking** and **rehearsal** can help facilitate information from short-term memory into long-term memory. So, if an interpreter can memorize as many chunks as possible in the course of training, more and more information can be stored in long-term memory, which will produce better and better cognition of the subject matter. Then the output will undoubtedly be a more smooth process, resulting in higher quality interpretation.

This can be called the input enhancement of prefabricated chunks in the training of interpretation or interpretation pedagogy.

IV. PREFABRICATED LEXICAL CHUNKS

A. Introduction

According to wikipedia, prefabrication is "the practice of assembling components of a structure in a factory or other manufacturing site, and transporting complete assemblies or sub-assemblies to the construction site where the structure is to be located." People use the term to distinguish this process from the more conventional construction practice of "transporting the basic materials to the construction site where all assembly is carried out."
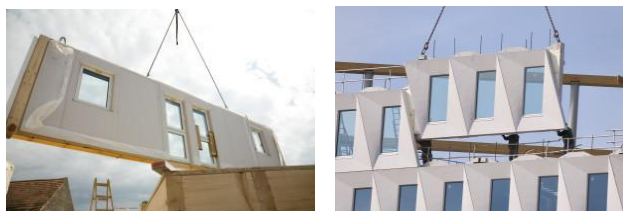
Interpretation is, to certain extent, much similar to construction. At the site of interpretation, an interpreter has already accumulated a large vocabulary, cultural and professional knowledge, etc. which can be regarded as construction materials needed for the completion of the buildings. What he or she needs to do, is to utilize his linguistic competence to understand the meaning of the source text as conveyed by the speaker, and then express the equivalent meaning in target language, just like a construction worker who makes use of his skills to put together the reinforcing bars, concrete, gravels or bricks to construct walls and roofs and houses.

Nevertheless, it is time-consuming to mix the different materials on the site. To solve this problem, people build the whole walls or roofs according to specifications beforehand somewhere else, and then transport them to the construction site, where they just do the assembling work. So, if an interpreter can put some words or cultural elements together prior to the interpretation task, and can memorize these combined units firmly, then will it cost less time for him or her to

pick up related words and knowledge from his or her storage? If this is the case, he or she could have more time to concentrate his mind on fluent and accurate transference of information. This is the term of prefabricated chunks."

B. Definition and Classification

It is generally believed that a lexical chunk is a group of words that are commonly found together, or a unit of language which is made up of two or more words, also includes phrasal verbs, idioms, collocations and so on. Ben Zimmer (2010) in his article for New York Times says that, lexical chunks are "meaningful strings of words that are committed to memory".

After exhaustive research, Norbert Schmitt (2000) concludes that, lexical chunks are "longer sequences of words" patterned together, and they are "institutionalized as the most efficient and most familiar linguistic means to carry out language functions."He also points out that, by "storing a number of frequently-needed lexical chunks as individual whole units", we human beings are making use of a relatively abundant resource from long-term memory to compensate for a relatively lack of processing capacity within a very short period of time. According to ehow, lexical chunks are "groups of words commonly found together", including such types as phrasal verbs, collocations, sentence frames and idioms. Phrasal verbs are "combinations of a verb and a preposition, adverb or both". Collocation refers to "the appropriate combination of words in the English language, mainly when using adjectives and nouns together". Some sentence frames have "slots" where "the speaker can insert a number of words, according to the situation." Sentence frames, especially those contain familiar phrases, when memorized, can facilitate a person's speech and enable the listeners to understand the meaning more easily. And idioms are "phrases with a metaphorical meaning".

This is a very general classification of lexical chunks. After studying domestic and overseas research results, Ma Guanghui (2011) summarized that lexical chunks can be categorized from five aspects, namely, structure, function, number of words, frequency of being used, and density among the different parts. As early as 1992, Nattinger & DeCarrico put forward their categorization of lexical chunks in their *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching* (Oxford Applied Linguistics) (1st Edition). In this book, lexical chunks fall into four kinds: 1. Multiple words chunks: fixed phrases that can act as some independent words, for example, on the one hand, on the other hand; 2. Customary chunks, refer to sentence frames as mentioned above by ehow, that contain some semantic slots in which words or phrases can be inserted; 3. Phrase structure, refers to a fixed form or semi-fixed form of combination of word groups typically including proverbs, aphorisms and social formula language; 4. Sentence constructed chunks, refer to sentence structures and quotations that provide frames to the whole sentences.

C. Lexical Chunks and SLA

No matter how lexical chunks are classified, they have the following advantages: comparatively fixed in form; high capacity; relatively easy to remember; relatively less time for recalling, etc. Due to these advantages, lexical chunks play an increasingly important role in second language acquisition.

Nattinger & DeCarrico (1992) think that, lexical chunks as an ideal memory unit, revealed the essence of the law of language learning. Once acquired, lexical chunks are much productive, able to produce similar phrases based on certain grammatical rules and usage habits. Lian Jie (2001) believes that the use of lexical chunks will enable second language learners to produce more proper and acceptable sentences. Hou Junmei (2013) concluded a set of functions of lexical chunks upon second language acquisition, including: 1. Lexical chunks can reduce short-memory burden; 2. Lexical chunks can facilitate decoding time in the mind; 3. Lexical chunks can help overcome L1 negative transfer; 4. Lexical chunks can help improve fluency and accuracy in linguistic output. Based on previous research, Zhao Ying (2009) generalized other functions of lexical chunks, namely, promoting language fluency; enhancing language accuracy; facilitating creative language production; guiding language production; increasing learners' motivation.

It can be seen from the above research of lexical chunks that, the mastery of lexical chunks can not only facilitate learners' input, but also help the output, thus achieving more effective communication.

V. PREFABRICATED LEXICAL CHUNKS AND INTERPRETATION

A. Lexical Chunks and Memory

As mentioned above, there are short-term and long-term memory. Since short-term memory generally lasts no more than ten seconds, it will require much effort and time to search for and find out the information from the depth of the minds of interpreters. If some cultural or linguistic units can be put together firmly into lexical chunks, which are then rehearsed again and again until deeply rooted in the long-term memory of the interpreters, it will save a lot of time and energy at the site of interpretation. Just as Norbert Schmitt noted, lexical chunks "can be easily retrieved and used without the need to compose them on-line through word selection and grammatical sequencing." (Norbert, 2000)

B. Input Enhancement of Prefabricated Lexical Chunks

According to Wynne Wong (2007), input, in the context of language acquisition, "refers to samples of language that learners are exposed to in a communicative context or setting". Without input, there will not be any successful language acquisition. Therefore, all scholars in SLA agree that "input is fundamental to language acquisition." In SLA, input enhancement can make specific features of L2 input more salient, thus drawing learners' attention to these features.

Of the four techniques (input flood; textual enhancement; structured input and grammatical consciousness-raising tasks) of input enhancement introduced by Wong, input flood is by far the most effective technique for retaining lexical chunks in long-term memory. Once firmly memorized through constant rehearsal or whatsoever, lexical chunks are prefabricated in the mind of an interpreter, who, when encountering the corresponding cultural or linguistic strings, can immediately pick up and put them into the stream of output with fluency and accuracy.

To demonstrate that input enhancement of prefabricated lexical chunks can help promote interpreters' competence, an experiment has been conducted. The following experiment will show that, there is a correlation between prefabricated lexical chunks and interpreters' competence.

VI. EXPERIMENT

A. Description

The interpretation corpus of this research is selected from Mei Deming' *Intermediate Interpretation Course*. The subjects in this experiment, ten students majoring in Business English, are selected from the English department of Pinghu Campus of Jiaxing University. They are divided into two groups, Group A and Group B. The five students of Group A are from Business English Class 121, and the other five students of Group B are from Business English Class 122. To ensure reasonable and scientific results, the academic records of the two groups are at the same level. All of them are senior students and they are attending an Interpretation Course given by the same teacher. The five students of Group A are respectively labeled as A1, A2, A3, A4, A5; likewise, the five students of Group B are respectively labeled as B1, B2, B3, B4, B5.

All of the ten students had been learning English for thirteen years since grade three in primary school. By the time of this experiment, it is their fourteenth year of learning English and the eighth week to study the course of interpretation.

The experiment is conducted as follows:

Step One: Informing the students to take part in an interpretation test one day in advance.

Step Two: Two hours prior to the experiment, sixteen lexical chunks contained in the would-be interpretation test were distributed to Group A students. They were also told to memorize these lexical chunks and should be able to learn by heart.

Step Three: The experiment begins in a quiet office. The subjects come in the office one after another, sitting on the opposite side of the teacher across the table. An assistant sitting beside the subjects would record the whole tests, taking down the time used by each subject from the moment she started the interpretation till she is finished. In each test, the teacher would read altogether five English sentences, and after each sentence, the subject should immediately begin her interpretation. If she does not catch what the teacher says, she could ask the teacher to read again.

Step Four: During the experiment, two items were timed, namely the time that each subject used for the interpretation of one sentence and the times of the teacher's reading of the sentences as required by the subjects. When the test is over, all the data were collected and carefully checked to ensure accuracy.

B. Results

1. Data elicited from the experiment.

TABLE 1

Group A	S1 (s)	Reading	S2 (s)	Reading	S3 (s)	Reading	S4 (s)	Reading	S5 (s)	Reading
A1	12.9	1	7.2	2	10.2	1	10.7	1	10.4	1
A2	7.9	1	12.1	1	9.1	1	21	2	14.9	1
A3	6.2	1	4.6	2	9.8	1	13.4	2	11.6	1
A4	9.7	1	10.6	1	10.3	1	10.8	2	15.3	1
A5	7	1	12.6	1	20.8	1	20.8	1	14.8	1
	43.7		47.1		60.2		76.7		67	
Average Time	8.74		9.42		12.04		15.34		13.4	
Average Times		1		1.4		1		1.6		1

TABLE 2

Group B	S1 (s)	Reading	S2 (s)	Reading	S3 (s)	Reading	S4 (s)	Reading	S5 (s)	Reading
B1	5.6	2	6.4	1	6.5	3	10.3	2	10.6	1
B2	9	1	7.5	3	15.8	2	19.6	3	27.4	2
B3	16.7	3	12	1	9.3	1	12.2	1	25.1	2
B4	17	1	13.9	2	21.3	2	13.7	1	25.7	2
B5	16	1	12.2	1	17.6	2	19.4	2	22.4	3
	64.3		52		70.5		75.2		111.2	
Average Time	12.86		10.4		14.1		15.1		22.24	
Average Times		1.6		1.6		2		2		2

Calculation:
D1=AveBS1-AveAS1=4.12 (s)
D2=AveBS2-AveAS2=0.98 (s)
D3=AveBS3-AveAS3=2.06 (s)
D4=AveBS4-AveAS4=-0.24 (s)
D5=AveBS5-AveAS5=9 (s)
4.12+0.98+2.06-0.24+9=15.92 (s)
D6=15.92/5=3.184(s)
Total average times of Group A=1.2 (times)
Total average times of Group B=1.84 (times)
D7=1.84-1.2=0.64 (times)
(Note: D stands for difference between the results of Group A and Group B)
2. Detailed performance of the subjects

S1 contains an adverbial clause of time. Group A subjects all achieved 100% correctness in the use of such lexical chunks as "during one's stay in ...", and "infrastructure construction". Only B1 and B5 from Group B got the correct meaning of "infrastructure construction", with the rest failing to express the right meaning.

S2 is longer than other sentences, containing two independent sentences. Both S2 and S3 are expressions used at trade fairs. Subjects from both Group A and Group B basically expressed the approximate meaning. Nevertheless, the pronunciation of "week-long" created a barrier for their listening, so they just mistook it for a name of a country.

Figures are always the most difficult part in interpretation. Ninety percent of the subjects made mistakes in understanding the two figures of 130 and 90, indicating insufficient training in this aspect.

(1) been given such lexical chunks as "sign contract with", most of them were still didn't express the right meaning when it is in a passive voice sentence. Only one subject from Group A correctly interpreted the sentence after listening to it for two times. Some subjects from Group B even mistook the word "contract" for "contact".

(2) S5 is also a long sentence. Subjects from Group A could all translate the sentence correctly after listening for one time, and 90% of them got the right meaning of the source text with the aid of lexical chunks. Whereas subjects from Group B had to listen to the sentence two times before beginning the interpretation, and only one out of five got the right meaning of "establish joint venture with".

C. Analysis and Discussion

From the figures in the above table 1 and table 2, it can be seen that, D6=3.184 (s), which means that the average time spent by each subject of Group A is 3.184 seconds less than that of each subject of Group B. This indicates that, subjects from Group A could finish the interpretation of each sentence more quickly than subjects from Group B.

D7=0.64 (s), means that, the teacher had to read 0.64 times more for subjects of Group B than for subjects of Group A. That is to say, subjects from Group A could grasp the meaning of the sentences with less time than those from Group B.

The two differences show that, with lexical chunks stored in the memory of the interpreters in advance, they can catch the meaning of the source text more quickly and spend less time finishing the interpretation of the sentences.

Of course, it should also be pointed out that, after making a comparison of the translated versions between the two groups, we found that, the target language sentences produced by subjects of Group A are generally more accurate than those produced by subjects of Group B.

VII. CONCLUSION

From the figures, the analysis and discussion, we can see that, lexical chunks, once prefabricated in the mind, can

facilitate interpretation. With the input of more and more prefabricated lexical chunks, it will take the interpreter less time to grasp the meaning of the source language, thus reducing the burden of short-term memory.

With more and more prefabricated lexical chunks stored in long-memory, the interpreter will have a deeper and more thorough understanding of the subject matter, thus gradually forming a better cognition of certain domains of knowledge. On the other hand, after acquiring a better cognition of certain domains of knowledge, an interpreter would have well-structured cognitive system, thus promoting his or her competence of interpretation.

To sum up, sufficient input of prefabricated lexical chunks will enable the interpreters to produce higher quality versions of translation with less time for reaction.

VIII. RECOMMENDATION

The experiment conducted here has shown the advantages of enhancing input of lexical chunks. Based on the results of and discussion about the experiment, it is recommended that, it is necessary and vital for interpreters to enhance the input of lexical chunks in daily training for the promotion of their interpretation competence.

On the other hand, due to the fact that many English majors are not competent enough in the mastery of lexical chunks, appropriate measures shall be taken by teachers to stimulate them to spend more efforts in grasping those set phrases, proper expressions, certain sentence structures, etc., so as to enhance the ability for the utilization of lexical chunks.

Of course, input enhancement of lexical chunks can not work satisfactorily without the input of other knowledge, such as grammar, culture, and professional expertise.

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Scrutinizing the Impact of Teachers' Critical Thinking and Teaching Autonomy on Their Teaching Success and Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies

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Abstract—Postmethod perspective on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching considers EFL teachers to be reflective and autonomous practitioners who play the role of change agents. In order to systematically study the way these attributes affect teachers' and learners' actual performance, this study investigated the effect of EFL teachers' Critical Thinking (CT) and Teaching Autonomy (TA) on their Teaching Success (TS) and EFL learners' Language Learning Strategies (LLS) use. Twenty mixed-gender upper-intermediate and advanced level general English classes were randomly selected from ten language schools. The teachers were 25 to 40 years of age ($M_{age} = 31$), whereas the learners were 18 to 30 ($M_{age} = 24$). In each class, CT and TA questionnaires were answered by the teacher and the LLS and TS scales were completed by the learners after 12 to 19 sessions. The results of a one-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Scheffe's revealed that those EFL learners whose teachers had a high TA level show a significantly higher perception toward TS. Moreover, those learners whose teachers had a low CT level showed a higher, but non-significant, perception toward TS. Furthermore, EFL learners whose teachers had a moderate level of TA demonstrated a higher, but non-significant, use of LLS. Finally, EFL learners whose teachers had a high CT level showed a higher, but non-significant use of LLS. Regarding the limitations and drawing upon the findings, the article concludes with some pedagogical implications and some avenues for future research.

Index Terms—critical thinking, language learning strategies, teaching autonomy, teaching success

I. INTRODUCTION

Current trends in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), like those favored by Postmethod methodology, are founded upon the notion that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers function as transformative intellectuals and reflective practitioners (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). They are expected to play the role of change agents and raise educational, social, cultural, and political consciousness in their learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Moreover, it is believed that EFL teachers have a significance influence over many of the internal factors among EFL learners (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014, 2015; Zaker, 2013, 2015, 2016).

Taking on the role of reflective practitioners and employing the intellectual ability to reflectively cogitate on the practice of teaching, according to Farrell (2012), are now considered to be among the essential needs for language educators which will happen through a critical analysis of the teaching and learning attitudes and practices so that educators will function more autonomously and responsibly (Farrell, 2012). This new perspective seems to be inconsistent with the conventional beliefs which consider the role of EFL teachers to transmit knowledge from the curriculum to the learners (Bell, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

The way EFL teachers function, just like every human being, is substantially influenced by their internal, mental, cognitive, and metacognitive factors. Accordingly, it is now widely believed that EFL teachers' mental traits, to a large extent, predict and determine how they attempt to materialize the pedagogical goals (Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002). In a similar vein, Lange (1990) favors the idea that there exists an intimate relationship between critically reflecting on the practice of teaching and the process of teacher development. Lange (1990) has remarked:

The reflective process allows developing teachers latitude to experiment within a framework of growing knowledge and experience. It gives them the opportunity to examine their relations with students, their values, their abilities, and their successes and failures in a realistic context. It begins the developing teacher's path toward becoming an "expert teacher." (p. 249-250)

It seems, therefore, quite reasonable to state that any attempt to develop the TEFL practice should acknowledge EFL teachers' internal factors as highly influential factors which substantially affect the way they perform in the classroom

(Garton, 2008). In actual fact, the building blocks of the teachers' internal framework of teaching are influenced by both research and teachers' reflection and observation of teaching and learning (Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Assuming reflective practice as an integral component of teaching practice, Farrell (2012) sensibly argues that if teaching is not interwoven with consciously reflecting on the practice, the routine and mechanically repetitive actions can lead to eventual burnout and losing the internal motiving force. This premise seems to be in line with Dewey's (1933) argument where he maintains that teachers who do not bother to reflect on their work are bound to become slaves to routine. As Richards and Lockhart (1994) put it, teachers should "collect data about their teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p. 1).

Teaching is a reflective activity which at once shapes and is shaped by the doing and theorizing based on reflection and acting autonomously based on a self-made and context-sensitive theory of teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Edge (2001) states that, "the thinking teacher is no longer perceived as someone who applies theories, but someone who theorizes practice" (p. 6). Based on the abovementioned points, critical reflection on the practice of teaching seems to be one of the fundamental elements when it comes to equipping EFL teachers with a heightened degree of knowledge, recognizing their personal agency, and, as Akbari (2008) puts it, legitimizing their voices. This personal agency later presents itself as the ability to act more autonomously and flexibly in different contexts based on the internalized teaching knowledge (Farrell, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 2008).

The proposed notion of theorizing from practice and reflective teaching can only become materialized when the EFL teacher acts based on their own agency and theory of teaching which can be called autonomous practice (Paul & Elder, 2008; Scharle & Szabo, 2000). Autonomy (AU), as defined by Little (1991), is "[a] capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p. 4). An autonomous individual is not dependant on others for the direction and control of one's thinking (Paul & Elder, 2008). Teaching autonomy, therefore, seems to trace its roots to acknowledging EFL practitioners' potential to know both how to teach and how to act autonomously based on the personalized theory within the academic and administrative constraints. Therefore, there seems to be an absolute requirement for integration of these two elements for a well-informed, context-sensitive, and personalized practice of teaching.

As stated above, EFL practitioners are expected to be reflective, autonomous, and transformative intellectuals who play the role of change agents and act on information about learners, context, and pedagogical goals (Farrell, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). The underlying basis of this view seems to be promoting language learning and teaching success through encouraging EFL teachers' reflective and autonomous performance. This is based on the belief that teacher quality is a crucial predictor of students' performance (King, 2003).

Based on the arguments put forward, there should be a significant relationship between EFL teachers' degree of critical reflection and autonomous act, on the one hand, and EFL learners' performance, on the other hand. EFL learners' performance can be evaluated through different measures, e.g. language development, language learning techniques, and overall satisfaction with the instruction. Therefore, in order to systematically inspect the way the abovementioned teachers factors, i.e. reflection on practice and autonomous performance, can affect EFL teachers' success in teaching and the way EFL learners are influenced, this study particularly attempts to investigate the effect of EFL teachers' Critical Thinking (CT) and Teaching Autonomy (TA) on their Teaching Success (TS) as perceived by EFL learners and Language Learning Strategies (LLS) use which is believed to directly affect the process of learning a second language (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2007; O'Maley & Chamot, 1990). Figure 1 presents a schematic overview of the variables of this study.
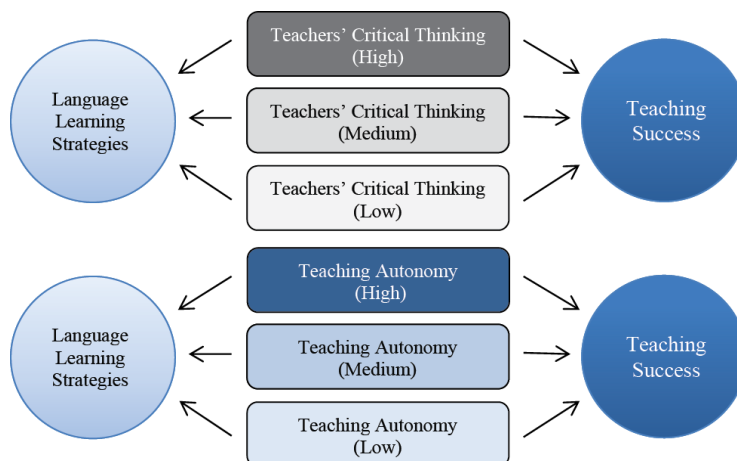

Figure 1: The variables of the study

Teaching success can be defined as a multifaceted phenomenon which brings about realizing pedagogical goals, effective learning, and learning-experience satisfaction among learners (Haskvitz, 2007). However, different views have

been presented about teaching success. Elizabeth, May and Chee (2008) report the results of their meta-analysis of studies on teacher effectiveness, asserting that on top of distinctive personality traits, effective teachers are distinguished by strong cognitive skills. Regarding successful teachers, they further argue that:

They are subject specialists who are able to select, organize, and deliver content, are efficient and effective in the use of instructional time, and are able to vary their teaching strategies according to student needs… [They] are skilful in using questions, promote critical and creative thinking, and use wait time when seeking student response. (p. 624)

The investigation of teacher success is important as with better knowledge of the concept, educators can better envisage professional development directions, and enhance the quality of teacher education programs. Tamblyn (2000) has identified seven qualities of successful teachers, most of which focus on teachers' personality features and attitudes. These qualities are:

▪ subject competence;
▪ skill in motivating learners through positive reinforcement;
▪ flexibility and expertise in adapting the materials to the students' needs;
▪ willingness to take risks and make mistakes;
▪ respect for learners;
▪ warmth, a caring attitude, and a sense of humor; &
▪ self-esteem, satisfaction with the profession, and a willingness to go the extra mile.

As stated earlier, there is a unanimous consensus that teachers' characteristics can affect learners' performance, especially their cognitive abilities and mental processes employed during learning. These mental peculiarities play a central role in the process of learning (Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Griffiths, 2007; Nosratinia, Abbasi, & Zaker, 2015; Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014; Nosratinia, Shakoori, & Zaker, 2013; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013, 2014, 2015; Nosratinia, Zaker, & Saveiy, 2015). Language learning strategies, as one of these metacognitive factors, can be defined as those attempts made by language learners intended to facilitate the process of learning during second language learning (Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). They are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing language skills (Oxford, 1990). Regarding the interaction between EFL teachers' performance and EFL learners' learning process, Oxford (1990) further adds that, "[T]eachers try to help learners develop the concept that learning is a lifetime process, and learners need to be equipped with "self-directed learning skills"(p. 8). Thus, one might argue that LLS should be emphasized in EFL classroom in order to make learning easier, more effective, and fruitful.

EFL teachers are expected to function as transformative intellectuals and reflective practitioners (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) which enables them to have a significance influence over the process of learning as well as many of the internal factors among EFL learners (King, 2003; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014). Based on this hypothesis and the points discussed above, the following research questions were proposed:

Research Question 1: Does EFL teachers' TA level have any significant effect on EFL learners' perceived TS?
Research Question 2: Does EFL teachers' CT level have any significant effect on EFL learners' perceived TS?
Research Question 3: Does EFL teachers' TA level have any significant effect on EFL learners' use of LLS?
Research Question 4: Does EFL teachers' CT level have any significant effect on EFL learners' use of LLS?

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of both EFL teachers and EFL learners. Twenty mixed-gender upper-intermediate and advanced level general English classes, as stated by the language schools, were randomly selected from ten language schools in Tehran. In these classes, different course books were used which covered all the four skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Moreover, group work, cooperative learning, and equal participation of learners were among the main concerns of the teachers.

English was the main medium of instruction in these classes; however, occasional use of learners' first language (L1; Persian) was tolerated. The EFL teachers (n = 20, 13 females, 65%, and 7 males, 35%) were 25 to 40 years of age (M_{age} = 31), whereas the learners (n = 199, 124 females, 62%, and 75 males, 38%) were 18 to 30 (M_{age} = 24). The number of EFL learners in each class ranged from 7 to 12 (M = 10).

Instrumentation

In order to carry through the purpose of the study, the following four instruments utilized in order to collect the data pertaining to the participants' CT, TA, TS, and LLS:

1. A questionnaire of CT developed by Honey (2000) for EFL teachers;
2. A questionnaire of TA developed by Pearson and Hall (1993) for EFL teachers;
3. A questionnaire of LLS designed by Oxford (1990) for EFL learners; and
4. A questionnaire of TS designed by Moafian and Pishghadam (2009) for EFL learners.

CT Questionnaire

The CT Questionnaire intends to inspect what a person might or might not do when thinking critically about a subject. Developed by Honey (2000), the questionnaire aims at evaluating the three main skills of comprehension, analysis, and evaluation. This Likert-type questionnaire has 30 items which makes it possible to investigate individuals' ability in

note-taking, summarizing, questioning, paraphrasing, researching, inferencing, discussing, classifying and outlining, comparing and contrasting, distinguishing, synthesizing, and inductive and deductive reasoning.

EFL teachers were asked to rate the frequency of each category they use on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from never (1 point), seldom (2 points), sometimes (3 points), often (4 points), to always (5 points). The final scores are calculated by adding up the numbers of the scores, and the ultimate score is computed in the possible range of 30 to150. The participants were allocated 20 minutes to complete this questionnaire.

In this study, the Persian version of this questionnaire was employed which was translated and validated by Naeini (2005). In a study conducted by Nosratinia and Zaker (2014), the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated to be 0.81 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. In this study, the reliability of CT questionnaire was estimated to be 0.69 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

TA Questionnaire

TA scale was developed by Pearson and Hall (1993). This questionnaire consists of 18 items, and participants are asked to rate the statements on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from definitely true (4 points), more or less true (3 points), more or less false (2 points), to definitely false (1 point); therefore, the total scores are calculated within the range of 18 to 72. EFL teachers were allocated 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Pearson and Hall (1993) reported that the questionnaire has an internal consistency of 0.80 employing Cronbach's alpha with two factors: curriculum autonomy and general teaching autonomy (7 and 11 items, respectively). In this study, the reliability of TA questionnaire was estimated to be 0.71 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

TS Questionnaire

To estimate the degree of teachers' success through students' evaluation, a 47-item questionnaire on characteristics of successful Iranian EFL teachers, by Moafian and Pishghadam (2009) was employed. This questionnaire investigates teaching success through inspecting the 12 subcomponents which are termed: accountability, interpersonal relationships, attention to all, examination, commitment, learning boosters, creating a sense of competence, teaching boosters, physical and emotional acceptance, empathy, class attendance, and dynamism.

EFL learners were asked to choose between options on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1 point), disagree (2 points), partially agree (3 points), agree (4 points), to strongly agree (5 points). The participants (EFL learners) were allocated 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and the ultimate scores were computed in the possible range of 47 to 235. In this study, the reliability of TS questionnaire was estimated to be 0.67 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

LLS Questionnaire

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was developed by Oxford (1990). Two versions of the SILL are presented in Oxford (1990). The first version is designed for foreign language learners whose native language is English, including 80 items. The second version, employed in this study, is designed for EFL learners, including 50 items.

The inventory is divided into 6 parts, which shows different kinds of strategies. The first part (memory strategies) includes 9 items, the second part (cognitive strategies) contains 14 items, the third part (compensation strategies) consists of 6 items, the fourth part (metacognitive strategies) includes 9 items and the fifth and the sixth parts (affective strategies and social strategies) each consists of 6 items. The 50 statements in the inventory follow the general format "I do such and such" and participants respond on 5 Likert scale, ranging from 1 "Never or almost never true of me" to 5 "Always or almost always true of me". The EFL learners were given 30 minutes to complete this questionnaire.

According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990), SILL has consistently scored above 0.90 using Cronbach's alpha which indicates high internal reliability. Oxford (1996) reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 for SILL. In this study, the reliability of LLS questionnaire was estimated to be 0.61 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Procedure

To achieve the purpose of the study and address the questions posed, certain procedures were pursued which are explained below.

After obtaining a formal approval for conducting this research in the language schools mentioned above (see participants), one class was randomly chosen from three available classes and the other two classes were excluded from the study. This procedure was followed in order to select the participants on a cluster sampling basis which would increase the validity and generalizability of the findings of a descriptive study, in this case an ex post facto study (Best & Kahn, 2006; Springer, 2010). It should be mentioned that due to the nature of this descriptive study, no criterion for establishing homogeneity was adopted.

The number of EFL learners in the randomly selected classes (n = 20) ranged from 7 to 12 (M = 10). Each selected classroom had one EFL teacher (Total = 20) who attended the class for the whole semester. All EFL students and teachers in the selected class were informed about the aim of the study and were given the choice whether to fill in the questionnaires or not. They were also informed that the information supplied by them will be treated as confidential.

EFL teachers were informed and reasonably convinced that the results of the questionnaires and their answers will never be shared with the language schools, their colleagues, and the students. EFL learners were also informed that the results of this survey would by no means exert influence on their course scores and the results would be handled with confidentiality. This information was provided in order to encourage the participants to supply more accurate answers

which would eventually increase the validity and generalizability of the findings of the study (Best & Kahn, 2006; Mackey & Gass; 2005; Springer, 2010).

After obtaining an informed consent and before administrating the questionnaires, the participants were fully briefed on the process of completing the questionnaires; this briefing was given by one of the researchers in participants' L1 through explaining and exemplifying the process of choosing the answers. EFL teachers were given 30 minutes to complete the CT and TA questionnaires, with no specific priority about the time of completion, i.e. the questionnaires could be completed at any time during the course. Following this, the LLS and TS scales were completed by EFL learners after 12 to 19 (M = 15) sessions of attending the English class being instructed by the teacher participating in the study. The allocated time for EFL learners was 60 minutes. The researchers intentionally randomized the order of questionnaires administered to control the impact of order upon the completion process and validity of the data, and all of the questionnaires completed by EFL learners were administered and returned in one session.

The researchers randomly observed the process of filling out for some individuals to make sure they were capable to fully understand the questions and responses. Moreover, some of the participants were interviewed to see if there are other factors affecting their answers. Subsequently, the administrated questionnaires were scored and the statistical analyses of this ex post facto study were carried out whose results are elaborated in the following sections.

It is worth mentioning here that out of the initial 26 randomly selected classes, 20 of the EFL teachers agreed to participate in the study. Moreover, some of the learners in each class did not participate in the study. Therefore, the number of participants in this study came to 20 EFL teachers and 199 of their students.

III. RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

This study aimed at investigating the effect of teachers' CT and TA on their TS, as perceived by EFL learners, and EFL learners' LLS. As stated above, the design of this study is ex post facto. Therefore, to achieve the desired goals, EFL teachers' total scores on CT and TA were converted into three levels of high, moderate, and low. As displayed in Table 1, CT scores have a mean of 107.82 and a standard deviation of 15.85. Accordingly, those teachers whose CT scores fell half a standard deviation below the mean, i.e. 99.9 and lower, were put into the low CT category. On the other hand, EFL teachers whose CT scores fell half a standard deviation above the mean, i.e. 115.75 and higher, were put into the high CT level. The rest of teachers, in between, formed the moderate CT group.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHERS' CRITICAL THINKING

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Critical Thinking	84	136	107.82	15.848

The same procedure was employed to divide EFL teachers into three groups based on their TA scores. Using the information reported in Table 2, EFL teachers whose TA scores fell half a standard deviation below the mean, i.e. 44.22 and lower, were put into the low TA category. On the other hand, EFL teachers whose TA scores fell half a standard deviation above the mean, i.e. 52.26 and higher, were put into the high TA category, and the rest of teachers formed the moderate TA group.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TEACHING AUTONOMY

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teacher Autonomy	31	64	48.24	8.036

Testing Assumptions

The assumptions of interval data, independence of subjects, normality, and homogeneity of variances were needed to be met before running parametric tests in order to answer the research questions raised in this study (Creswell, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). The present data were measured on an interval scale, and the subjects were independent of one another; put another way, their performance on the tests was not affected by the performance of other participants. Moreover, the present data enjoyed normal distributions across the three levels of teachers CT and TA. Furthermore, all of the values of skewness and kurtosis ratio fell within the ranges of ± 1.96; therefore, it could be argued that the data met the assumption of normality.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not discussed here because, as noted by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), as long as the group sizes are approximately equal (largest/smallest ≤ 4), F is robust against the violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances.

The First Research Question

The first research question of this study questioned the way EFL teachers' TA affects their TS in a systematic fashion. A one-way ANOVA was run whose results suggested that, on average, those EFL learners whose teachers enjoy a high TA level (M = 204.63) show a higher perception toward TS than the moderate (M = 200.74) and low (M = 194.08) TA groups.

The results of a one-way ANOVA (F (2, 196) = 3.55, p = .03 < .05, ω^2 = .025, representing a weak to moderate effect size; Table 3) indicated statistically significant but weak to moderate differences among the mean scores of the three groups on TS. Therefore, this study failed to reject that EFL teachers' level of TA significantly affects EFL learners' perceived TS.

TABLE 3:
ONE-WAY ANOVA: TEACHING SUCCESS BY LEVELS OF TEACHING AUTONOMY

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3066.410	2	1533.205	3.553	.030
Within Groups	84579.058	196	431.526		
Total	87645.467	198			

Following the results of the one-way ANOVA, the results of the post-hoc Scheffe's test, presented in Table 4, (MD = 10.54, p = .041 < .01) indicated that there is a significant difference in the perception of EFL learners toward TS between high (M = 204.63) and low (M = 194.08) TA groups. This is to say that those EFL learners whose teachers have a high TA level hold a significantly higher perception toward EFL teachers' TS. However, the differences observed in the other two pairs of means, i.e. high vs. moderate and moderate vs. low groups, were not significant. Results are also exhibited in Figure 2.

TABLE 4:
POST-HOC SCHEFFE'S TEST: TEACHING SUCCESS BY LEVELS OF TEACHING AUTONOMY

(I) Autonomy Level	(J) Autonomy Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Moderate	Low	6.655	3.408	.151	-1.75	15.06
High	Low	10.546[*]	4.136	.041	.34	20.75
	Moderate	3.891	3.818	.596	-5.53	13.31

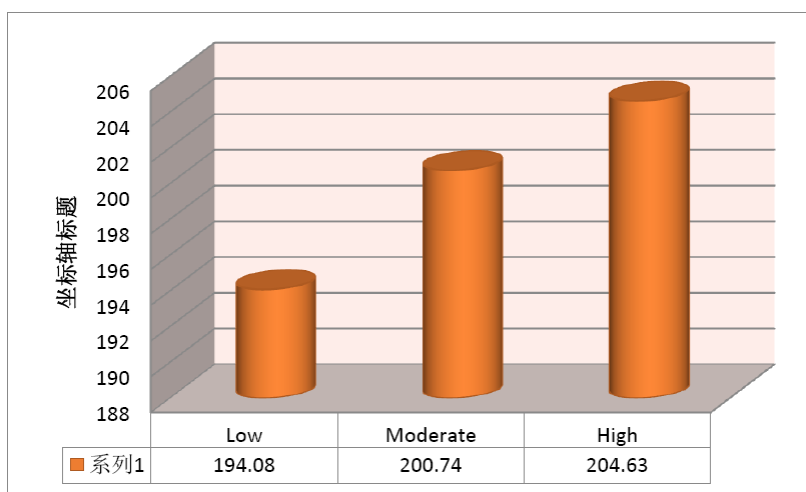*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Figure 2: Teaching success by levels of teaching autonomy

The Second Research Question

The second research question of this study questioned the way EFL teachers' CT affects their TS in a systematic way. In order to answer this question, a one-way ANOVA was run whose results suggested that, on average, those EFL learners whose teachers have a low CT level (M = 202.33) show a higher perception toward TS than the moderate (M = 201.10) and high (M = 194.37) CT levels.

The results of the one-way ANOVA, F (2, 196) = 2.69, p = .07 > .05, (Table 5) indicated non-significant differences among the mean scores of the three CT groups on TS. Therefore, this study rejected the idea that EFL teachers' level of CT has a significant impact on EFL learners' perceived TS. Results are also exhibited in Figure 3.

TABLE 5:
ONE-WAY ANOVA TEACHING SUCCESS BY LEVELS OF CRITICAL THINKING

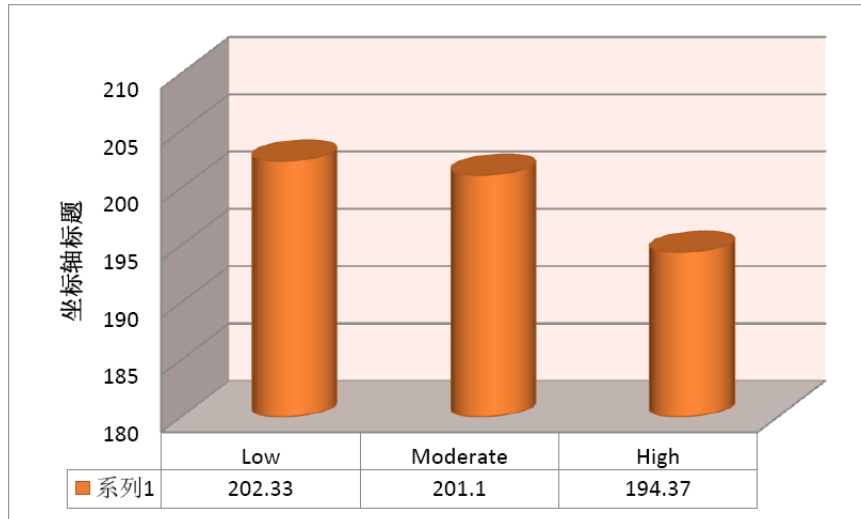|	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2349.329	2	1174.665	2.699	.070
Within Groups	85296.138	196	435.184		
Total	87645.467	198			

Figure 3: Teaching success by levels of critical thinking

The Third Research Question

In order to investigate the way EFL teachers' TA affects EFL learners' LLS in a systematic way, a one-way ANOVA was run whose results suggested that, on average, those EFL learners whose teachers have a moderate level of TA (M = 128.31) show a higher use of LLS than the low (M = 123.28) and high (M = 123.19) TA groups.

The results of the one-way ANOVA, $F (2, 196) = 2.17$, $p = .11 > .05$, (Table 6) indicated non-significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups on LLS. Thus, it was concluded that EFL teachers' level of TA does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' use of LLS. Results are also exhibited in Figure 4.

TABLE 6:
ONE-WAY ANOVA LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY LEVELS OF TEACHING AUTONOMY

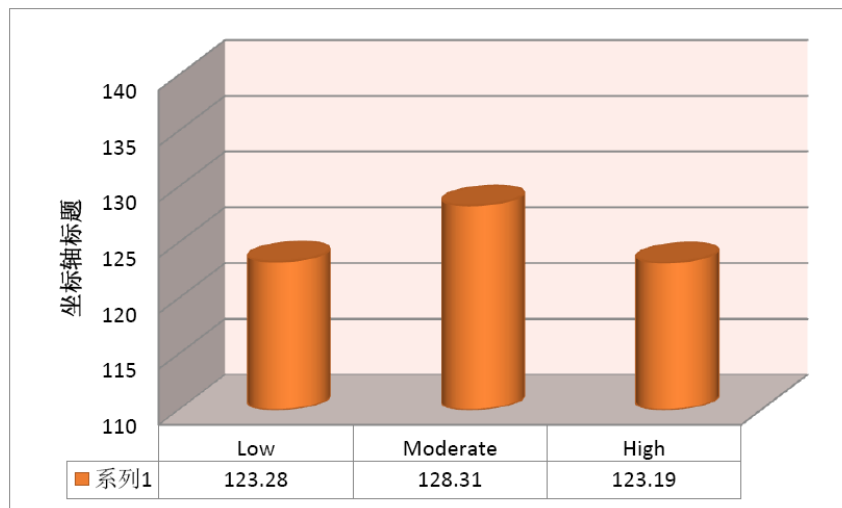|	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1273.843	2	636.921	2.179	.116
Within Groups	57296.921	196	292.331		
Total	58570.764	198			

Figure 4: Language learning strategies by levels of teaching autonomy

The Fourth Research Question

The fourth/last research question attempted to investigate the way EFL teachers' CT affects EFL learners' LLS use. Accordingly, a one-way ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of EFL teachers' CT level on EFL learners' use of LLS. Results suggested that, on average, EFL learners whose teachers have a high CT level (M = 127.97) show a higher use of LLS than the moderate (M = 127.56) and low (M = 122.26) CT groups.

The results of the one-way ANOVA, $F (2, 196) = 2.43$, $p = .09 > .05$, (Table 7) indicated non-significant differences among the mean scores of the three CT groups on LLS. Thus, it was supported that EFL teachers' level of CT does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' use of LLS. Results are also exhibited in Figure 5.

TABLE 7:
ONE-WAY ANOVA LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY LEVELS OF CRITICAL THINKING

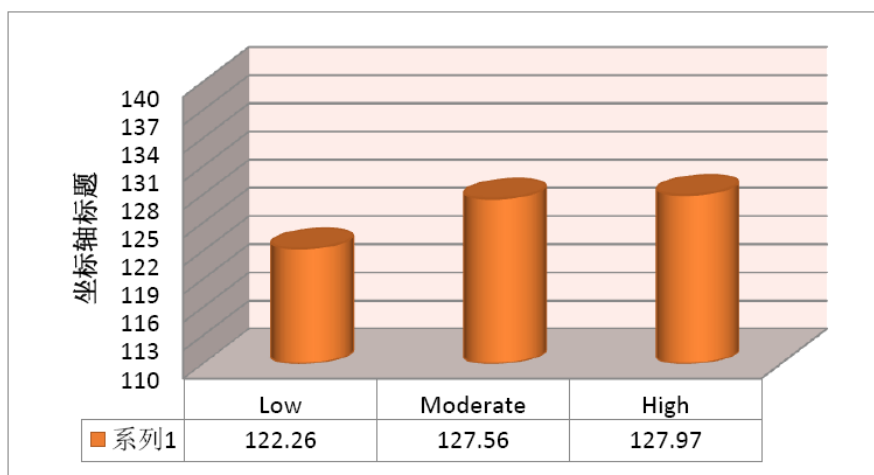|	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1422.538	2	711.269	2.439	.090
Within Groups	57148.226	196	291.573		
Total	58570.764	198			

Figure 5: Language learning strategies by levels of critical thinking

IV. DISCUSSION

Based on the points stated earlier, there is a common belief that EFL teachers' autonomous practice based on their own agency can materialize pedagogical goals in an EFL context (Farrell, 2012; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Paul & Elder, 2008; Scharle & Szabo, 2000). This study evaluated the validity of this premise by studying the way EFL teachers' TA affects their TS in a systematic fashion. The results of a one-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Scheffe's revealed that those EFL learners whose teachers had a high TA level show a significantly higher perception toward TS. However, the weak to moderate effect size indicated statistically significant but weak to moderate differences between the mean scores of the three groups of TA on TS. As a result, although observing a statistically significant difference among TA levels regarding TS, this study failed to reject that EFL teachers' TA levels significantly affect EFL learners' perceived TS.

As reported above, the results of statistical analyses demonstrated that there is a direct relationship between EFL teachers' TA and their TS, as perceived by EFL learners. Put another way, the more an EFL teacher acts autonomously, the more successful s/he appears to be in realizing pedagogical goals. This point also confirms that TA is a feature that EFL learners value and appreciate (Farrell, 2012). This becomes obvious by recollecting the point that the questionnaire of TA was completed by EFL learners. This analysis, addressing the first research question, reported the most significant observed relationship in this study. The last point to be made is that the abovementioned weak effect size could have been larger if a larger sample pool was available (Best & Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, the non-significant impact of TA on TS is a point whose generalizability in other contexts should be discussed with caution.

The introductory section provided evidence for the widely-held belief that EFL teachers' reflective practice and CT ability can exert profound impact on the way they succeed in achieving pedagogical goals (Borg, 2006; Farrell, 2012; Freeman, 2002). Based on this premise, the second research question of this study attempted to examine the way EFL teachers' CT affects their TS. Statistical analyses suggested that in this context, those EFL learners whose teachers enjoy a low CT level show a higher perception toward TS. This means that EFL teacher are not positively affected by EFL teachers' CT. However, this relationship did not turn out to be a significant one. Put simply, although low CT appeared to be contemporaneous with higher degree of success, this point was not confirmed by statistical analyses. One justification for observing this somehow-surprising result might be considering the fact that Iranian students are not educated as critical thinkers in their L1 educational system and that Iranian culture does not attach a high value to CT (Fahim & Ahmadian, 2012). Therefore, it can be argued that appreciating CT as an asset for EFL teachers is a context-dependent notion.

Another premise which was questioned in this study was the stated idea that EFL teachers' autonomous practice affects and predicts the way learners learn an L2 (King, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2012) which includes the techniques and strategies that EFL learners employ to facilitate the learning process. Accordingly, the penultimate research question of this study attempted to systematically investigate the way EFL teachers' TA affects EFL learners' LLS. Pertinent statistical analyses suggested that in those classes where EFL teachers possess a moderate level of TA EFL learners show a higher use of LLS. In other words, neither high level of TA nor low level of TA could promote LLS

among learners. Put another way, TA did not turn out to be a determining factor when it comes to EFL learners LLS use. This finding can be followed by two different interpretations. First, the sample pool is not large, and other studies should study this relationship. Second, TA does not directly influence the techniques EFL learners employ, and the relationship is more of an indirect nature. This result, if observed in other contexts, might increase the validity of the second interpretation.

A further driving force of this study was evaluating the idea that EFL teachers' reflectiveness and critical thinking ability can significantly affect the learning process (King, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Knowing that LLS is a determining factor in the way L2 learners make progress in L2 (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2007; O'Maley & Chamot, 1990), the last research question of this study questioned the relationship between EFL teachers' CT levels and EFL learners' use of LLS. The obtained results suggested that EFL learners whose teachers enjoy a high CT level show a higher use of LLS than others. Notwithstanding being non-significant, this finding exhibits the tendency of observing higher levels to LLS among learners when EFL teachers possess higher levels of CT. Finally, about this finding, one statistical issue should be recalled, and it is the fact that this non-significant impact could have turned into a significant one if a larger sample pool were available (Best & Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, the non-significant impact of CT on LLS is a point whose generalizability in other contexts needs confirmation in other similar studies.

There are certain points which should be considered when discussing and attempting to interpret the abovementioned findings. The main limitation imposed on the findings of this study, as briefly stated before, was the number of observed classrooms. When it comes to inspecting the way variables of a study interact, having a high number of participants would increase the chance of observing a significant relationship. This would also support and amplify the validity of the findings (Creswell, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010; Springer, 2010). Therefore, it can be argued that having a larger participant pool could have turned the non-significant relationships of this study into significant ones, i.e. the last three research questions.

Another factor which seems to have affected the findings is the number of sessions EFL teachers and EFL learners spent together. The complex and multifaceted characteristics of human being, in this case EFL learners, need higher levels of interaction, exposure, and persistence in order to be influenced by an instructor (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In other words, if the number of sessions could be larger, it would affect both learners and validity of the findings (Springer, 2010). Accordingly, it might be reasonable to argue that if a number higher than 15 sessions were possible, the results might have turned out to be more significant.

In this study, none of the questionnaires was administered twice. The rationale for this attempt was three-fold: a) the nature of the study and its descriptive design, b) eliminating the factor of test familiarity which would affect participants' performance on any subsequent similar test (Best & Kahn, 2006), and c) controlling for the factor of subject mortality or losing participants. However, it seems to be well-justified to argue that being able to compare the entry and exit behavior of EFL learners, probably through an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), could have provided a higher level of understanding about the way teacher characteristics have affected those of learners.

Another potential factor which might have affected the generalizability of the findings of this study is cultural factors. Cultural factors are believed to have a profound impact on learning, especially language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Moore, 2000). Moreover, there is a unanimous consensus that different cultures approach CT and independent performance differently (Lun, Fischer, & Ward, 2010). Therefore, different contexts and different EFL learners might adopt different perspectives on CT and TA.

V. Conclusion

Inconsistent with the conventional beliefs, it is now believed that EFL teachers function as reflective practitioners who play the role of change agents for EFL learners (Kumaravadivelu, 2012). Moreover, critically analyzing the classroom practice and acting autonomously have been introduced as the predictors of teachers' success and learners' performance (King, 2003). Based on these premises, this study set out to systematically study the effect of EFL teachers' CT and TA on their TS and EFL learners' LLS use through addressing four research questions (see the introductory section).

Both EFL teachers and EFL learners participated in this study. The results of data analysis in this ex post facto study revealed that those EFL learners whose teachers had a high TA level show a significantly higher perception toward TS. Moreover, those learners whose teachers had a low CT level showed a higher, but non-significant, perception toward TS. Furthermore, EFL learners whose teachers had a moderate level of TA demonstrated a higher, but non-significant, use of LLS. Finally, EFL learners whose teachers had a high CT level showed a higher, but non-significant use of LLS.

Based on the obtained results and considering the limitations and peculiarities of this study, the researchers came up with the following conclusions:

a) Autonomous teaching is one of the main features of successful EFL teachers (Farrell, 2012). Therefore, EFL teachers should avoid assuming their role as knowledge transmitters. Instead, context-sensitivity, following a humanistic perspective, and reasonable familiarity with all the available techniques and methods should constitute the basis for EFL teachers' practice (Bell, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

b) CT, although being significantly related to autonomy and teaching quality (Dewey, 1933; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014, 2015), is a psychological construct whose influence on individuals and teaching quality is context-bound (Fahim & Ahmadian, 2012). Therefore, CT should be introduced to Iranian EFL learners as a means for bettering learning and functioning (Borg, 2006; Farrell, 2012; Freeman, 2002).

c) Exercising CT by EFL teachers can promote the quality and quantity of the techniques EFL learners employ for language learning. As a result, language learning will be facilitated (Nosratinia, Saveiy, & Zaker, 2014; Oxford, 1990).

Regarding the limitations and drawing upon the findings, there are some possible avenues for future research. First, further studies may replicate this study with a larger sample size which can increase the possibility of observing significant differences among different TA and CT levels regarding TS and learners' LLS (Creswell, 2012; Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010; Springer, 2010). Second, other studies can provide a higher number of instruction sessions which can affect and the way learners are influenced by the instruction (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Third, other researchers can compare the entry and exit behavior of EFL learners, probably through an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), in order to provide a higher level of understanding about the way teacher characteristics affect EFL learners. Forth, it is suggested to inspect the way other mental and personality factors interact with the variables of this study. Fifth, this study can be replicated employing some qualitative instruments, e.g. interviews, in order to increase the validity and generalizability of the findings. Finally, it is suggested to replicate this study among other age groups.

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A Study on Implication of Prototype Theory in English Vocabulary Teaching

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Abstract—Nowadays, English plays an increasingly important role in international communication. Vocabulary plays the important role in the process of English learning and teaching. Although the significance of the vocabulary teaching and learning have been noticed by the teachers and students, the current situation of English vocabulary teaching and learning is not satisfactory in most Chinese schools. This paper applies the prototype theory and other related theories, which contains the three levels of categorization and two cognitive mechanism, to vocabulary teaching and learning. The paper aims at exploring the implications that prototype theory indicates in English vocabulary teaching and learning, finding out the crux of English vocabulary teaching and learning. Teachers need to consciously foster students' metaphorical and metonymical awareness when teaching vocabulary.

Index Terms—prototype theory, vocabulary teaching, basic level terms, metaphorical and metonymical awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

The increasingly fast integration and expansion of global communication have been enhancing the lasting popularity of English. English vocabulary, which is the "building block" of this global language and carrier by which we express our thoughts and convey meanings, hence plays a particularly significant role in language teaching. Although we are aware of this significance, the long-standing problem in vocabulary teaching and learning is still there in China to be solved. Each Chinese four-year college graduate has spent an average of 12 years in learning English but they still have great difficulty in communicating in English. Their English vocabulary is seemingly enlarging, but actually still stuck in the basic level. This paper attempts to apply the prototype theory to English vocabulary teaching and learning in order to obtain valuable implications from it to find out the crux of English vocabulary teaching. The paper consists of five parts. The first part is an introduction to the background and the goal of this study. The second part is an overview of the studies on English vocabulary teaching and learning abroad and at home. The third part is the theoretical framework which mainly introduces the characteristics of prototype theory, the three levels of categorization and the two cognitive mechanisms. The fourth part is the implication of these theories for English vocabulary teaching and learning. The fifth part is the conclusion which summarizes this paper.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before 1970s, language teaching emphasizing on grammatical structures rather than vocabulary. The research of vocabulary teaching and learning has been centered on in 1970s with the emergence of communicative approach, when researchers pay more attention to communicative proficiency and the meaning of vocabulary. Wilkins (1972) states that without grammar little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. It shows that vocabulary is regarded as the most important part of a language. Rivers (1977) proposes that teachers should help the students master the communicative meaning of words. The revival of the appropriate vocabulary status leads plenty of researches on vocabulary from different aspects, and researchers also point out some vocabulary teaching and learning methods. Most of them agree that in order to learn vocabulary, learners should know the inner meanings of vocabulary and their antonym, synonym and homophone.

From the 1980s, researches on vocabulary teaching and learning have come into blossom with the appearance of the natural approach. There have been many writings on vocabulary research. Some researchers, such as Nattinger (1992), claims that phrases should be taught and learned instead of the individual words alone. Some researchers, such as Krashen (1990), think that memorizing words through reading is a better way for reading in a relaxing situation. Some researchers, such as Wallace (1982) and MaCarthy (1990), suggest that vocabulary should be taught and remembered in a meaningful context. Some researchers and teachers in Britain designed a lot of exercises, which were based on semantics theory, to help students master the usage of common and high-frequency vocabulary, and one of them divides the vocabulary teaching into the implicit teaching, which is to recognize clues in context, use monolingual dictionaries and avoid defining words with their bilingual equivalents, and explicit teaching. Still there are some other researchers, such as Oxford (1990) says that not all students benefit equally from vocabulary learning techniques and that different techniques may be appropriate to different students, and he recognizes four vocabulary learning strategies, that is, memory strategy, social strategy, metacognitive strategy and cognitive strategy.

Since the 1990s, researchers have studied on vocabulary teaching and learning by using the latest research findings of linguistics, and some new vocabulary teaching methods have come into being in the past twenty years, such as lexical approach, incidental learning, mental lexicon and cognitive-theory-guided method. Lexical approach, put forward by Lewis (1993) who says "language is grammatical lexis, not lexicalized grammar", is an approach against grammar-based approaches to foreign language teaching. Incidental learning, which is to learn new words incidentally through reading articles or listening to songs, is against intentional learning, which is to learn new words intentionally by repeating the words list or by doing exercises. Mental lexicon is the word in permanent memory, and there are two important aspects of vocabulary learning, namely, the way vocabulary is presented and how vocabulary is stored and organized in the mind as the mental lexicon and how mental lexicon can be retrieved. Some researchers integrate cognitive linguistics with the language teaching and learning, and some preliminary research results emerge. For example, Mouton (2003) explains the structure of words including typical structure, family resemblance structure and radiated structure, and explains the relations among the several meanings of a polysemous word by using metaphor, metonymy, image schema and association. Csabi 92008) explains the motivation among the different meanings of polysemous words. Studies abroad contribute a lot to studies at home.

In China, for a long time, English teaching and learning has been focused on grammar and structure while the vocabulary teaching and learning have been undervalued, and English vocabulary teaching and learning methods have been influenced by some west methods such as the grammar translation method, the audio-lingual method, the communicative approach. Although researches which have studies on vocabulary teaching and learning at home is much later than those researches abroad, some progress has been achieved. There are many articles and works about vocabulary teaching and learning, and some researches employ linguistics theory on vocabulary learning and teaching. The following will illustrate some typical examples.

Zhao Rui (2001) states two vocabulary learning and teaching methods. One is to teach vocabulary by using computers for the computers can show vivid pictures which can draw learners' attention. The other one is to teach word formation. For example, when "triangle" is taught, teachers first teach the prefix "tri-", and then the following prefixes about number, "mono-", "bi-", "penta-", and "multi-", etc. In this way, students can learn many words. Meng Lijuan (2001) claims that to distinguish passive words form active words is important because the techniques of active words learning include problem-solving, role-playing and brief writing to cover the selected items while the techniques of passive words learning include consulting dictionary for meaning and doing extensive reading comprehension. Zhu Yafu claims that vocabulary teaching and learning should be associated with cultural background of vocabulary.

Peng Jianwu researches the relationship between connectionism and vocabulary teaching, which assumes that lexical information is stored in networks of nodes and the process of creating the relationship between its form and meaning happens when neural networks are strengthened over time with the learner frequently encountering the item in the input. Thus, teachers should provide students with adequate English comprehensive input. Qu Dianning (2010) claim that the application of corpus is important to the vocabulary teaching and learning. Liang Xiaobo (2002) studies the application of cognitive linguistics to English vocabulary teaching and learning, and he says this application can attach importance to the aspects such as the semantic motivation of terms, the underlying link between the polysemy of terms and the theory of cognitive semantics.

From the above review, we know that vocabulary teaching and learning have been studied by many researchers abroad and at home. These researches, especially the ones which apply linguistics theories, instruct a lot in vocabulary teaching and learning for teachers and students. However, only a few of them discuss vocabulary teaching and learning from prototype theory, and in spite of the fact that there are plenty of researches on English vocabulary, teachers and learners still have lots of problems. Therefore, to reduce the burden of teachers and students in vocabulary, this thesis tries to apply prototype theory to English vocabulary teaching and learning with the help of previous research results.

III.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A.   Prototype Theory

Rosch (1976) proposes the prototype theory through a series of experiments. A prototype is considered to be the concrete typical instance of its class defined operationally by people's judgments of goodness of membership in the category, which has more common features than other members of this class, or a prototype is the abstract schematic representation or attribute collection. The prototype theory suggests that many mental concepts we have are really prototypes, and people often do classify things or define a concept by reference to what they regard as being typical instances for prototype is the first member that comes into people's mind when referring to a particular category. For example, a prototype of the category of bird would be more like a small bird which flies than a large flightless bird like an emu.

The following are some basic ideas of the prototype theory. First, the members of a category are formed around prototypes rather than a set of necessary and sufficient features, and the members are overlapping and share a part of common features. Second, there are not any set of attributes belonging to all members, yet each member has at least one attribute in common with some other members of the category, and some members share more attributes than others, so some members of a category are more central while others are on the edge, and degrees of typicality and continuous variables can be presented. Because the prototype of the category has the largest features, it is the best example of the

category. Third, category has fuzzy boundaries, which means that neighboring categories have no clear-cut boundaries and peripheral members can be usually classified into another category. Therefore, typical members can be identified easily while non-typical members are difficult to be classified for they have less common features and may have some common features with members of other categories. Fourth, the membership of a category and prototypes are different in different people's minds, which are not fixed and may change as the context and the social and cultural knowledge change. Thus, due to different contexts or cultural backgrounds, different countries take different attitudes towards prototypes of a category. In addition, prototypes of a category are different for people living in different periods.

B. Three Levels of Categorization

We are surrounded by identifiable organisms and concrete objects. When the need comes to categorize three things, we will normally have a choice between categories on different levels of generality: basic level, superordinate level and subordinate level. The informativeness reflected by each level is different. The basic-level category, relying on human beings' basic perception, is not too abstract and too concrete, and offers the largest amount of relevant information concerning the objects and organisms of the world, so it is where the largest amount of relevant information about a thing can be obtained. Lakoff (1987) states that the basic level category has the prototypical characteristics, so it is most commonly used to refer to members of a category. Superordinate categories, which are above basic-level categories, are more abstract and more general. While subordinate categories, which are below basic-level categories, are more concrete and more specific. For example, bird is regarded as a basic level category, the category of animal as superordinate to it, and the category of sparrow as subordinate to it.

The following are the summary of characteristics of the three level categories. First, the basic level categories have the common gestalt, a large number of category-wide attributes, the prototype structure, the natural access to the world, and linguistic forms are short and mono-morphemic words. Second, the superordinate level categories have no common gestalt, one or very few category-wide attributes and the salient general attributes, the family resemblance structure, the highlighting and collecting function, and linguistic forms are often longer and morphologically complex words. Third, the subordinate level categories have almost the identical gestalt, a large number of category-wide attributes and the salient specific attributes, the high degree of homogeneity among category members, the specifying function, and linguistic forms are often morphologically complex words.

C. Two Cognitive Mechanisms

Traditionally, metaphors and metonymies have been interpreted as figures of speech. In fact, human conceptual systems are pervasively structured by metaphor and metonymy, which are powerful cognitive tools for human beings' conceptualization of abstract categories.

Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) hold that metaphor is not just a way of traditional view of expressing ideas recurring to language, but a way of thinking about things, which can be divided into the following types.

The first type is structural metaphor which is the case where one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another (Lakoff **&** Johnson, 1980). The function of this type is to enable people to understand target A resorting to the structure of source B. For example, "I hit back at his criticism" and "I have never won on argument with him" are two sentences which are all structured by the conceptual metaphor "ARGUMENT IS WAR". People usually structure an unfamiliar concept or target domain (argument) by using highly structured and familiar concept or source domain (war). The second type is orientational metaphor which organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another. It is easy for people to express abstract concepts, like emotion or healthy states, via the concrete spatial concepts. For example, " I am feeling down " and " my spirits rose" are sentences which use the "up-down" orientational metaphor to express the meaning of " HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN". The third type is ontological metaphor which refers to ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc., as entities and substances. People can categorize events, actions and states as substances. For example, "we need to combat inflation" is structured by conceptual metaphor " INFLATION IS AN ENEMY". Ontological metaphors contain entity metaphor, container metaphor, and personification, and container metaphor is the most prototypical one. For example, "they are out of trouble" is structured by conceptual metaphor "TROUBLE AS CONTAINER".

Metonymy

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) states that apart from metaphor, metonymy is a related conceptual mechanism central to human thought and language, which is using one entity to stand for another. Metonymies are represented as "B stands for A", where "B" is the vehicle while "A" is the target. For example, in the sentence "the ham sandwich has wandering hands", the target is the customer while the vehicle is the ham sandwich.

Both metaphor and metonymy are based on people's experience and they make the categorization concrete.

IV. IMPLICATION FOR VOCABULARY TEACHING

A. Value of Prototypical Meaning in Vocabulary Teaching

Xiao Fushou (2003) claims that when design vocabulary teaching project, we can use prototype theory as reference point. Not every member is equally representative of a category, and there are prototypical members and the others are

less typical. Prototypical members of the category have the largest number of attributes in common with other members, which is to say that prototypical members are better examples and should deserve much attention than those non-prototypes. The characteristics discussed previously can be applied in vocabulary teaching and learning.

Evelyn and Cheryl (2001) claims that in a semantic category, items are not equal and arranged by prototypes. According to prototype theory, one of these lexical items should be more central and can represent the given semantic category, which is called the prototypical meaning, while the other peripheral members can be extended upon the prototypical items, so all the meanings will form a meaning chain. The prototypical meaning is familiar to language users.

Take the word "head" as an example. First, in sentence "the head of the tiger was hit by Wu Song", "head" means part of the body, which is the prototypical meaning of head and this meaning can also be considered as the easiest and first learned meaning. Second, in sentence "the cold man holds the head of the walking stick tightly", "head" refers to things like a head in form, in which the prototypical meaning is almost lost. Third, in sentence "the heads of the delegation attended the 2006 China Africa Forum", "head" means the chief person of an organization, in which the meaning becomes quite far away from the prototypical meaning and more abstract. Fourth, in sentence "use your heads", heads means intelligence, which is extended by metaphor. From the above examples, we know that on the basis of a word's prototypical meaning, the word gets its metaphorical and metonymic meaning gradually, which shows the concrete meaning of the word becomes the abstract one in different language contexts.

Most words have many meanings, and these meanings are related to each other in a certain degree. The prototypical meaning comes into being at the earliest time, and it is also the first meaning to be learned by language community members. The prototypical meaning of a word is more easily mastered by the learners while other meanings that are marginal are not so easy to be mastered. Therefore, teachers should teach the prototypical meaning of a word first and attach important to the explanation of prototypical meaning, and also explain the relations between prototypical meaning and derived meanings to help students get better understanding of the words. If students get the prototypical meaning of a word, they will find it easier to learn and deduce other meanings.

B. Implications of Three Levels of Terms for Vocabulary Teaching

The following will suggest some implication of the three levels of terms for vocabulary teaching and learning, which includes: giving priority to basic level terms and paying attention to superordinate and subordinate terms.

Wang Ying (2009) states that basic-level categories, which share a variety of properties with one another, is the most basic starting point for people to understand the world and it is the most powerful tool for people to categorize the world. The basic level is the level first named and understood by children, and the words are simple but useful, thus learning vocabulary is better to begin from the basic level vocabulary to the non-basic level vocabulary. To be more specific, the priority should be given to teach the basic level terms due to the following aspects.

First, most of the basic level terms are simple and short, so they are easier acquired and used by students. Second, basic level category processes the most attributions and common gestalt features so that terms at this level have more close relation with the concrete objects, which can help students easily remember them. Third, the basic level terms are frequently used in the daily communication, so they can be memorized for a long term by students. Fourth, the basic level terms have a strong ability of word-formation potential and many subordinate level terms comes from the basic level terms, and based on this, students can learn vocabulary from the higher and lower levels of vocabulary. Therefore, teachers should assign basic-level terms to the primary place.

The priority of basic-level category terms does not mean that other categories should be ignored in language teaching. The superordinate level terms should be always introduced together with basic level terms which can help students understand and remember them all. For example, when introducing the basic level terms like "chairs", "tables" and "bed", their higher level term "FURNITURE" should be introduced at the same time. Different from superordinate categories, attributes of subordinate categories are specific which can help students master the words always used in some specific fields.

Teachers should appropriately link the superordinate, subordinate and basic-level terms together, which may help students enlarge their English vocabulary. Students can make a list in their notebook of each category which is beneficial for their long-term study.

Metaphor, which is based on the similarity and association, uses one thing to refer to other things, and then it produces a new different but similar meaning based on the old meaning of the word. According to the features of metaphor, students should use the metaphorical meanings of words to expend the depth and breadth of their vocabulary. First, the metaphor can help students understand vocabulary well. For example, in sentence "we also make choices based on how the products are grown or made: environmentally friendly food, or 'eco-food', is produced by companies who have tried to use green and clean ways to grow it", here "green", which has a different meaning from the traditional meaning as "one kind of color", means "environmentally friendly". Both of the two meanings have the features as: healthy, clean, and environmental, so it can make use of the association and similarity of metaphor to teach the new meaning of the same word, which can be easy for the understanding of students. Second, metaphor is helpful for students' understanding of preposition. For example, I am feeling up. Third, it is useful to remember the words in groups based on metaphor. For example, the teacher can summarize some metaphors to explain the verbs describing the economic indicators, such as "economy is an airplane" "economy is a kind of diving" or "economy is a kind of

mountain climbing", which can help students to remember words in these examples.

Metonymy gives inspiration to teaching English as well as metaphor. For example, "board" can refer to the table and can also refer to the people sit around the table. Because of metonymy, words get different meanings as well, and the integration of metaphorically motivated language into vocabulary teaching and learning can expand students' vocabulary.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper adopts prototype theory to English vocabulary teaching and learning. From what have been discussed, we see that prototype theory has great utility to promote vocabulary teaching and learning. The followings are the main points of this paper. First, from the prototype theory, we can get the implication that the prototypical meaning should be taught before the other meanings. Second, teachers must pay more attention to the teaching of basic level vocabulary because the basic level terms have a strong ability of word-formation potential. At the same time, teachers should also consciously focus on the superordinate and subordinate level vocabulary, which is beneficial for students to learn vocabulary in different categories. Third, teachers should cultivate students' metaphorical thoughts and then lead them to regard metaphor and metonymy as cognitive tools to learn vocabulary.

Without doubt, this paper is not comprehensive. For example, it must be noticed that the learning of basic level terms is more effective for the elementary stage students, but it is not enough for a second learner for the language output, so the emphasis of basic level terms can not be extreme. This paper can not reach that far unfortunately, and it needs research further.

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The Relationship between Emotional, Social, Cultural, Spiritual Intelligence and EFL Teachers' Teaching Effectiveness

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Abstract—The present study attempted to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' emotional, social, cultural, spiritual intelligence and their teaching effectiveness in EFL contexts. Teaching effectiveness was investigated as perceived by EFL teachers, observers and learners based on a data-triangulated procedure. A total of 126 EFL teachers, 266 learners and 31 EFL observers selected randomly from various educational districts in Tehran participated in the study. The EFL teachers were required to answer self-report questionnaires of Teaching Effectiveness Scale (TES), Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS) and Integrated Spiritual Intelligence Scale (ISIS) respectively. The EFL observers and learners were also required to answer Teaching Effectiveness Scale (TES) to reveal their perception of their teachers' teaching effectiveness. The study revealed that among EFL teachers, there was a significant correlation between teaching effectiveness and TEQ, but the correlation between teaching effectiveness and the three other types of intelligence (SQ, CQ, & SPQ) was not significant. The three groups of participants (teachers, observers, and learners) showed a significant difference in their perception of effective teaching. In further analysis, *gender* made a significant difference in TEQ, but female and male EFL teachers did not show a significant difference in their CQ, SQ, SPQ and effective teaching. *University degree* caused a significant difference in SQ and TEQ, but not in TE, SPQ and CQ. However, *teaching experience* and *age* made a significant difference in all four variables under the study.

Index Terms—emotional, social, cultural, spiritual intelligence, teaching effectiveness

I. INTRODUCTION

The characteristics of effective teachers have been investigated by some researchers outside its domain (Demmon-Berger, 1986; Lowman, 1996; Witcher, Onwuegbuzie, & Minor, 2001; Koutsoulis, 2003) and inside the realm of foreign language education (Bernhardt & Jammadou, 1987; Lafayette, 1993; Mollica & Nuessel, 1997; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Schulz, 2000; Vélez-Rendón, 2002). The EFL teachers' teaching effectiveness was based on some different variables such as their knowledge of subject matter, content knowledge, professional development, and contextual knowledge.

There are some universal characteristics shared by effective teachers; however, some of their attributes are specifically related to their domain. Some studies have been done outside the domain of foreign language education, investigating the characteristics of effective teaching. Several studies focused on some individuals who characterized effective teachers such as good students and weaker students (Koutsoulis, 2003), male and female students (Witcher et al., 2001; Minor, Onwuegbuzie & Witcher, 2002), teachers and students (Lang, McKee & Conner, 1993), and students with different majors (Check, 1986). The domain of foreign language education is exclusively unique in terms of linguistic knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, professional development, and contextual knowledge; thus, the characteristics of effective EFL education should be elucidated specifically in its own domain, not generalizing the outcomes of general education to EFL teaching. In some other studies (Demmon-Berger, 1986; Brosh, 1996; Koutsoulis, 2003; Lang et al., 1993; Lowman, 1996; Witcher et al., 2001), the characteristics of effective teachers were investigated and found to have strong influence on the students' learning and achievement.

The proposal of Multiple Intelligence Theory (Gardner, 1983) stimulated some researchers (Armstrong,1995; Chen & Gardner,2005; McMahon & Rose,2004) to conduct some studies in second language acquisition. When Goleman (1995) introduced the concept of "Emotional Intelligence", some researchers got motivated to investigate its contribution to the development of language abilities. The concept of emotional intelligence originated from social intelligence, and also emanated from Gardner's (1983) contribution to the concept. The term emotional intelligence appears to have originated with Wayne Pyne (1985). Supporting Pyne's ideas, Danciu (2010) asserted that emotional intelligence is the most important determiner of success and failure.

An individual's capability to perform and act effectively in various cultural settings is referred to as cultural intelligence. This definition has some overlap with Schmidt and Hunter's (2000) definition of general intelligence. They defined general intelligence as the ability to learn, understand and reason the subjects accurately. Researchers in the past had a restricted view on intelligence and considered it as being effective in only academic contexts; however, nowadays, it is widely accepted among researchers that intelligence is functioning in contexts other than academic settings (Sternberg & Detterman, 1986). Due to the interest in studying intelligence, researchers concentrated on certain domains such as cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003), emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000), social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937), practical intelligence (Sternberg et. al., 2000), and spiritual intelligence (Amram and Dryer (2007).

Cultural intelligence deals with the concrete characteristics of globalization and puts emphasis on a particular domain-intercultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003). Based on the general definition of general intelligence (Schmidt & Hunter, 2000), cultural intelligence is a certain type of intelligence which is most concerned with those capabilities to understand reason and behave effectively in various cultural contexts. Based on the insights proposed by cultural intelligence, an individual can cope with cross-cultural contexts and create successful communication. Cultural intelligence is considered as a difference among individuals, which characterizes their capability to function effectively when they communicate with individuals from other nations or countries (Ang et al, 2006; Ng & Earley, 2006). People with higher cultural intelligence could understand behavioral characteristics of other people in contact and interacts with them suitably. Therefore, cultural intelligence helps people promote a reasonable interaction with others (Triandis, 2006).

Emotional intelligence functions as a means to improve students' language learning and helps teachers to gain success in their professional career. Teachers should have an awareness of their emotions and feelings to help them solve their problems. People who have higher EQ benefit from a sense of creativity, develop a sense of plausible thinking, manage their anxiety, and establish good relationship with others. Emotional intelligence is a trigger for a person to satisfy his mental, emotional, physical, and spiritual needs, and to make a successful communication with other people (Singh, 2006). According to psychologists, emotional intelligence is different from other types of intelligence because it has a decisive role in learners' contemplation and is very significant in their academic achievement (Sharp, 2001). According to a study done by Goleman female and male participants did not show a significant difference in their emotional intelligence. However, some variations between men and women could be observed in certain aspects of emotional intelligence (1998). He further revealed that emotional intelligence caused the academic performance to improve significantly since it could help students increase their self-confidence, self-control, communication skills and collaborative work.

Social intelligence is another form of intelligence that could be of use in language education contexts. According to Albrecht (2006), social intelligence is considered as a requirement for teachers in educational settings. He believes that educational systems and teachers are recommended to respect educational regulations and people's behaviors with high social intelligence. The young students should learn good behavior, the culture and subculture and the value of collaboration to survive in this modern world. Social intelligence increases with age and experience of a person. Thorndike (1920) assumed that social intelligence develops right from birth and by the time a child begins schooling, the interactions with diverse environmental factors and the aggregate of social and cultural conditions would have a profound influence on his/her life (Jonçich, 1962). In this study, a multifaceted theory of social intelligence was used by the researcher as it facilitated the understanding of social behavior in the academic settings.

Social intelligence was originally defined as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920: p 229). There is some closeness and commonality between this definition and "interpersonal intelligence" proposed in Gardner's (1983) MI theory. There have been two views on social intelligence: the first is the restricted view in which the researchers view it as the knowledge of social situations, perhaps called social cognition or social marketing intelligence, as it relates to socio-psychological advertising and marketing strategies and tactics. The second view is a wide-scope view. Based on this view, social intelligence is "a person's competence to understand his or her environment optimally and react appropriately for socially successful conduct" (Babu, 2013, p.65).

Spiritual intelligence is yet another element in effective instruction. Zohar and Marshall (2000) were of the view that when the level of spiritual intelligence is high, we are in contact with our wholeness. Our personality traits reflect our inner self and we tend to be intellectual and develop proper behavior. When the level of our spiritual intelligence is low, we become caricatures of ourselves. Our feelings and emotional models are not stable and we experience difficult behavior patterns. This intelligence also increases with age and is not linked to any religion. Donahue and Benson (1995) mentioned that there are supporting findings to indicate that increased participation in spiritual activity is strongly related to a higher well-being, lower level of delinquency, misbehavior and other social problems (Compton, 2005). The spirituality theories maintain that effective education must recognize the spiritual and emotional development of the child, the significance and impact of the arts as well as a conducive education process. Such an integrated education system will enable students to connect through common emotional experiences and realize their full potential (Geula, 2004).

Spiritual intelligence, according to Amram and Dryer (2007), provides the individuals with better well-being, lower misunderstandings and misbehaviors, and more comfortable life. According to Dincer (2007), spiritual intelligence prepares a person to develop self-esteem, wholeness, perfection, goal and ambitions. Dincer believes teachers having higher spiritual intelligence are able to help students from various age groups to experience self-respect and creativity in their life.

Students' activities, behaviors, interactions, and gestures during a class, observed, planned and monitored by the teacher, are technically referred to as classroom management (Fredrick, Deitz, Bryceland, & Hummel, 2000). The objective is to establish a conducive classroom atmosphere which fosters effective learning and acceptable behavior (Martin, Sugarman, & Mc Namara, 2000, p.9). To establish positive teacher-student relationships, classroom management strategies play a very important part, which in turn, could enhance the students' academic achievement and their social, emotional and behavioral performance (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1993). Improved teacher-student interaction could have a positive effect on classroom discipline by influencing students' task-related behavior (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003). Athanases, Christiano and Lay (1995) suggested that through establishing a social setting of trust and respect as well as modeling, the classroom climate is likely to improve the students' ability to care for others and learn more effectively.

Some studies have been done to examine the role of some of these types of intelligences on various aspects of language learning: trait emotional intelligence in academic performance and deviant behavior at school (Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham, 2004), the influence of emotional and verbal intelligences on second language learning (Pishghadam,2007), the relationship between emotional intelligence and vocabulary learning among Iranian pre-university EFL learners (Alavi & Rahimi, 2011), the relationship between emotional intelligence and general mental ability and academic performance of the students (Song, Haung, Peng, Law, Wong, and Chen,2010); the relation between academic achievement and several dimensions of emotional intelligence (Fahim & Pishghadam, 2007); the relation between cognitive ability and academic performance and trait emotional intelligence (Petrides, Furnham, & Frederickson. 2004); social and academic success and the overall emotional intelligence among gifted adolescents (Woitaszewski & Aalsma,2004); the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement (Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck,2005) ,and the relationship between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and trait emotional intelligence (Nikoopour, Amini Farsani, Tajbakhsh & Sadat Kiaee,2012).

According to Boyatzis (2000), these types of intelligences are not fixed, but they are modifiable and can be developed. Thus, policy makers, language teachers, and material developers can increase their professional development if they are culturally, emotionally, and socially intelligent. According to Bar-on (2007), scientific observations and empirical studies are to be done to help develop educational programs to create emotionally and socially intelligent behavior among students. Bar-on (2007) believes that emotional intelligence establishes a more effective, successful, innovative, and humane community in educational system. Parents and teachers are expected to be aware of the concept of intelligences so that they could understand children's emotions and feelings respectfully, provide them with the support and dedication they need, and help them learn more skills to manage their emotions (Saarni, 2007). The aim of this study is to find out the relationship between cultural, spiritual, social, emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness among Iranian EFL teachers.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the study were Iranian EFL teachers, observers and learners. From the total number of participants (423), almost half of them (53.9 %) were female (228) and (46.1 %) were male (195). A group of 126 male and female EFL teachers (29.8 % of the whole sample) were almost randomly selected from different educational districts of Tehran. They were assessed for their emotional, cultural, spiritual and social intelligence as well as their teaching effectiveness. The teachers' gender, age, university degrees and teaching experience were taken into account to see whether they would modify the research findings or not. A group of 31 observers (7.3 % of the whole sample) participated in the study to help the researcher elicit data about the EFL teachers' teaching effectiveness in their EFL classes. They were all experienced EFL teachers who had been teaching English in various schools and language institutes at different levels. The observers had the experience of observing EFL classes before the present study. However, they were trained to use a certain observation checklist to collect data on the effective teaching of EFL teachers in their classes. The third group of participants was 266 EFL male and female learners (62.9 % of the whole sample) to whom the questionnaire of effective teaching was given and they were expected to assess their teachers' effective teaching in their own classes. Since teaching effectiveness might not have been perfectly assessed through EFL teachers' self-report questionnaire, the researcher went for triangulated data; that is, the data elicited from EFL teachers, observers and learners.

B. Instruments

Teaching Effectiveness Questionnaire: Teacher Questionnaire, developed and validated by Moafian & Pishghadam (2009), was used to investigate the EFL teachers' teaching effectiveness. The psychometric characteristics of the questionnaire were acceptable; that is, the total reliability based on Cronbach alpha was 0.94 and the reliability index

for each factor was also acceptable. The construct validity of the questionnaire was proved to be acceptable; that is, a principled axis factoring extracted twelve factors from the questionnaire, and these factors had special amount more than one and accounted for %48 of the variance, and variable commonalities were all more than %30. The questionnaire consisted of different parts measuring the twelve sub-constructs of effective teaching. There were 49 items arranged in a 5-likert scale closed-questionnaire format. Secondly, the Learner Questionnaire was used to investigate the students ' assessment of their EFL teachers' teaching effectiveness. This questionnaire consisted of the same sub-constructs of the Teachers' Questionnaire, to enable the researcher to correlate the two sets of data together to find out any sort of relation. Thirdly, the researcher utilized an observation checklist to assess the performance of EFL teachers in their classes. Thus, thirty one EFL teachers' classes were carefully observed based on the observation checklist which shared almost all items of the two aforementioned questionnaires. All the three research tools were checked for their reliability indexes within the new distribution.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire: The second instrument was a Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), which consisted of 30 items in a 5-likert scale. This questionnaire was based on the long form of the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2001), which was designed to measure trait emotional intelligence. TEIQue was in the closed form, Likert scale , which provided 5 choices for the participants to select. The choices were from completely disagree (1), disagree (2), no idea (3), agree (4), and completely agree (5). TEIQue has four underlying sub-constructs: emotionality, self-control, well-being, sociability and global trait EI. The reliability index computed for TEIQue was 0.85 which was quite reasonable.

Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS): As the third research tool, the researchers used Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) for measuring the EFL teachers' cultural intelligence. Three perspectives on CQ measurement have been dominant within the CQ research. According to Earley and Ang (2003), CQ consists of three key structural components: cognitive, motivational, and behavioral. Another perspective on the analysis of CQ, advanced by Thomas and Inkson (2004), involves three major interlocking components of cultural knowledge, mindfulness, and behavioral skills. Finally, Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar (2007) proposed a four-factor model of CQ based on Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualization, comprised of cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral dimensions. There were 19 items arranged to measure the four sub-constructs of the cultural intelligence: cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, and behavioral dimensions. The reliability coefficient for was 0.713, which was appropriate for the present study.

Social Intelligence Scale: A scale for measuring social intelligence, the Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS) designed by Silvera, Martinussen and Dahl (2001) was used for the study. The researcher investigated the questionnaire to be construct valid. The Factor Analysis finally led to the inclusion of 21 items in the questionnaire, seven of which represented each of the three factors. The three sub-constructs were Social Information Processing, Social Skills, and Social Awareness. The reliability coefficient of the social intelligence questionnaire proved to be 0.699.

Integrated Spiritual Intelligence Scale (ISIS): To address the limitations of previous measures of spiritual intelligence, Amram and Dryer (2007) developed the Integrated Spiritual Intelligence Scale (ISIS). The instrument used in the study was a self-reporting questionnaire which had seven domains, 22 specific capabilities, and 83 items, arranged in the six-point Likert scale. The options were "rarely or almost never; very infrequently; somewhat infrequently, somewhat often; very frequently; and always or almost always". The internal consistency of the whole questionnaire was high (Cronbach Alpha = 0.97). Also, the internal consistency of the domain scales was high; ranging from 0.84 to 0.95, with a mean value of 0.89. The Cronbach alpha values for the each of the domains are (i) Consciousness (0.84); (ii) Grace (0.91); (iii) Meaning (0.86); (iv) Truth (0.90), (v) Wholeness (0.88); (vi) Presence (0.91); and (vii) Inner directedness, (0.86). The ISIS demonstrated acceptable test-retest reliability (Pearson r = 0.77).

C. Procedure

The researchers went through different phases: at first, they prepared the five questionnaires and checked for their reliability. Since each of the five research questionnaires had already been validated in the previous studies, the researchers did not check for their construct validity, but computed their reliability indexes for the new distribution. As the second phase, the questionnaires were translated into Persian to guarantee the participants' understanding. Then, each questionnaire was administered to the participants in a separate session to measure the variables under the study respectively. Before distributing each questionnaire, the researchers provided the participants with a briefing explanation about the nature of the questionnaire. Having collected the data as the last phase, the researchers went through the process of data entry and data analysis.

III. RESULTS

The study revealed that among EFL teachers, there was a significant correlation between teaching effectiveness and TEQ, but the correlation between teaching effectiveness and the three other types of intelligence (SQ, CQ, & SPQ) was not statistically significant (Table 1).

TABLE 1.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS AND INTELLIGENCES

		CQ	SQ	TEQ	SPQ
TE	Pearson Correlation	.069	.037	.237**	.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.443	.684	.008	.095
	N	126	126	126	126

The three groups of participants (teachers, observers, and learners) showed a significant difference in their perception of effective teaching (Table 2).

TABLE 2.
ANOVA FOR TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS BY GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	141042.81	2	70521.40	461.175	.000
Within Groups	64225.10	420	152.91		
Total	205267.91	422			

It seems that effective teaching is a controversial issue since it is perceived differently by three groups involved directly in teaching/learning process. A post hoc comparison (Table 3) shows that observers have a significant difference in their perception of effective teaching in comparison with EFL teachers and learners.

TABLE 3.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS IN TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS BY GROUPS

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EFL teachers	EFL learners	1.971	1.337	.141	-.66	4.60
	EFL observers	71.323*	2.479	.000	66.45	76.20
EFL learners	EFL teachers	-1.971	1.337	.141	-4.60	.66
	EFL observers	69.352*	2.347	.000	64.74	73.97
EFL observers	EFL teachers	-71.323*	2.479	.000	-76.20	-66.45
	EFL learners	-69.352*	2.347	.000	-73.97	-64.74

Since the four types of intelligences have been measured based on self-reporting questionnaires, a correlational analysis was employed to see whether these four types of intelligences are correlated. As the results show (Table 4), there is a significant correlation among all four types. Although the correlation coefficients in between are not high, they are significant. The highest extent is 0.468, which is the correlation between Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEQ) and Spiritual Intelligence (SPQ), and the lowest extent of correlation is 0.201, which is the correlation between Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEQ). The level of significance has been marked with one asterisk (0.05 level) and with two asterisks (0.01 level) in the data.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES

		CQ	SQ	TEQ	SPQ
CQ	Pearson Correlation	1	.240**	.201*	.462**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.007	.024	.000
	N	126	126	126	126
SQ	Pearson Correlation	.240**	1	.230**	.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007		.010	.000
	N	126	126	126	126
TEQ	Pearson Correlation	.201*	.230**	1	.468**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024	.010		.060
	N	126	126	126	126
SPQ	Pearson Correlation	.462**	.402**	.468**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.060	
	N	126	126	126	126

In further analysis, *gender* made a significant difference in TEQ, but female and male EFL teachers did not show a significant difference in their CQ, SQ, SPQ and effective teaching. *University degree* caused a significant difference in SQ and TEQ, but not in TE, SPQ and CQ. However, *teaching experience* and *age* made a significant difference in all four variables under the study (Table 5-8, in Appendix)

IV. DISCUSSION

A closer look at the interrelationships of four types of intelligences showed that there was a moderate positive correlation between them. Cultural intelligence has correlation with SQ, TEQ, and SPQ with a correlational coefficient of 0.240, 0.201, and 0.462 respectively. Social intelligence has correlation with TEQ (0.230), and a higher correlation with SPQ (0.402), and finally the correlation between SPQ and TEQ was 0.468. The highest coefficient was 0.462 and the lowest one was 0.201; however, all coefficients were statistically significant. The relationships among these intelligences are quite meaningful and can be interpreted. It seems that these types of intelligences have something in common, which indicates the extent of their correlation. The EFL teachers have shown moderate but significant correlation in all their intelligences, which signifies compatibility and/or commonality of these intelligences.

Contrary to Goleman (1998), who stated that there are no perceptible gender differences in emotional intelligence, while *gender* is taken into account, EFL teachers indicated to have a significant difference in their trait emotional intelligence; however, gender did not make any significant difference in their spiritual, cultural and social intelligence. Therefore, female and male EFL teachers are emotionally different, whereas they are homogeneous in their social, spiritual and cultural intelligence. This difference might be due to the nature of female EFL teachers, who are more sensitive, more flexible, or even less serious in their profession. A good point in gender analysis was the equality in teaching effectiveness among EFL female and male teachers. Hence, gender as a moderator variable is not a determining factor to cause any discrepancy in EFL teachers' performance in their classes.

The analysis of variance on the data showed that *university degree* did not make a significant difference between Associate Diploma, BA and MA holders in their spiritual and cultural intelligence. However, it did make a significant difference among the different groups of teachers (Associate Diploma, BA and MA holders) in social and trait emotional intelligence. A Post Hoc analysis showed that BA and MA holders had a significant difference in their social intelligence. Also, the significant difference in trait emotional intelligence was between MA holders and the other two groups. It was obvious that university education was not a determining factor to cause such differences. What can be accounted for the EFL teachers' effectiveness in their real life EFL instructional contexts cannot be merely attributed to the teachers' university degree. As it has been also found, some studies have been done to investigate the characteristics of effective teaching. Some scholars included participants in their studies who characterized effective teachers, for instance they selected good students and weaker students (Koutsoulis, 2003), male and female students (Witcher et al., 2001; Minor, Onwuegbuzie & Witcher, 2002), teachers and students (Lang, McKee & Conner, 1993), and students with different majors (Check, 1986) as subjects of their study.

The EFL teachers' *teaching experience* showed a significant difference in all five variables under the study. The findings of the present study were in agreement with those of previous researchers in that teaching effectiveness increases greatly over the years of teaching practice (Chidolue 1996; Rice 2003; Murnane, Singer, Willett , Kemple & Olsen, 1991; Leigh 2007; Needels 1991). It was obvious that teaching experience is a crucial factor since it made a significant difference in EFL teachers' TEQ, CQ, SPQ and SQ. The teaching experience does help increase their professional development and accordingly, their teaching effectiveness. It is also interesting to mention that *age* made a significant difference in the EFL teachers' four types of intelligences: social, cultural, spiritual and emotional intelligence as well as their teaching effectiveness.

Considerable attention has been devoted by the researchers to the quality of teaching so that it could improve the quality of education (Ellett & Teddlie, 2003) and to improve the educational system (Schulte, Slate, & Onwuegbuzie, 2008). Therefore, many scholars across different cultures have attempted to investigate the characteristics of effective teaching (Martin, 2007) and disciplines of study (Park & Lee, 2006). The two main issues which characterize the realm of EFL professional development are describing the necessary characteristics of an effective teacher and developing good teachers in practice (Korthagen, 2004).

In the literature, "teaching effectiveness is not a simple construct" (Bailey, 2006, p.213); that is, it is a complicated concept which is being influenced by many variables, such as teachers' personal characteristics (Tickle, 1999), content knowledge (Mewborn, 2001), caring behavior (Cotton, 2000), and the culture of teaching environment (Schulte et al., 2008). Not only is an effective EFL teacher required to develop reasonable teaching competence comprising of English language proficiency, pedagogical content knowledge, professional development, and contextual knowledge, but s/he is also expected to be socially, culturally, emotionally, and spiritually intelligent enough to act effectively and plausibly in various settings.

The study done by Adamson and Davison (2003) showed that parental beliefs and education can influence students' perception of effective teaching. It was also found by Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) that the characteristics of the students' families, parents' involvement in schooling, their support, and their interest in children's academic life affect the effectiveness of class, the learning climate and the teacher-student relationship. Due to the multifaceted nature of teacher development, various studies surveyed the function of "educational context including the array of cultural, social, racial, and other groups to which students and teachers belong" (Kanu 2005, p. 495) in enhancing the teachers' teaching effectiveness. Several studies have shown that developing professional identity (Flores & Day 2006), teachers' self-efficacy and professional development (Fisher & Fraser 1991), and perceived professional certainty (Munthe 2003) support the fact that teacher variables influence the school environment and students' academic achievement.

Several studies attempted to investigate factors in the school context such as teachers' affiliation and professional interest (Webster & Fisher 2003), and some other studies concentrated on ''the context beyond school'' (Elizabeth et al. 2008, p. 631) such as teacher's intelligences and parents' support to find out their influence on teachers' effective instructional practice. Other teacher-related variables such as teacher motivation, job satisfaction, job dedication, and job stress as well as some contextual factors such as conflict with workmates, lack of staff freedom and autonomy, student misbehavior and too much work (Kokkinos 2007; Malach-Pines 2005) can also affect the teaching effectiveness of EFL teachers in their classes. The report of these studies justifies the implementation of the present study since the EFL teachers' social, emotional, spiritual and cultural intelligence may influence the teaching effectiveness.

APPENDIX

TABLE 5.
ANOVA FOR TE AND TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES BY GENDER

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TE	Between Groups	617.52	1	617.52	1.270	.260
	Within Groups	204650.39	421	486.10		
	Total	205267.91	422			
CQ	Between Groups	334.71	1	334.71	3.155	.078
	Within Groups	13156.50	124	106.10		
	Total	13491.21	125			
SQ	Between Groups	356.57	1	356.57	3.126	.080
	Within Groups	14144.92	124	114.07		
	Total	14501.50	125			
TEQ	Between Groups	521.96	1	521.96	36.630	.000
	Within Groups	1766.96	124	14.25		
	Total	2288.92	125			
SPQ	Between Groups	2.84	1	2.84	.021	.886
	Within Groups	17146.09	124	138.27		
	Total	17148.85	125			

TABLE 6.
ANOVA FOR TE AND TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES BY AGE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TE	Between Groups	48417.91	32	1513.06	3.762	.000
	Within Groups	156850.02	390	402.17		
	Total	205267.91	422			
CQ	Between Groups	5264.31	21	250.68	3.169	.000
	Within Groups	8226.9	104	79.1		
	Total	13491.21	125			
SQ	Between Groups	7457.1	21	355.1	5.243	.000
	Within Groups	7044.4	104	67.73		
	Total	14501.5	125			
TEQ	Between Groups	1303.32	21	62.06	6.549	.000
	Within Groups	985.6	104	9.47		
	Total	2288.92	125			
SPQ	Between Groups	8814.75	21	419.75	5.238	.000
	Within Groups	8334.1	104	80.13		
	Total	17148.85	125			

TABLE 7.
ANOVA FOR TE AND TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES BY UNIVERSITY DEGREE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TE	Between Groups	477.14	2	238.57	.309	.734
	Within Groups	168287.65	218	771.96		
	Total	168764.80	220			
CQ	Between Groups	.214	2	.17	.001	.999
	Within Groups	13491.00	123	109.68		
	Total	13491.21	125			
SQ	Between Groups	2284.90	2	1142.45	11.503	.000
	Within Groups	12216.59	123	99.32		
	Total	14501.50	125			
TEQ	Between Groups	258.40	2	129.20	7.827	.001
	Within Groups	2030.52	123	16.50		
	Total	2288.92	125			
SPQ	Between Groups	13.46	2	6.73	.048	.953
	Within Groups	17135.39	123	139.31		
	Total	17148.85	125			

TABLE 8.
ANOVA FOR TE & INTELLIGENCES BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
TE	Between Groups	61341.03	24	2555.87	4.265	.000
	Within Groups	106666.64	178	599.25		
	Total	168007.68	202			
CQ	Between Groups	7728.56	20	386.42	7.041	.000
	Within Groups	5762.65	105	54.88		
	Total	13491.21	125			
SQ	Between Groups	7930.01	20	396.5	6.335	.000
	Within Groups	6571.50	105	62.58		
	Total	14501.50	125			
TEQ	Between Groups	1374.32	20	68.71	7.889	.000
	Within Groups	914.60	105	8.71		
	Total	2288.92	125			
SP	Between Groups	9564.07	20	478.2	6.620	.000
	Within Groups	7584.85	105	72.23		
	Total	17148.85	125			

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An Investigation into Listening Comprehension Strategies and the Relationship between Listening Comprehension Strategies and Overall Proficiency Level of Intermediate and Advanced Learners

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Abstract—**Research into the role of listening strategies in acquiring knowledge of language has attracted increasing attention over last decades. The current study sought to determine the strategies used by intermediate and advanced learners. It also attempted to investigate the relationship between learners' overall language proficiency and their choice of strategy. To this end, two language institutes were randomly selected in Yasouj. A Quick Placement Test was validated and administered. Based on the results, 30 intermediate and 30 advanced EFL learners were selected. Two listening tasks were given to each group. Think-aloud technique was used in order to elicit learners' listening strategies. The protocols were coded by two raters in order to yield more reliable results. The data analyzed through descriptive statistics showed that advanced learners employed more listening comprehension strategies than intermediate listeners did. It was shown that advanced learners employed meta-cognitive strategies more frequently than cognitive and socio-affective strategies. However, intermediate language learners employed cognitive, and then social/affective strategies more frequently. The findings of the present study indicated that there was a relationship between overall listening proficiency of language learners and listening strategies employed by them.**

Index Terms—**listening strategies, think-aloud technique, overall proficiency, listening comprehension**

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening was a long-neglected aspect of language learning not only in research, but also in language classrooms because it was assumed that it is acquired automatically without much effort. In addition, Rost (1990) showed that language teachers do not have enough knowledge about listening strategies, and therefore, they do not tend to teach them in the classroom.

The importance of listening ability is increasing in the world, and technological advances in global communication have made listening by non-natives even more vital (Mendelsohn, 1998). Wolvin and Coakley (1988) showed that listening consumes more of daily communication time than other forms of verbal communication, both in and out of the classroom. Vandergrift also showed that in daily life, people spend 40-50% of their communication on listening (Vandergrift, 1999). Therefore, it is necessary for students who learn English as a second or foreign language to improve their learning abilities of listening. Over these last decades, listening has attracted growing interest in foreign or second language learning, leading teachers to look for new and most importantly practical methods to maximize the efficiency of their listening instruction in both EFL and ESL settings.

Learning listening is difficult because listeners have to use their knowledge of the second language and their background knowledge in order to interpret the oral input (Young, 1997); hence the language learners have to rely on some listening strategies. Chamot (2004) defined these learning strategies as "the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal" (p. 14). According to Cohen (2010), these learning strategies are part of "Individual differences" (IDs) that refer to 'personal baggage' which learners bring to the classrooms. These Individual differences include some factors such as anxiety, age, personality, aptitude, gender, motivation, attitudes, beliefs, and learning strategies. Vandergrift (1999) stated that learners have to make use of listening strategies in order to guide and monitor their listening comprehension.

Improving listening ability contributes in significant ways to learning a foreign language; learners have to make use of some strategies in order to succeed in the process of listening comprehension. However, little attention has been paid to the choice of these strategies by learners with different language proficiency levels; hence, a better understanding of

these strategies and the way they are employed by learners are of high importance. Therefore, this study sought to determine the strategies used by learners with different overall language proficiency (intermediate and advanced), and to investigate the relationship between learners' overall language proficiency and their choice of strategy.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Interest in language learning strategies (behaviors that learners engage in to learn a second/foreign language) emerged with the work of Rubin (1975) with the curiosity of identifying "what a good language learner does". It was at that time that the notion that learner strategies and techniques might assist second language acquisition appeared. Rubin (1975) stated that "good language learner" might do something different that we could all learn from. Rubin (1975) identified some strategies used by good learners and asserted that language teachers can train poor learners using these strategies. Besides, she emphasized the vital role of these strategies as a means to help the students help themselves, in the absence of the teacher. According to Fedderhold (1997), the language learner who is able to use a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately can expand his language skills in a better way. Lessard-Clouston (1997) stated that language learning strategies can help the students develop their communicative competence.

Different taxonomies for listening comprehension strategies have been provided by researchers. For example, Oxford (1990) divided these strategies into direct (cognitive, memory, and compensation) and indirect (strategies which do not affect the language tasks directly including metacognitive, affective and social) strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Rubin (1989) classified language learning strategies into two main categories (strategies that have a direct effect on learning, and processes that directly influence leaning) and a number of subcategories (clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, processes which create opportunities for practice, and production tricks). The taxonomy presented by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) is one of the widely used classifications. They believe that language entails active and dynamic mental processes and thus classify learning strategies into three major categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies help learners to plan for the coming learning tasks, monitor the process, and then assess the output after the completion of the learning activity. Cognitive strategies are tools by which learners can solve the learning problems or complete the learning task during the process of manipulating the target language. Social/affective strategies are those strategies which are mainly concerned with cooperative learning. Language learners use these strategies in order to reach a common goal and ask questions for clarification and self-talk to redirect thoughts (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Their classification is comprehensive and reasonable in that they combine learning strategies with learners' knowledge processing.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Through random sampling, two language institutes were chosen out of the language institutes in Yasouj. A Quick Placement Test which is given in the Appendix was administered to those who were believed to be at the intermediate and advanced level of proficiency. The test includes 60 items. The test was given to 110 learners. The results are given in Table 3.

Based on the results of the test, 30 intermediate and 30 advanced learners were chosen through purposive sampling as the participants of the study.

B. Instrument

OPT was used in order to categorize the learners into intermediate and advanced learners. Then some listening comprehension tasks were given to participants in order to elicit the required information about learners' listening strategies. The tasks were not too long, and they did not contain technical terminologies. The tasks used for eliciting advanced learners' strategies were selected from TOEFL tests. Two other tasks were taken from Four Corners, a book which is taught in Yasouj language institutes, for intermediate group.

C. Data Collection Procedure

A proficiency test was administered to categorize the participants into advanced and intermediate groups. Then some listening comprehension tasks were given to participants in order to elicit the required information about learners' listening strategies. The tasks were not too long, and the content was not technical. They were selected from TOEFL tests, and one of the books which is taught in some language institutes, namely Four Corners.

Learners may use different strategies while doing a listening task. But they may not be able to remember the strategies at the end of the task; hence, think-aloud technique was used. Using think-aloud method, we were able to reach a quite unbiased insight into the participants' listening processes and strategies. Sixty sessions were undertaken; one session for each participant. According to Ericsson and Simon (1984), learners should be taught to verbalize "all" their thoughts immediately and without selection. All sessions were audio-recorded. Participants were allowed to use their first language to think aloud. Each participant was asked to listen to the selected task. And the researcher tried to elicit their listening strategies implicitly.

Before answering to the questions, we asked each participant to listen to the task again. Then participants were asked to tell everything they remembered about the task. Then the protocols were coded using a predefined taxonomy of listening comprehension strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). This taxonomy is divided into three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/¬affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies help learners to plan for the coming learning tasks, monitor the process, and then assess the output after the completion of the learning activity. Cognitive strategies are tools by which learners can solve the learning problems or complete the learning task during the process of manipulating the target language. Social/affective strategies are those strategies which are mainly concerned with cooperative learning. This classification is comprehensive and reasonable in that they combine learning strategies with learners' knowledge processing. To assess the reliability of the coding scheme, two raters categorized all the protocols independently. Inter-rater reliability was calculated as 85%. Most of the disagreements were resolved through discussion. The rate of agreement after discussion was about 97%.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

The current study sought to uncover the listening strategies used by intermediate and advanced language learners, and to investigate the relationship between learners' overall language proficiency and their choice of strategy. Descriptive statistics was carried out to determine the students' listening strategies as revealed through the think-aloud protocol technique and the EFL listening comprehension test. The data obtained from the think-aloud protocols were analyzed by making use of qualitative content analysis. In order to reveal whether there is a significant relationship between the students' overall language proficiency and their choice of listening strategy, descriptive analysis was carried out.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Listening Strategies Adopted by Intermediate Language Learners

The first research question was about the strategies used by intermediate language learners. The learners were given two tasks from a book which is taught in some language institutes, namely Four Corners. Then, they were asked to think-aloud, which required them to verbalize their thoughts while doing the task. The protocols were recorded for later transcription. Following that, the protocols were coded by two raters using a predefined taxonomy by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). The taxonomy includes three main categories (metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective) and some subcategories.

TABLE 1.
INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS' STRATEGY USE IN 2 DIFFERENT TASKS

	Task 1		Task 2	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Metacognitive	5	11.90%	6	15.38%
Cognitive	31	73.80%	27	69.23%
Social/Affective	6	14.28%	6	15.38%
Total	42	100%	39	100%

As it can be seen, intermediate language learners used more cognitive strategies than metacognitive and social/affective strategies in both tasks. The table shows that the total number of strategies used in both tasks is almost equal (42 strategies in Task 1 and 39 strategies in Task 2). In addition, the frequency of metacognitive and social/affective listening strategies of intermediate language learners was nearly equal in both tasks. However, intermediate learners used more cognitive strategies in Task 1 than Task 2 (73.80% in Task 1 vs. 69.23% in Task 2).

The following table shows the frequencies and percentages of the use of the main categories of listening strategies by intermediate language learners. In this case, no distinction was made between the two tasks.

TABLE 2.
INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS' STRATEGY USE REGARDLESS OF DIFFERENT TASKS

	Frequency	Percentage
Cognitive	58	71.60%
Metacognitive	11	13.58%
Social/Affective	12	14%81
Total	81	100%

Of all the listening strategies used by intermediate language learners, 71.60% accounted for cognitive strategies, 14.81% for social/affective strategies, and 13.58% for metacognitive strategies. It could easily be seen that intermediate learners used cognitive strategies more frequently. These frequencies are given in the following chart.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) subdivided the three main categories of listening strategies, i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective, into some subcategories. Metacognitive category was subdivided into advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-reinforcement, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. Social/affective category includes cooperation and techniques for lowering anxiety; however, the last category is represented by the title of the main category (i.e., social/affective). Cognitive category is subdivided into

resourcing, repetition, grouping, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, transfer, recombination, translation, key word, elaboration, inferencing, note-taking, and summarizing. The frequency of subcategories regardless of the tasks is presented in Table 3.

The following table provides the information related to the frequency and percentage of strategy use by intermediate learners.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY OF STRATEGIES USED BY INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS

	Frequency	Percentage
advance organizers	1	1/23
directed attention	1	1/23
selective attention	1	1/23
self-management	4	4/93
self-reinforcement	0	0
self-monitoring	1	1/23
self-evaluation	3	3/70
Social/affective	12	14/81
Resourcing	2	2/46
Repetition	2	2/46
Grouping	0	0
Deduction	3	3/70
Imagery	4	4/93
auditory representation	1	1/23
Transfer	3	3/70
Recombination	5	6/17
Translation	10	12/34
key word	4	4/93
Elaboration	4	4/93
Inferencing	2	2/46
note-taking	16	19/75
Summarizing	2	2/46
Total	81	100%

The above table shows the frequency and the percentage of strategy use by intermediate language learners. It could be seen that the total number of strategy use by intermediate learners was 81. The most frequently used strategies by intermediate language learners were note-taking and translation, which are subcategories of cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies. Of all the 81 listening strategies, note-taking accounted for 19.75%, translation for 12.34%, and social/affective for 14.18%. The least frequently used strategies were advance organizers, directed attention, self-monitoring and self-reinforcement, which are subcategories of metacognitive strategies, and grouping and auditory representation, which belong to cognitive category. Of all the listening strategies used by intermediate language learners, 71.60% accounted for cognitive strategies, 14.81% for social/affective strategies, and 13.58% for metacognitive strategies.

The table shows that the highly preferred listening strategies by intermediate group were note-taking (19.75%), translation (12.34%), and social/affective (14.18%). The first two subcategories belong to cognitive category. The least frequently used subcategories were mostly in metacognitive group (for example self-reinforcement, advance organizers, and selective attention).

B. Listening Strategies Adopted by Advanced Language Learners

In the second research question, the researcher tried to discover the advanced learners' listening strategies through think-aloud protocol. The same procedure was followed to answer this question. The learners in this proficiency group were given two tasks from TEFL tests. The researcher asked them to verbalize their thoughts. Again two raters coded the protocols in order to yield more reliable findings. Disagreements about the raters' coding scheme were solved through discussion. As it was said before, the protocols were coded based on a predefined taxonomy developed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). The taxonomy includes three main categories (i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective) and some subcategories. The numerical data of the frequency of these strategies by advanced language learners is presented in the following table.

The distinction between advanced learners' strategy use in terms of the tasks given is presented in the following table.

TABLE 4.
ADVANCED LEARNERS' STRATEGY USE IN 2 DIFFERENT TASKS

	Task 1		Task 2	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Metacognitive	41	70.68%	37	74%
Cognitive	16	27.58%	12	24%
Social/Affective	1	1.73%	1	2%
Total	58	100%	50	100%

The table reveals that advanced language learners used more metacognitive strategies than cognitive and social/affective in both tasks. The table also shows that the learners used more strategies in Task 1 (58 strategies in Task 1 and 50 strategies in Task 2). In addition, the frequencies of metacognitive and cognitive listening strategies of advanced language learners were different in both tasks. However, the use of social/affective strategies was equal in both tasks.

The following table shows the frequencies and percentages of the use of the main categories of listening strategies by advanced language learners. In this case, no distinction was made between the two tasks.

TABLE 5.
ADVANCED LEARNERS' STRATEGY USE REGARDLESS OF DIFFERENT TASKS

	Frequency	Percentage
Cognitive	78	72.22%
Metacognitive	28	25.92%
Social/Affective	2	1.85
Total	108	100%

Of all the listening strategies used by advanced language learners, 72.22% accounted for cognitive strategies, 25.92% for cognitive strategies, and only 1.85% for metacognitive strategies. According to the table, advanced learners preferred to use metacognitive strategies more frequently.

As it was said before, each of these strategies has some subcategories. The frequency of the use of the above-mentioned subcategories in the 2 tasks is illustrated in the following table.

TABLE 6.
NUMERICAL DATA OF THE FREQUENCY OF STRATEGIES USED BY ADVANCED LEARNERS

	Frequency	Percentage
advance organizers	7	6.46
directed attention	2	1.85
selective attention	8	7.40
self-management	18	16.66
self-reinforcement	14	12.96
self-monitoring	20	18.51
self-evaluation	9	8.33
social/affective	2	1.85
Resourcing	0	0
Repetition	0	0
Grouping	0	0
Deduction	1	0.92
Imagery	2	1.85
auditory representation	0	0
Transfer	2	1.85
recombination	3	2.77
Translation	9	8.33
key word	0	0
Elaboration	1	0.92
Inferencing	2	1.85
note-taking	8	7.40
Summarizing	0	0
Total	108	100%

The total number of strategies used by advanced learners was 108, which is more than the total numbers of the used strategies by intermediate learners. The most frequent strategies in this group were self-management, self-reinforcement, and self-monitoring, all of which belong to metacognitive category. Of all the 104 listening strategies used by this group, self-monitoring accounted for 18.51%, self-management accounted for 16.66, and self-reinforcement strategies accounted for 12.96%. The least frequently used strategies were summarizing, elaboration, key word, auditory representation, grouping, repetition, and resourcing which are subcategories of cognitive strategies. The most frequently used cognitive strategies by advanced learners were note-taking (7.40%) and translation (8.33%). Of all the listening strategies used by advanced language learners, 72.22% accounted for cognitive strategies, 25.92% for cognitive strategies, and only 1.85% for metacognitive strategies. Thus, advanced learners tended to use metacognitive strategies more often.

C. The Relationship between Language Learners' Overall Proficiency and Their Choice of Strategy

As it was mentioned, language learners have to rely on some strategies in order to comprehend listening tasks. This study aimed at investigating the relationship between language learners' overall proficiency and their choice of strategy. The frequency of strategies used by intermediate and advanced groups is presented in the following tables and charts.

TABLE 15.
NUMERICAL DATA OF THE FREQUENCY OF STRATEGIES USED BY INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS

	Frequency	Percentage
advance organizers	1	1/23
directed attention	1	1/23
selective attention	1	1/23
self-management	4	4/93
self-reinforcement	0	0
self-monitoring	1	1/23
self-evaluation	3	3/70
social/affective	12	14/81
Resourcing	2	2/46
Repetition	2	2/46
Grouping	0	0
Deduction	3	3/70
Imagery	4	4/93
auditory representation	1	1/23
Transfer	3	3/70
Recombination	5	6/17
Translation	10	12/34
key word	4	4/93
Elaboration	4	4/93
Inferencing	2	2/46
note-taking	16	19/75
Summarizing	2	2/46
Total	81	100%

The above table shows that most frequently-used strategies by intermediate group are note-taking (19.75%), translation (12.34%), and social/affective (14.81). They used translation frequently. Learners in this group did not use metacognitive strategies frequently. The frequency of these strategies was 11 out of 81. Although intermediate learners used cognitive strategies more, some of these strategies were not used at all, and the frequency of some others was very low. Examples are grouping and auditory representation. The table shows that the intermediate learners tended to use social/affective strategies, as well. They worked with one or more peers to obtain feedback or pool information. So, it can be concluded that the most preferred strategies by intermediate language learners were cognitive and social/affective strategies.

TABLE 16.
NUMERICAL DATA OF THE FREQUENCY OF STRATEGIES USED BY ADVANCED LEARNERS

	Frequency	Percentage
advance organizers	7	6.46
directed attention	2	1.85
selective attention	8	7.40
self-management	18	16.66
self-reinforcement	14	12.96
self-monitoring	20	18.51
self-evaluation	9	8.33
social/affective	2	1.85
Resourcing	0	0
Repetition	0	0
Grouping	0	0
Deduction	1	0.92
Imagery	2	1.85
auditory representation	0	0
Transfer	2	1.85
Recombination	3	2.77
Translation	9	8.33
key word	0	0
Elaboration	1	0.92
Inferencing	2	1.85
note-taking	8	7.40
Summarizing	0	0
Total	108	100%

One of the highly-used strategies by advanced group was self-management. The learners in this group tried to arrange the appropriate conditions for learning. They also checked and corrected their comprehension while the listening task was taking place (self-monitoring strategy). It appears that advanced learners are more able to verify continually and correct their comprehension as they are listening. Self-reinforcement was another frequent strategy used by these learners. It should be mentioned; however, that advanced learners used some cognitive strategies, as well; especially translation and note-taking. The results suggest that participants in both groups often use their native language to help with EFL listening comprehension. It is worth noting that only two of the participants in advanced group used social/affective strategies.

Therefore, the results demonstrated that advanced learners employed a wide variety of metacognitive strategies, while the most favored listening strategies for learners in the intermediate group were cognitive, and then social/affective strategies.

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to find out the strategies employed by intermediate and advanced language learners, and to explore whether there was a relationship between the strategies employed by these groups and their overall proficiency levels.

The results of the study suggest that both intermediate and advanced learners appear to be familiar with a wide range of strategies. However, the findings of the study show that advanced learners employed more listening comprehension strategies than intermediate listeners did. This finding implies that the difference in listening proficiency between intermediate and advanced learners seems to be related to the quantities of listening strategies they employed. The use of listening strategy does not guarantee success in listening comprehension, but it represents the listener's ability of actively solving problems. This is consistent with the findings of the study conducted by Huang and Naerssen (1987) who found that successful learners were more willing to take risks for employing strategies than less successful learners were. Murphy (1985) discovered that effective listeners used a greater number and range of strategies, while less proficient listeners focused too much on their world knowledge and the text.

The findings of the present study indicated that advanced learners tend to use metacognitive strategies more than socio-affective and cognitive strategies. It can be concluded that advanced learners try to monitor and evaluate their comprehension. These findings are in line with the findings of the study conducted by Chamot and Kupper (1989). They concluded that advanced listeners use metacognitive strategies more frequently, and they monitor their comprehension while doing listening tasks. In another study, Vandergrift (1996) investigated the relationship between listening strategy use and listening proficiency. The study revealed that intermediate listeners employed almost twice as many metacognitive strategies as the novice learners. In addition, advanced learners used twice as many metacognitive strategies as intermediate learners. Peters (1999), in a similar study, elicited listening comprehension strategies of learners with different listening proficiency. She showed that the more skilled listeners used more metacognitive strategies over time (particularly monitoring and evaluation).

This shows the importance of meta-cognitive strategies because, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), these strategies regulate and direct the language learning process. However, intermediate language learners employed cognitive, and then social/affective strategies more frequently. Vandergrift (2003) also found that the more skilled listeners preferred to employ meta-cognitive strategies more frequently than the less skilled listeners. However, this does not concur with the study undertaken by O'Malley, Chamot, Kupper Stewner-Manzanares, and Russo (1985). They (1985) believed that the most preferred strategies by intermediate students are meta-cognitive strategies.

The results revealed that intermediate learners tend to employ repetition, resourcing, note-taking, deduction, translation, and other cognitive strategies to comprehend the listening texts. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), learners can monitor learning materials and choose particular techniques to a listening task using these cognitive strategies. It was also indicated that social/affective strategies are used more frequently by intermediate group than advanced group. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested that listeners employ socio-affective strategies in order to cooperate with their peers, to lower their anxiety, and to solve their potential problems.

The findings of the present study indicated that there was a relationship between overall listening proficiency of language learners and listening strategies employed by them. To sum up, from a qualitative perspective, the following picture emerges of the relationship between the level of overall proficiency of learners and their choice of strategy. First of all, it was revealed that both groups of listeners appear to be familiar with a wide range of listening strategies, but advanced group appeared to use these strategies more frequently. So, it can be concluded that the level of proficiency is related to the frequency of strategy use. Second, advanced learners use metacognitive strategies more, while the most frequent strategies among intermediate learners are cognitive strategies. Advanced learners are able to control and monitor their comprehension using metacognitive strategies. Third, the use of social/affective by advanced group is not notable, while intermediate learners prefer to use these strategies almost frequently. Therefore, this study showed that students with higher overall proficiency levels employ more listening strategies than less proficient learners, and they tend to use metacognitive strategies more frequently. The finding lends support to the finding by Murphy (1987) who found that more proficient learners use many more specific and a greater number of strategies while interacting with a task than less proficient listeners. O'Malley et al. (1989) also found that there is a difference between the use of listening strategies between more proficient and less proficient listeners. They found that more proficient learners employ a greater variety of listening comprehension strategies. Their study showed that learners with higher proficiency involved more top-down processing, such as self-monitoring and selective attention, than learners with lower proficiency.

The findings of the current study also indicate that intermediate learners tend to use cognitive strategies more frequently. These findings are consistent with the findings of the study conducted by some researchers. For example, Vandergrift (2003) investigated the relationship between listening proficiency and listening strategy used. It was indicated that the most frequent strategies among more skilled listeners were meta-cognitive strategies, and less skilled listeners employed cognitive strategies more frequently than listeners with higher proficiency in listening.

VI. Summary & Conclusion

In the current study, an attempt was made to gain insights into the strategies which intermediate and advanced learners of English use in their listening comprehension activities. In addition, it sought to discover the relationship between intermediate and advanced learners' overall proficiency and their choice of strategy.

In order to determine listening strategies used by intermediate and advanced language learners, qualitative data from think-aloud sessions were used. The analysis of data showed that the participants in advanced group employ metacognitive strategies more often. The most frequent metacognitive strategies by these learners are self-monitoring, self-management, and self-reinforcement. However, intermediate learners tend to use cognitive strategies more frequently. The findings of this study are in line with previous findings, suggesting that more skilled listeners employ more metacognitive strategies than less skilled listeners (e.g., O'Malley, Chamot,& Kupper, 1989; Murphy, 1985). The findings also revealed that intermediate language learners use more social/affective strategies than advanced language learners. The most frequent strategies used by intermediate groups were note-taking and translation.

Descriptive statistics was used in order to answer the final research question which was about the relationship between language learners' overall proficiency and their choice of strategy. The findings showed that there is a relationship between overall listening proficiency of language learners and their choice of listening strategies. So, it can be concluded that the level of proficiency is related to the frequency of strategy use. Furthermore, advanced learners used metacognitive strategies more, while the most frequent strategies among intermediate learners were cognitive strategies. In addition, the use of social/affective strategies by advanced group is not notable, while intermediate learners prefer to use these strategies almost frequently. It was also shown that intermediate learners tend to use cognitive strategies more frequently. These findings are consistent with the findings of the study conducted by some researchers (e.g., Vandergrift, 2003).

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Study on Hypertext Reading in Students' Autonomous Learning[*]

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Abstract—The study was conducted on 100 non-English major sophomores for one semester in a University of Shanxi Province in China with the purpose to explore the variation of sophomore's learning achievements through hypertext English reading based on Schematic Theory and Constructionist Theory. The results show that hypertext reading is beneficial to improve students' learning, which is consistent with the conclusion that hypertext reading model is relatively a feasible and efficient way to improve students' autonomous learning and achievement.

Index Terms—hyperlinks, hypertext reading, autonomous learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, more and more people are obtaining information through rich media. In the education field, researchers are applying hypermedia to learning and teaching. Hypermedia, a computer-based learning environment (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996), combines dynamic elements such as audio, videos, and animation with static elements such as text, graphics, and image with hyperlinks in a hypermedia environment (Tomek, I., et al., 1991). In the hypermedia environment, the structure of links makes the foundation of dynamic knowledge typically. Therefore, students can access every link they want according to their learning goals and interests. Hypertext or hypermedia differs from traditional text-based learning in five key areas: "non-linear access to information, various information access, integrated information access, ease of access to information and free access to information" (Duchastel, 1990). Empirical researches have got different results on the effective role of the hypermedia learning, though these five key factors could promote learners' dynamic engagement in the knowledge construction (Williams, 1996). Study shows that some students benefit from the hypermedia learning environment (Jacobson & Archodidou, 2000), but others find it difficult to use the learning environments to even develop their conceptual knowledge (Azevedo et al., 2004; Greene & Azevedo, 2006).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Mayer and his partners' extensive work (Mayer et al., 2001; 2002) reveals that the cognitive overload could appear quickly if learners obtain information for cognitive resources. Although the Internet offers learners a lot of opportunities to obtain information, exposure to new information may not necessarily affirm prepared and organized process carefully (Harris, 1996). Assumed the significant part of prior domain knowledge to facilitate memory process (Schneider et al., 1990), lacking the prior domain knowledge may cause more problems in comprehending hypertext than traditional text (Foltz, 1996). The potential learning outcomes broadened the vision through use of the Internet, so students may be more limited when they have low prior knowledge. Encountering the inconclusive results of this field, researchers argue that hypermedia research should be based on learning and instructional theories and employ reliable and valid assessment tests (Gall, 1994; Tergan, 1997). Number of links seems to be an important variable, and hypertext designers are interested in it. Zhu (1999) made a comparison between learners' reading from hypertexts with either 3–7 links or 8–12 links. Learners made a good performance when they had fewer links in hypertext, testing the reading achievement on a multiple-choice question and written summary. Some researchers have examined the role of prior domain knowledge in hypertext reading (Balcytiene, 1999; Calisir & Gurel, 2003; Potelle & Rouet, 2003; Shin et al., 1994).

Johannes Naumann et al. (2008) revealed that learners high on reading skill or working memory capacity can benefit from learning strategy training, however, learners lack of such skill, performed worse in both training conditions compared to the control condition. Piret Luik and Jaan Mikk (2008) reported the findings that the high proficient students benefited from the Internet, analogies and lower density of terms in the material, while the low proficient

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students benefited from exact instructions, familiar examples, answers and icons from the keyboard. Jeffrey A. Greene et. al. (2008) found that gifted students utilized more sophisticated self-regulatory strategies more often than other students, and they were more likely to use less effective strategies that are less possible to enhance the knowledge acquisition. Daniel C. Moos and Roger Azevedo (2008) collected 49 undergraduates with various levels of prior knowledge by using think-aloud and pre-test data to explore the relationship between prior knowledge and self-regulation in hypermedia learning. It is indicated that prior knowledge is related to learners' planning and monitoring positively and related to their use of strategies negatively during the hypermedia learning. Hsin-chou Huang et al. (2009) examined learners' reading strategies on the Internet and the effectiveness of strategy use in reading comprehension. Using global strategies greatly contributed to better comprehension, especially for low-achieving students. Jeffrey Alan Greene et al. (2010) studied how students acquired declarative knowledge of historical thinking skills and a historical topic by utilizing a hypermedia learning environment (HLE). Pei-Lin Liu et al.(2010) revealed that the computer-assisted concept mapping learning strategy was more beneficial for the low-achieving students than high-achieving students. Furthermore, this learning strategy promoted students' other English reading strategies, such as enforcing, listing and reviewing.

III. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The term schema is originally from Gestalt psychology of the 1920s and was later rejuvenated in the Artificial Intelligence work of the 1970s and 1980s. It has become steadily established and further developed in applied linguistics, where schematic knowledge is viewed as an important element of a language user's competence (Widdowson, 1983; Skehan, 1989; Skehan & Foster, 2001) and therefore also of main importance in language acquisition (Skehan, 1989). Schemata are abstract, highly organized, generic knowledge structures in one's mind. The process of understanding a text is thus viewed by schema theorists as an interactive process between the text and the readers' prior knowledge. Schemata are higher-level complicated knowledge structures (Van Dijk, 1983) that have the function of "ideational scaffolding" (Anderson, 1984). Furthermore, as Taylor and Crocker (1981) illustrate, a schema is:

a cognitive structure that consists in part of a representation of some defined stimulus domain. The schema contains general knowledge about that domain, including specification of the relationships among its attributes, as well as specific examples or instances of the stimulus domain. The schema provides hypotheses about incoming stimuli, which include plans for interpreting and gathering schema-related information. (p. 91)

Schemata were later divided into formal schema and content schema by Carrell (1983). Formal schema is the background knowledge of the rhetorical, formal organizational structures of different kinds of texts; and content schema is the background knowledge of the content area of a text. Carrell further point out those appropriate schemata must be activated to improve comprehension efficiently during text processing.

IV. RESEARCH SETTINGS AND PROCEDURES

Effects of hyperlinks in hypertext reading have aroused the interest of many researchers. Previous studies on effects of hyperlinks in hypertext reading produced quite mixed results. There was not a consensus on the effects of hyperlinks in hypertext reading. So the author tries to incorporate their research findings into her study on the effects of hyperlinks on facilitating Chinese students' reading comprehension.

This study aims to investigate whether hyperlinks in hypertext reading facilitate students' reading comprehension compared with traditional text reading, and if they do, whether the number of hyperlinks has an effect on efficient reading. Three research questions are thus addressed as follows:

1. Do hyperlinks in hypertext reading facilitate Chinese students' English reading compared with traditional text reading?

2. Do the numbers of different hyperlinks have different effects on the scores of English reading comprehension among Chinese students? How about the effects?

One hundred freshmen volunteers (78 females, 22 males) were divided into two groups: 50 participants in Hypertext Group and 50 participants in Control Group. The mean age of the participants was 20.3 years. They are typical Chinese college students in that they all have had completed 6 years' English study. Their NMET scores (National Matriculation Entrance Test) in English generally fall in the range of 108 to 132 (note: the total score of English in NMET is 150 points). Their English competence is approximately at the same level. Each participant was given a comprehension test, and the test was presented on computers. The comprehension test was obtained from CET-4, and contained some multiple-choice questions. The questions and alternatives were randomized for each participant. The hypertext contained links to definitions, supplementary information, and examples embedded in text. While doing the English reading test, the students in hypertext group can link the words or sentences in red to obtain more background knowledge. However, the students in control group cannot have such an advantage. Eight reading comprehension passages in the current study are modified versions of College English Test Band Four (CET-4). The high reliability and validity of CET-4 to evaluate the fundamental English proficiency of college students could in turn guarantee the reliability and validity of the present experiment. And before the tests, there would be a test rating for the difficulties of

the test. The paper was arranged to first test the students whose English proficiency were higher than the subjects of this experiment. And then a Questionnaire was required for them to choose: 1-very easy; 2-easy; 3-neither easy nor difficult; 4-difficult; 5-very difficult.

The test was processed in the design of Visual Basic. Having finished the comprehension test, the reading time, the linking numbers and the scores could be calculated by the computer. Input these data into SPSS and analyze the result of the test.

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES TEST RESULTS OF PRE-TEST

Factors	t	Sig.(2-tailed)	MD	SED
Time	-0.608	.544	-84.10	138.229
Score	1.338	.184	2.350	1.7569

Note: *p<.05.

From the Pre-test table, it is seen that the Independent-sample T-test did not show a statistically significant difference between these students (sig. = 0.184 > 0.05). Independent-samples T tests indicated that there were no statistically significant differences on English reading. They were almost on the same English proficiency level.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With all the data collected and scored, statistic analysis can thus be made to answer the three research questions and testify the three corresponding hypotheses of the present study. To answer Research Question 1, Paired-Samples T Test was carried out to the data collected in the Experiment. Research Question 2 was addressed by the researcher adopting Multiple Comparison to analyze the data collected from the control group in the Experiment. All statistical analysis was performed by using the SPSS 11.5 package and the alpha for achieving statistical significance was set at 0.05.

TABLE 2
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST STATISTICS

Factors	Group	N	Mean	SED
Score	HG	50	74.100	8.745
	TG	50	67.200	8.830

Note: HG= hypertext reading group; TG= traditional text reading group; N= the number of participants.

TABLE 3
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST

	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean
Score(HG-TG)	10.265	49	.000 *	6.900

*P<.05.

From the tables, it is noted that the Paired-samples T Test was performed using comprehension test score as a dependent variable. There was a significant difference in comprehension test scores for the hypertext group and traditional text group (sig. = 0.000 < 0.05). Please see Table 1 for means and Table 3 for Paired-samples T Test.

The results of the post-test clearly suggest that among most Chinese L2 learners in the case of the participants in this experiment, hypertext reading facilitates their English reading. Because hyperlinks provide some background knowledge that helps students understand the text better. L2 learners' background knowledge plays a very important role in their English reading. Hypertext reading contains much information to enrich the background knowledge. We may assume that in real hypermedia learning situations, it is highly likely that learners will have more links about what they were unfamiliar, thus even further reducing the chance of their misunderstanding.

While doing English reading comprehension, the students used some hyperlinks to get more information about the text. The hyperlink numbers ranged from 1-15. So the author labeled the link number 1 to 5 as group Link 1, 6 to 10 as group Link 2, and 11 to 16 as group Link 3. The following table will give us the description of the difference between different link groups and the achievement scores.

TABLE 4
MULTIPLE COMPARISON

	Sig.	MD	SED
Link 1 vs. Link 2	.006*	7.042	2.446
Link 2 vs. Link 3	.028*	8.333	3.687
Link 1 vs. Link 3	.733	1.292	3.760

Note: *p<.05.

From Table 4, it is noted that there is also significant difference between the scores of Link 1 and 2 (sig. = 0.006 < 0.05), and the scores of Link 2 and 3 (sig. = 0.028 < 0.05).

TABLE 5
MEAN SCORES AMONG THREE LINK GROUPS

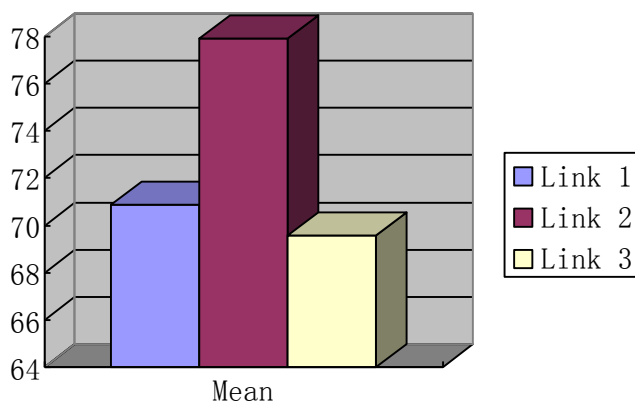| Group	N	Std. Deviation	Mean
Link 1	15	5.81	70.875
Link 2	18	9.05	77.917
Link 3	17	10.42	69.583

Figure 1 Mean Scores among Three Link Groups

From Table 5 and Figure 1, it is found that the students in Group Link 2 (link numbers from 6 to 10) got the highest mean scores. It can be explained that less links won't help improving reading, while more links would increase the cognitive load and therefore impair learning. In the whole process of reading comprehension, the students activate their prior background knowledge in their mind or employ hyperlinks to enrich their background knowledge. Only the appropriate number (from 6 to 10) will be helpful for reading. In this sense, we can conclude that only the proper number (from 6 to 10) of hyperlinks in English hypertext reading help and facilitate Chinese student' English reading comprehension.

VI. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study contributes to the research on learning about hypertext reading in several ways: (1) it provides evidence that hyperlinks can improve learning. (2) it explores how background knowledge could affect those who are learning to use hyperlinks in hypertext reading. (3) it improves our understanding of schemata. Schemata theory suggests that prior schema plays an important role in learning. (4) it also looks into how hyperlinks may improve learning, and the effectiveness of the use of hyperlinks in hypertext reading. It is a unique attempt to find the effectiveness of hyperlinks for knowledge acquisition when participants have dissimilar knowledge structures compared with the information to be learned. One possible extension can be using the same research method, yet with a stronger schema manipulation to find how dissimilar knowledge structures affect learning in presence of hyperlinks.

The results of the present study have important implications for SLA and FLL, especially for English language teaching and learning in China. Theoretically, this study yields insight into the nature of hyperlinks in hypertext reading and addresses the importance of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Methodologically, the present investigation employs Visual Basic software that promotes the efficiency of calculating the data. Pedagogically, the study suggests that teachers and learners should be aware of the role of background knowledge and schemata in English reading.

Overall, the implications seem to support future investigation that improves text design and presentation rather than selection for learning from hypertext or traditional text. In this particular study, learning from hypertext and traditional text depended on the similar individual differences. The main focus of future research should be not how hypertext learning might be different than learning from traditional text, but rather how to incorporate the findings from this study concerning visual-spatial working memory and meta-cognitive accuracy into hypertext design.

In all, multimedia and hypertext are powerful and widely used instructional tools. This is the very study to empirically investigate whether the cognitive processes of selection, organization, and integration, described by the generative theory of multimedia learning, can be separately supported with specifically designed annotations. The results of this study offer support for the generative theory of multimedia learning. This study offers a new visualization of the theory which puts a greater emphasis on the more circular nature of cognitive processing.

Although the experiment has yielded a promising result, there still exist limitations. There were several limitations identified in the study. First, the process of justifying instructional treatments for this study could have been more objective. Second, this experiment was tried with a small sample in a local college where the general English level of the students is comparatively lower. Another possible limitation is the design of the materials and the annotations. Third,

Reading Comprehension is only one part of a whole testing paper, which makes it impossible to check the time amount of every subject allocated for Reading Comprehension. Besides, when the subjects participated in the school formal tests, they were likely to be under greater stress than in class, thus it was not easy to control their use of formal schematic reading strategies. Consequently, the testing results might not be effective enough to reflect the impact of formal schemata on the students' reading. Fourth, hyperlinks might harm learning if the number of hyperlinks increases. We need to have more research on the effect of hyperlinks.

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The Impact of Applying Images on Knowledge of Affixes among EFL Learners

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Abstract—The aim of the present study was to investigate the effect of Applying Images on Iranian EFL learners' Knowledge of Affixes. Based on a standard PET test, 60 learners selected out of 100 intermediate female EFL learners were chosen in the study. They were assigned randomly to one control and one experimental group. Then an affix test was given to them as a pretest. The experimental group received instruction through images as their treatment while the control group has their own way of teaching without treatment. After treatment, both groups were given an affix posttest again. The results were analyzed through sample independent t-test in order to see if there was any significant difference in the results. The results ($t = 8.245$, $p = 0.000 < 0.001$) show that there is a significant difference between the scores of the two groups at the final exam. Thus, it is concluded that the participants of the experimental group strongly outperformed the control group in the final exam. The findings of this study have implications for students, teachers, and syllabus designers.

Index Terms—affixes, applying images, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning is a key to language achievements, there is a constant way of learning new words and meaning for old words in a learner's first language (Decarrico, 2001). In learning new words, longterm retention received wide consideration as one of the greatest issues (Wei, 2007). If the learners cannot store new words immediately, they will forget them very soon. Different techniques have been proposed in methodology textbooks in order to facilitate vocabulary retention. According to Nation (2001), there are some reasons for the importance of vocabulary skills. First, vocabulary is crucial for improving reading comprehension. It is also believed there is strong association in a reading comprehension with the level of vocabulary knowledge (Nourie & Davidson, 1992). Second, through vocabulary learning, learners can be successful in academic achievement. Thornbury (2002) states that "if you spend most of your time studying grammar, your English will not improve very much, but if you learn many words and expressions; you will see the most improvement" (p.114). Moreover, Readers who have known more vocabulary are more proficient that those who have limited number of vocabulary (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

Despite different ways that the teachers and learners use, learning vocabulary is truly challenging, so the best tools for improving vocabulary knowledge are strategies. According to Wenden (1991), "the learners use learning strategies in order to discover meaningful learning" (p.7).One of the most important strategies in vocabulary learning is using affixes knowledge (Bauer & Nation, 1993; Nation, 1990). Based on Scalise (1984),"in order to form a new word , an affix is needed to be attached to a word" (p.79).

Nation (2001) pronounces that knowing the word implies knowing the individual from the group of the word and by creating capability, the quantity of the individuals from this word family will increase. Nourie and Davidson (1992) express that one of the useful methods of word construction in English is affixations. When Affixation is added to another one, it shapes one part of speech and this is a vital function of it; furthermore, in the second function, the meaning of lexical in the same part of speech could be changed.

According to Kress (1998), the visual mode is very important; because the dominance of images in the modern word is increasing through media, which can make and express them directly. Moreover, Baggett (1989) says that the images which have more cognitive pegs are stored in memory and it can be used to make cooperative and referential association between the information held in long term memory and visual representations.

Several studies have been done to find out the effect of affixes and it is believed that affixes are really crucial for learners. For instance, Graves (2004) states that word learning strategy which is related to morphological awareness are effective in order to improve English. Moreover, no research has been done in literature to find the reason of this problem exactly, and it is not clear if this strategies are enough for student or not, and if these images are able to help students to learn better. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to shed lights on this issue.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. The Importance Vocabulary

In the universal research plan, vocabulary achievement has gotten little consideration (Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Nation, 1993, 2001). Conversely, according to some research in the skill domain, communication is more suitable for vocabulary achievement rather than grammar (Rott, 1999; Vermeer, 1992). In fact, when people do not use the right words, it hinders communication (Allen, 1983, p. 5). Learning of vocabulary is crucial for language learning and language use and it is an essential part of language teaching is vocabulary learning (Laufer, 1997).

B. Affixation

For the sorts of formatives affixation is the collective term that can be utilized just when added to another morpheme (the root or stem), i.e. a sort of bound morpheme are affixes. Affixes are classified into two types depending on the root or stem of the word. In fact, Those that are added to the front of the root or stem is prefixes, e.g. "dis-" in "disable", and those which follow root or stem are called suffixes, e.g. "-ness" in "sickness". Thus, based on Crystal (1985), the morphological process, whether grammatical or lexical which is added to a stem is known as affixation (prefixation and suffixation). The familiarity with prefixes and suffixes is important in the acquisition of English as a foreign language (Monson, 1968). It helps students to learn English better. It is easier to improve vocabulary by becoming familiar with frequent prefixes and suffixes, than by memorizing each word separately. If the words are classified by similar meanings and the same word-class, they are memorized better than if arranged alphabetically (Thakur, 1997).

C. Learning Strategies

Since the 1970s, most attention has been given to the role of strategies in L2 learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993). According to (Brown, 2007), Strategies are those specific "action" that one can make on a given problem, and they are various in each person. Chamot (2005) characterizes strategies extensively as "techniques that help a learning assignment. Strategies are regularly conscious and objective driven" (p. 112).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) considered learning strategies (LS) as "Behaviors and thoughts that a learner takes part in learning which are planned to impact the learner's encoding procedure" (p. 315). Based on this definition, the process is changing from teacher centered to learner-centered instruction in foreign language teaching and learning. There are different ways in order to enhance the input. Using pictures and images is one of these strategies for learning English. Nelson, Reed, and McEvoy (1976) argue that memorizing by pictures or images is more beneficial than the words by themselves. Similarly, Koran (1997) states that in learning new words with pictures, the learner can learn easier and better than leaning the word without pictures. An important and suitable solution for many problems is visual elements such as pictures (Horn, 1998). Furthermore, Underwood (1989) has come to conclusion that visual memory plays an important role in learning. Mayer and Sims (1994) mentioned that through visual elements such as pictures or real objects words are learned better because in learning process, the use of pictures is easier and more effective. In addition, if learners learn and recollect vocabulary items through the utilization of visual materials, it can be more useful than learning vocabulary items without perception of visual materials (Armstrong, 2000).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 60, Iranian female EFL learners, who were enrolling an EFL course in Mehr Language Institute in Tehran. In the first step a PET (Preliminary English Test) was conducted on 100 intermediate students. Having calculated the mean and the SD, participants with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean (1SD ± mean) were selected to conduct the next step. After homogenizing learners based on PET, the chosen participants were randomly divided and assigned into control and experimental groups with 30 participants in each group. All the participants of the survey were 17 to 30-year-olds, who had studied English in junior-high and high school.

B. Instruments

1. Preliminary English Test (PET)

In order to measure the participants' general proficiency level a PET test was administrated. PET is considered as the second level of Cambridge ESOL exam and measures four language skills of speaking, writing, listening, and reading. The test includes three papers. It is worth mentioning that the speaking section of PET was not performed due to language school's limitation.

2. Affixes Pretest

In the begging of the treatment, a piloted teacher-made test including 30 multiple-choice items was administered among the participants. The test content was based on those affixes which were going to be taught during the treatment. The purpose of pretest was to make sure those participants were not familiar with these affixes and also to homogenize the participants in knowledge of the affixes.

3. Affixes posttest

At the end of the treatment, a piloted teacher-made post-test was administered in order to investigate the students' learning of affixes and the difference between the two groups.

C. Procedure

Prior to instruction, the proficiency test, pretest and posttest of affixes were piloted on a group of 30 participants. The point of carrying out a pilot study is to test-often to revise-and then finalize the materials and the methods. Therefore, a group of 30 participants with the same characteristics of the participants in the control and experimental group were selected and the pretest and posttests were administered to them. Later on malfunctioning items were discarded and the reliability of the tests before and after discarding malfunctioning items was calculated. Also, the procedure of utilizing the selected images for teaching the respected affixes was piloted to fix any problems prior to the actual research study. First, PET (Preliminary English Test) was conducted on 100 intermediate students. Considering the mean and the SD, participants whose score was 1 SD above and below the mean, were selected. After homogenizing learners based on PET, the chosen participants were randomly divided and assigned into control and experimental groups with 30 participants in each group, and then a pre-test of affixes was administered. As this course was a general English course, communicative Language Teaching was used in both classes and all methods except for affix instructions were the same. Throughout the course both groups studied affixes as a part of their vocabulary instruction. The participants in the control group were not given any special treatment and followed the activities in their course book. The participants in the experimental group, however, were taught the same affixes with the help of related images and using visual aids and pictures. By the end of the course a posttest of affixes was administered in both control and experimental groups to recognize the impact of the teaching methods.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The first step in the process of participants' selection was piloting PET. Since the purpose of this study was to measure the writing ability of the participants, the speaking section of PET was excluded from PET. Following the piloting of the PET, the descriptive statistics of this administration were calculated with the mean and standard deviation standing at 53.26 and 10.185, respectively (Baradaran & Alavi, 2015). Following the piloting, the PET was administered to 100 students with the aim of selecting 60 of them for the study. The descriptive statistics of this process are presented below in Table 1 with the mean and standard deviation being 55.70 and 7.28, respectively.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
PET admin	100	35.50	69.50	55.7000	7.28836	.637	.457
Valid N (listwise)	100						

Out of the 100 participants, 60 whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen and randomly assigned into two groups (i.e. control and experimental groups). Before the treatment started, the teacher-made test of affixes was piloted among 30 learners bearing almost the same characteristics of the sample. The descriptive statistics of this administration were calculated with the mean and standard deviation standing at 20.46 and 3.93, respectively. Following the piloting of the test, item analysis was done. Item facility measures fell between .16 and .56 and item discrimination amounts ranged from .11 to .42. Therefore, there was no mal-functioning item; and thus, no need to have revision on any of the items. Finally, the reliability of the test scores gained by the participants at the piloting phase – using Cronbach Alpha– was calculated to be 0.87. Following the piloting of the test of affixes, the test was administered to the participants. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics resulted from the test.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON PRETEST OF AFFIXES IN BOTH GROUPS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Control Pretest	30	8.00	16.00	10.9000	2.38313	.733	.427
Experimental Pretest	30	8.00	15.00	10.6333	1.88430	.772	.427
Valid N (listwise)	30						

Before the treatment started, in order to make sure that the participants in two groups do not have pre-superiority over each other regarding the knowledge of affixes, an independent samples t-test was performed. And the results indicate that there is no significant initial difference in the knowledge of affixes between the two groups' learners. So the changes in posttest can be attributed to the treatment.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE RESULT OF PRETEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		tF	Ssig.	dt	ddf	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	1.408	.240	.481	58	.632	.26667	.55467	-.8436	1.3769
	Equal variances not assumed			.481	55.07	.633	.26667	.55467	-.8448	1.3782

The researcher administered the same test of affixes at the end of the treatment as the posttest. Followings are the descriptive statistics obtained from the results.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE POSTTEST RESULTS IN BOTH GROUPS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Control Posttest	30	12.00	25.00	16.7333	3.52267	.278	.427
Experimental Posttest	30	19.00	30.00	24.1000	3.39726	.411	.427
Valid N (listwise)	30						

To test the null hypothesis of the study (the strategy of applying images does not have any significant effect on the EFL learners' knowledge of affixes) the researcher conducted an independent samples t-test procedure. As both distributions manifested normality with their skewness ratios (0.278/ 0.427 = 0.651; 0.411 / 0.427 = 0.963) falling between the acceptable ±1.96 range, running an independent samples t-test was legitimized (table 5).

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE PERFORMANCE OF BOTH GROUPS IN THE POSTTEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		FF	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.075	.785	-8.245	58	.000	-7.3666	.89351	-9.155	-5.5781
	Equal variances not assumed			-8.245	57.924	.000	-7.3666	.89351	-9.155	-5.5780

As is evident in Table 5 above with the F value of 0.075 at the significance level of 0.785 being larger than 0.05, the variances between the two groups were not significantly different. The results (t = 8.245, p = 0.000 < 0.001) indicate that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups at the final exam. Thus, it is concluded that the participants of the experimental group strongly outperformed the control group in the final exam.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Findings

The findings indicated that the use of these strategies helped the learners to learn and remember the affixes. The results of the affix post-tests strongly revealed that learning the words through this strategy was effective and efficient. Furthermore, the participants who were exposed to treatment enhanced knowledge of the affixes. Similarly, regarding the results of data analysis, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between two groups on learning vocabulary through affixes. In fact the one which exposed to applying images as their treatment performed better. This study is in line with Shin and Milroy (2000) who argued that morphemes have strong effect on the acquisition of English. Studying vocabulary with affix systems or patterns would seem to be much more effective language learners than just memorizing words. The finding of this study is in line with Konomi (2014) who examine the use of visual materials in teaching English vocabulary in grade 3 and 6. It is believed that some instruments such as images, pictures, postcards, word calendars, realia, graphs, graphic organizers, picture books, television, videos from iTunes, and computers, could be considered as an effective way to improve Young learners' performance in learning English. However, the findings of the present study are assumed to support Krashen's (1982) view that the important and suitable condition for L2 acquisition is the comprehensible input, and there is no need for formal instruction. The finding of the present study supports the one conducted by Carpenter and Olson (2012) who scrutinized the impact of teaching new vocabularies through pictures, and their findings proved that the students had positive attitudes towards using the pictures. Consequently, the finding of the current study showed that images are considered as an effective

method in the development of affixes in EFL learners. Similarly, this study is also in line with the study done by Stokes (2002, as cited in Rokni & Karimi, 2013) who studied the effect of using pictures in teaching vocabulary. She felt that pictures attracted the students' attention for better learning. She also felt that when students associate new words with a picture, it is easy for them to remember the meaning of the words.

B. Applications and Implications

The finding of the present study is also beneficial for teachers to integrate suitable and useful methods for teaching of vocabulary in their teaching courses. This way, teachers themselves would be educated of different vocabulary teaching techniques and will develop positive attitudes toward the mixture of the best techniques into their conventional teaching programs. Moreover, when the learner is conscious about affixes he or she is prepared well in learning new words, which is exactly what will happen in an independent learning processes. Even though learners don't know the vocabulary they can separate it and comprehend it. Using this way, they can do less work and the performance will be better. The affix development benefits the vocabulary learning since the vocabulary is one of the main parts on second language learning in order to learn vocabulary well. Besides, using affixation strategies has another advantage, which helps learners expand their knowledge of meaning. It is thus recommended that more affixes exercised can be applied in a lesson to enhance students' vocabulary learning. Because of this, EFL textbook designers, and materials developers should choose pictures; that is, pictures should match the text to assist students in learning.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

Other kinds of learning strategies could be investigated to find out if there is a best strategy suited for use in teaching learning of the affixes and as a result vocabulary learning. This research was carried out among younger EFL learners; the same experiment could be implemented among other age groups to see whether age is a factor in comparing the impact of applying images in teaching affixes. Only female students participated in this research; it would be interesting to see whether gender is also a factor in comparing the impact of using images on learning affixes.

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A Lacanian Reading of the Poem of "On Chilliness Inside" by Ahmad Shamloo

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Abstract—Lacan links psychoanalysis and linguistic to explain the unconscious manner, using the theories of Freud and Ferdinand de Saussure. According to Lacan's view .the unconscious manner, is the basic of the existence and it forms from childhood. The subject" or the Child, enters to "The symbolic order", after crossing "The imaginary order". In "The symbolic order", "The subject" experiences the "Lack" of union of the mother. "The subject" tries to return to childhood and the first companion form, but in "The symbolic order" it is not possible, as the establishment of the language and its domination on the child dictates such a behavior. There for "the subject" by appealing to "The object petite" like "Love" and "beloved" tries to approach to "the imaginary order". This article first inspects Lacan's verbal unconscious theory about "The subject", then how this theory will become the concept of the poem of Ahmad Shamloo," On Chilliness Inside".

Index Terms—Lacan, Ahmad Shamloo, the imaginary order, the symbolic order, beloved

I. Introduction

Ahmad Shamloo (*December 12, 1925-July 24, 2000*) is an Iranian poet, author, journalist, researcher, translator and lexicographer. His fame is due to his creativity in Persian contemporary poetry especially a kind of free verse known in Persian as Sepid Persian Poetry (literary meaning white) or Shamlooian Poetry. Shamloo published sixteen volumes of poetry all of which have been translated into several languages. Love, life and humanism are among dominant characteristics of his poetry. Shamloo's love poems are one of the most beautiful works in modern Persian literature which are mostly written in a flash of inspiration. To be more precise, there is almost no time span between thinking and reciting poetry. Moreover, his poems, in contrast to his contemporary poets such as Mehdi Akhvan-Sales, were not revised, edited or changed for publication. He believed that the first draft of a poem should be the final draft and it is because of the same reason that he preferred prose to verse since thinking about rhythm and rhyme imposes limitation on the language of poetic thought. Shamloo used to develop an idea in his conscious, semi-conscious and unconscious mind which erupted as a volcano while he was reciting poetry. So his poetry is a good example that can be analyzed for slips of tongue.

This article focuses on latent ideas in underlying layers of "On Chilliness Inside". The poem has psychological themes and it suits Lacanian analysis.

II. Methodology and Approach

This research is based on psychology approach to Lacan's Theory and helps dipper understanding of text glob by qualitative content approach using Lacan's Ttheory. In other words, in this paper, A framework is made on Lacanian psychoanalysis which are follow in signs language and visual narrative poem "On Chilliness Inside ". Obviously, in this analytical approach, not all details but most important of Lacanian psychoanalysis have been included.

The theoretical principle of Lacanian psychological Development of a Subject

Jacque Lacan *(1981-1901)* is one of the French contemporary psychoanalysts and philosophers who has been very influential in developing Freud's psychoanalytic theories. Lacan is famous for applying Saussarian linguistics to psychoanalysis especially to unconscious. One of the ramifications of such a mix is that "unconscious has a lingual structure" (*Ward, 2004, p.199*). What distinguishes Lacan from post-Freudian psychoanalysts is his particular emphasis on language. The major ground for cognitive understanding of human being and its world is the growth of a child in relationship with his mother, father and others. The real order, the symbolic order and the imaginary order constitute the tripartite scheme at the center of Lacan's thought. According to Lacan, the real order happens before language acquisition while the symbolic order is the time when human being learns language. Lastly, the imaginary order begins with the symbolic order and they continue side by side for the rest of life.

The Real order

The real order lacks clarity in Lacan's works. Similarly, what other researchers said about it is puzzling and complicated; it just touches some parts of the concept. Such bafflement is the result of Lacan's complicated philosophical language rather than his cognitive approach. However, as Klages states "an infant who only has attainable needs and makes no distinction between itself and what satisfies its needs, according to Lacan, is in real order. The real order is a mental center which has primary unity. This is why there is no absence, lack or loss in the real order" *(Klayges, 2009, p.115-116)*. In this stage, when an infant does not feel any absence or loss the infant has not discovered itself yet; the infant only touches its body and its mother's breast. It is through touch that the infant feels disintegrated and fragmented body which are all considered as another. In other words, the infant is unable to recognize itself.

The imaginary order

The imaginary order as the name suggests is the time of illusion, fascination and seduction. It is the time when an infant identifies itself with its mother. The closeness of an infant to its mother during pre-lingual stage creates the illusion that the infant body and its mother are the same. The result of such a stage is unity, happiness and satisfaction *(Payandeh, 2009, p.30)*. "**The mirror stage**" which happens throughout the imaginary order is a stage for self-realization of an infant. An infant sees itself in the mirror and goes beyond the real since it is using its vision. The vision, in contrast to touch, is holistic. Therefore, against the real when the mirror stage is not undergone, it comes to its self-realization after eighteen months; but still it can distinguish between itself and the other especially the mother. In other words, according to Freud, an infant cannot make a distinction between a subject and an object or between itself and the reality. This is what Lacan calls the imaginary order. In the pre-Oedipal stage, the infant has not accepted the father's presence, just lives with its mother and cannot recognize a clear distinction between itself and its mother so it only sees itself and its mother; but when it grows older and more recognizes the outside world it sees the father intervention in this relationship.

The symbolic order

The infant understands that its mother, who was part of it, has been disintegrated for the sake of father and there is a gap between the former and the latter. As Lacan states father (or the-name-of-father) is the founder of the primary privations: the privation of incest. The infant has to suppress its pleasure of first object of desire, mother, and it leads to unconscious. This is the oedipal stage which Lacan calls it the symbolic order. The oedipal stage begins during the time of language development in an infant. To be more precise, when desires are suppressed to be channeled into unconscious, it is the time of language development in an infant. Language is the annihilation of the subject and object relationship or human being and the outside world. As a result, the infant loses its unity with mother and mirror. The infant knows that the one whom it sees in the mirror is not the infant itself but it looks like the infant. It is in this stage that the symbol making process and the concept of other especially mother as the other (lack or absence of mother) is created and at the same time, the infant confronts the return of the desire for mother. The infant who used to see mother as part of itself and mother "mirror" itself, it is now entered the unknown realm of language where the bond between signifier and signified is arbitrary.

The infant post-structural anxiety is due to its vulnerable identity in "mirror" of mother which is now lost in mirror of language and it undergoes changes. It is because the infant must have led all its libidinal drives and desires to unconscious in pre-lingual stage and sees itself in relationship with others. In other words, the signified of its identity is changed in connection with those of others. One of such first changes is because of father, the fear of castration, which leaves a gap between the lawless and fragmented imaginary world of desire of mother and infant several identities *(see Lacan, 1988, p.166)*.

Little Other[1] and the Other[2]

The infant has a fragmented or divided perception of itself. Different parts of its body are separated. Such fragmentation or disintegration ends when the infant enters a "mirror stage" *(Payandeh, 2009, p.30)*. It is because at this stage (sixth to eighteenth month) the infant gets used to others defragmented image of body and its own image in the mirror (which is the image of the other) and so it recognizes that its body is different from its mother's. Such understanding breaks the dyadic mother/child relation and the child desires to return to mother again (Easthope, *2005, p. 82, 86,128)*.

The infant tries to identify its desire with that of mother since it thinks that it can take the mother's object position but after a while it finds out mother desire is towards father (the other Other) and as a result it recognizes the object of father and his part in mother's satisfaction *(Movallai, 2006, p. 100)*. This is the stage when Freud calls it oedipal while Lacan names it "the Name-of-the Father".

The infant confrontation with Name-of-the Father (the other Other or the first other) and the fear of castration make the infant ignore the mother and enters the symbolic order world. "Indeed, the psychological significance of father for the infant who has entered the symbolic order is the presence of an authoritative person who plays the role of a subject in society. Now the infant should learn that there is a wider realm than that of the family whose first and most fundamental rule is privation of incest. The patriarchal structure of culture is the reason behind the socialization of the

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[1] Object petit a
[2] Object petit A

infant due to father's (not mother's) privations *(Payandeh, 2009, p. 32)* and as a result, "the Other" is the society where through its privations the infant enters the symbolic order *(see.Kadivar, 2002, p.63).*

"Over Chilliness Inside", a Lacanian Reading
"Over Chilliness Inside"
"All
trembling of my hand and heart
was to
love
become
a refuge
not a flying
but an escape.
Oh love, oh love
your blue face is unclear.
□
And coolness of a balm
to a flame of a wound
not a naked flame
over chilliness inside.
Oh love, oh love
your rosy face is unclear.
□
The dark dust of relief
on the presence of weakness
and peace of escape
on fleeting presence,
darkness
on blue peace
and greenness of a small leaf
on the Judas tree
Oh love, oh love
your familiar color
is unclear."
(Shamloo,, Abraham in Fire, 1998, p.42)

Three interpretations:
In the first part of the poem, what worries the poet is that love to be his refuge and escape; while what he is willing is flying. He is seeking a redeeming love to free him from captivity. He likes flying but he is afraid that such a love would not be redeeming.

In the second part, the poet likes that the love to be a naked flame over chilliness inside not a balm to his wound but all his fears and worries that it would be so; he likes it to be a relief not a cure. In the final part, the poet does not use the conjunctive "and"; in other words, he comes to a conclusion that despite all this attempt he gained nothing: "the black relief on worthless existence and corner to flee the existence and fertile presence" *(Taslimi, 2009, p.113)*. Shamloo is seeking a redeeming love in these three parts. However, the question is whether such a love which the poet is willing is possible?

The relationship between the lover and beloved in different epochs of lyrical poetry had been static and repeated. The image of beloved in lyrical poetry is a general image to the extent that it is difficult to distinguish whether it is male or female. The beloved is a sacred and unattainable creature who is brutal, tyrannical and blood-thirsty and suffers sadism. On the other hand, the lover is masochistic who enjoys the brutality of his beloved *(Shaf'ie, 2001, p.23).*

"The image of thy sword is the story of a thirsty and water / had you owned your slave kill him as thou wish."
(Hafiz, 2001, p.403)

The love in Sufism is a hardship itself and its consequence is the ignorance of the lover of the outside world. As Ahmad Ghazali states, "love of whatever kind is sacred as such if the beloved is lover's captive she is still superior to the lover" (*Dehghanipoor, 1998, p.123*). Therefore, love ends in captivity and the lover is in need, admires coyly beloved, becomes her slave and tolerates all her tyranny[3]:

"S'addi from the lock of the beautiful / thou are alive, thou cannot escape."
(S'addi, 1992,p.144)
"Like a deer I escaped the lion to desert / that lion took me to mountain while hunting."
(Molavi, 1999, p.58)

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[3] Disdain and poverty are among religious terminology which is equivalent of coy in literature.

"My trap is her hair, her mole is the seed, and I / In search of those seeds have been trapped by my friend."
(Hafiz, 2001, p.81)
So the love is not the reason for freedom, escape and flying. However, some poets used such a theme like S'addi:
"Since the day I am enslaved I am freed / I am the king who is your captive."
(S'addi, 1992, p.418)
Or Hafiz who borrowed such theme from S'addi:
"Hafiz will embrace your oppression / was freed since enslaved in this fashion."
(Hafiz, 2001, p.217)
In Rumi's poetry such themes can be seen as well:
"Look at me who saw thousands freedom / since my soul and body are love's captive and slave."
(Molavi, 1999, p.419)
Such freedom and liberty through captivity is impossible and is paradoxical, indeed. Since the necessity of love is captivity or at least it is so in earthly love. Shamloo in this poem, which deals with an earthly love, how claims freedom. Such claims is valid as far as the poet to be beloved himself. In classical Persian poetry, the beloved of each era is subordinate to the values of beloveds of previous poets; such subordination is not just seen in aesthetic of its poetry but includes individual characteristics such as disloyalty, coyness, vanity and irascibility. Coyness is one of the common characteristics of the beloved and obedience is that of the lover.

"The lover and beloved differ as white and red / Need your hunger, when beloved wants to be fed."
(Hafiz, 2001, p.221)
"The unity of you and me are belated / since I am slaved to you and you are the owner of coy."
(S'addi, 1992, p.602)
It should be born in mind that the lovers are in state of contraction. Among Persian poets it is only Rumi who is in state of coy; Rumi considers himself as God's beloved since he is in expansion state while lovers are in contraction state. There are several poems which bear testimony to Rumi's state of expansion:
"Freed of poverty and need / dancing toward coyness."
(Molavi, 1999, p.1670)
There is relationship between Shamloo's unconscious and free association this poem; unconsciously, Shamloo has stated that he mostly likes to be a beloved. His love is one-sided love and for his benefit. In Shamloo's unconscious, there is motherly desire to be himself a beloved and the other to be a lover.

Since his early days and his first collections of poetry, Shamloo was in search of an ideal beloved; it is to such extent that not his youngish love (Galia's love), not his marriage with Ashraf Islamieh, a young teacher who born him four children named Siavash, Sirous, Saman and Saghi, not his second marriage with Tousi Haeri lasted for four years; not the short and endless loves that he made during his life as the sources of inspiration for some his poems were ideal. "These are women who bear no motherly affection and regardless of their maternal passion and affection they wanted him for himself and their own satisfaction" *(Farokhzad, 2004, p.47).* Even deep and immense love of Aida which brought peace to troubled life of Shamloo could not be replaced by the love of his mother:

"Tired, tired, I am coming from the by-ways of doubt
like a mirror I am full of you
nothing can relieve me
not the stalk of your arms,
not the springs of your body
it needs nothing, it cannot relieve me
...let me be familiar with you my stranger
lets be oneself."
(Shamloo, I Say Hi to You. Part One, 1998, p.216, 217)
"With your eyes and lips, I have grown fond
I have grown fond of your body
something came down in me
something bloomed in me
I fall asleep in my childhood cradle
and the smile of that time
regained
...your hands like a spring flows to me
and I am new I am assured
I hugged the assurance as a doll
and I was slept in the cradle of my early days
in your lap which was the cradle of my dreams
and the smile of those days returned to my lips
with your body   you told a lullaby for my body
your eyes were with me

and I closed my eyes
since your hands were trusty. "
(Shamloo, Resources, Part One, 1998, p.221,222)

"And among all the women who opened new doors to him, he never felt the warmth of his mother's womb; not the Kokab, his mother, who gave birth to him in the snowy day of 12 December, 1925 in No. 134, Safialshah St., neither his eternal and ideal mother who lived in the deep layers of his mind and was the source of all kindness and affection…or the woman of his self-image, Roxana, the hidden female half of the poet is in reality the symbol of his archetypal eternal woman-mother" *(Farokhzad: 2004, p.55)* could be replaced by the warm lap of his mother.

There is a motherly desire in Shamloo's unconscious that he is beloved and the other is lover. The love is a maternal love; "mother is usually closer to the child and the child is vulnerable; the child is free and destructive and love of mother is only love that can make human free. He is in search of a beloved who is like mother. The love that according to Lee's love styles[4] is a kind of "Agape"; it's a combination of "Eros" and "Storge". The maternal love is a kind of flip and a sort of force to look after the child; a beloved like a mother who is an unconditional and perfect love from all aspects.

In his book, The Art of Loving, Erich Fromm, believes that the fatherly love is a conditional love. The children can get it according to some necessities. The father love the son who meets more of his expectations. On the other hand, there is a motherly love who is shared among all her children and this love is because it is toward her children (*quoted in Eshraghi, 2007, p.48*).

"Both Freud and Lacan regard being in love as an expression of narcissism, not love for the other but self-love, self-deception." *(Easthope, 1382, p.94).* Since in my ideal, whatever is done by my beloved and whatever she likes is desirable. For Lacan, to love is the desire to be loved (Lacan, 1977*, p.*253). Here love is one-sided for the interest of subject/poet and in his unconscious it is maternal that "Lacan calls it "the other little object" (versus "Other" which is the symbolic order)" (Shiri, 2011*, p.* 89). So, Shamloo decides to be a beloved and the other his lover. The beloved-mother is usually the desire which its object is mother. Shamloo's image of the beloved is maternal, that is, he passes "the imaginary order" and pre-oedipal stages and his unity with mother is disintegrated. However, "according to Lacan such independence does not happen in reality. The nature of being, that is, achieving a wholeness free from others, especially from mother. Mother and child are not separated identities in "the imaginary order". Penetration of the child's identity in mothers gives the child a sense of safety which we all seek it, knowingly or unknowingly, in later stages in our life but we do not find it.

The child desire to overcome the departedness of "self/other" and the lost unity with mother will remain in the unconscious and later it may emerge in strange forms. The subject represses the desire to return to childhood of "the imaginary order"; but he cannot ignore such dark side of himself. Despite the dominance of "the symbolic order", "the imaginary order" still calls us to itself like a mirage" (Payandeh, 2009*, p.* 35).

But it is the fear of passing "the imaginary order" to "the symbolic order", that is, transformation from pre-oedipal to oedipal. He is afraid of losing love or his love and beloved-mother to be captured by the other. Now, *Shamloo* "represses" his desire for mother, the desire to incest, due to fear of "castration" and it ends in his unconscious; then such transcendental desire is sublimed and it goes to somewhere else whose characteristics is to be beloved. "Refuge" and "escape" which is associated with mother's lap and also, "peace", "relief" and "balm" are all among the characteristics of a mother. Willing mother's abundant presence in fearless moments and the worries of "the symbolic order" is the oedipal concern of the poet.

The **blue** colour which is among the cold colour groups refers to silence and permanent peace; blue is the symbol of inspiration, sacrifice, peace and loyalty. Such colour can be used in treating anxiety and heart palpitation (see Williams, 1996). Also, blue is the symbol of water, peaceful nature of human and female nature (*see K. Lusher, 1993*).Which is relevant to pre-oedipal and pre-lingual stage. It represents the unity of mother and child before entering "the symbolic order". Among the geometric shapes, the blue colour is compared with a circle which is like sky. Circle is like an oval without any corner which never distracts the viewer (*Khajeh pour, 2010, p.24*).Circle used to refer to old times is the reminiscent of those memorable old days of peace (the imaginary order and pre-oedipal in this case) which is lost. The red is the colour of passion; the colour of heart and flames of fire which symbolises lust, danger, warmth, sincerity,

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[4] According to Lee's love styles theory, there are different views of love which are influenced by emotions, family experiences and behaviors. The six love styles are divided into groups of primary and secondary loves:
a) The primary love styles
1. Eros: it is a severe emotional experience which is like the erotic love and one of its significant characteristics is its immediate attraction for loving (see Lee: 1988).
2: Loudos: is one of the kinds of love play. Loudos lovers are skilled players and they have several love partners (ibid).3: Storg: it is a kind of love which decreases stress and psychological pressure and it necessitates deep love and responsibility. This kind of love is a life-long friendship which is trust-worthy and does not emphasise love (see Fricker& Hons: 2006).
b) The secondary love styles:
1. Pragma: it is combination of "Storg" and "Loudos". This kind of love gives much value to the love partner. The pragmatic love has a practical approach is looking for a compatible love. (ibid)
2. Mania: this kind of love is combination of "Eros" and "Storg". A combination of possessiveness and worriment (see Hendrick & Hendrick,1987).
3. Agape: the last kind of love styles, a combination of "Eros" and "Storg". This kind of love is magnanimous and self-sacrificing; the Agapic lovers which to take care of their lovers without any expectations. Agape requires sacrifice, honesty and support. (see Lee: 1973 & 1977).

generosity, ambition, devotedness, optimism, cheerfulness and energy. It is more piercing colour than any other colours *(Chi Gi Va, 1998).* Red colour stimulates the "fire inside" which is a necessary warmth for life survival. It attracts many and it is the first colour the infant recognises.

When the love wants to show its red face it is more oedipal in this poem. In the first and second parts, Shamloo is looking for a love which "blue" or "red". But nobody shows its face to him and the poet is in the mid of pre-oedipal and oedipal stage since he wants to verify either the peaceful or erotic love but still none of them appear. Furthermore, at the end of the third part, "darkness" which is blackest of all colours and represents the absolute boundary where beyond it the life ends. So it connotes absurdity and futility *(see Lusher, 1993)* and later the "peaceful blue is replaced by it" and the redness of Judas tree is substituted with "the fleeting greenness of small leaf" and among all these colours the familiar colour of love is lost" *(Taslimi,2009, p.113).*

Addressing the love at the end of all three parts of the poem is an oedipal request which shows the search of subject/poet in finding "other little object" (the supporting mother). One of the most fundamental mechanisms of human psyche especially in dreams is "displacement". Humans, unconsciously, transform an emotion or symbolic meaning to another object (desire) in order to follow the same goal in another way *(Payandeh, 2009, p. 44)*. The "the little other" is replaced by love while from the outset the poet knows that such separation is unavoidable since the love does not appear and its familiar colour is unclear.

III. CONCLUSION

"Subject of the enunciation" /poet is in unity with mother; then he is trapped in "the symbolic order" which is the time of dominance of language and separation from "the imaginary order". Now it is the time when he confronts a "lack". Later, the subject/poet suffers and he goes to the little other (love in this case).The subject/ poet who wants to be beloved so love to be liberating for him. What he seeks in love is affection and passion of mother; it is kind of love which supports him fully without any expectations. A kind of "Agape" which is one-sided and caring; it is combination of "Eros" and "Storg" and it is only through this kind of love that freedom and flying is possible for the subject/poet. The freedom which is remembrance of his unity and harmony with mother in "the imaginary order".

"Subject of the enunciation" or the poet in the form of love is looking for "the little other"/mother to answer his will as in "the imaginary order" and take him to the his childhood: pre-lingual and pre-oedipal stage when he has not learnt language and he was in close relationship with his mother, to the enduring love (the imaginary order), to those old days which was the time of happiness and peace. However, he regrets those days since gaining that lost time seems impossible. Subject/poet uses "displacement" mechanism to overcome separation while such departedness is not replaceable and cannot result in unity. Finally, "darkness" shadows "the blue peace" and "greenness of small leaf" dominates "Judas tree". A transitory relief is likely to happen to the subject but that familiar colour of "the imaginary order order" and unity is impossible. Lacan believes that subject/poet by sticking to this "little other" approaches "the real order" but such satisfaction is just a fleeting happiness and the primary unity is impossible.

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Study of Writing Problem in College General English Course—Reflection on the Reform of College English Course

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Abstract—**Since the end of 2014, many well-known universities in China have launched an another English course reform under the guidance of College English Teaching promulgated by the Department of Education. They reform general English course into Special English course in order to improve students' English writing capacity. We can see that the improvement and development of students' English writing skills and ability have become the core content in this English course reform. This study examines the problem of non-English major students' English writing in General English course based on the systemic functional linguistics and gives some suggestions. A variety of factors that influence English writing are found, such as the attitude toward English writing, the learning approach and strategy, the number of vocabulary, the integrity of sentence, the coherence of discourse and the transfer of native language. These factors interact to influence the development of students' English writing ability. Some findings are different from the researches of predecessors. In addition, the survey about English writing sources and self-evaluation are helpful to analyze the problems. This study highlights the influence of discourse and suggests to pay more attention to cultivate students' discourse awareness.**

Index Terms—**Non-English major, English writing, systemic functional linguistics**

I. INTRODUCTION

As the result of under the guidance of *College English Curriculum Requirements* (Ministry of Education, 2007) English writing is considered to be the weak link in the process of English teaching due to its high requirements for students' comprehensive ability. Some scholars do researches about English Writing Textbooks Present Situations in Chinese Universities (Cai, 2005). Some scholars do researches about the situation of Chinese college English writing teaching (Cai&Fang, 2006). This study tends to analyze the main problems that exist in the non-English major students' English writing. Halliday (2008) believes that systemic functional linguistics in itself is a kind of language analysis tool and Zhang (2005) had ever introduce the guidance of systemic functional linguistics to foreign language teaching. Thus, systemic functional linguistics theory is the frontier of the current college English writing teaching research.

In this article, we report a study that examines Chinese non-English major students' English writing problems in order to discover what factors facilitate or hinder the development of students' writing ability. First, we review the literature which are some definitions relevant to the systemic functional linguistic. Second, we show the methods, instruments and data used in this study. After that, we report the main findings, which reveal the existing problems of non-English major students in China. Finally, we briefly discuss some implications for English writing teaching in China.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

System-functional linguistics pays attention to the function of language, which is widely used in the social linguistics and language teaching. In The Third International Symposium on modern applied literature in July 1998, Mr.Cen (1994) from Hong Kong University introduces the development trend of Australian writing theory. Australian writing teaching has experienced three landmark changes: from put the work as the center, then to put the process as the center and finally centered the systemic functional linguistics on behalf of the new trend of the development of writing theory.

This study not only emphasizes the function of language but also pays more attention to realize the social function of language. In the foreign language teaching in 20th century, traditional grammar, formal grammar and functional grammar have a great influence on language teaching. Traditional grammar focuses on the role and meaning of individual words. Formal grammar focuses on the structural description of isolated sentences, which is regarded as a set of syntactic rules. Functional grammar focuses on the relationship between syntactic structure and the use of language and social and cultural context. Among them, Hallidy's System-Functional Linguistics mainly studies the role of

language in social communication, it can explain the nature of language, function and development, and clarify the universality and particularity of different languages. Halliday and Hasan (2001) in *Cohesion in English*, believes that sentence is not grammatical unit and it is the natural language in a certain context expression without the constraints of sentences and grammatical. Hu (1994)'s definition of discourse is summed up as follows: any natural language which is not completely constrained by the syntax of the sentence in a certain context. The important content of the text is generally accepted by the coherent proposed by Hallidy and Hasen and the coherence proposed by Wilson. Halliday believes that language has three functions: the ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function, in which textual function is the highest level of language acquisition. Therefore, discourse analysis has important practical significance in English writing.

System-functional linguistics pays attention to social function of language. Therefore, college students need to find their motivation of learning English writing so as to achieve the social function of writing. Learning motivation plays an important role in the process of foreign language learning and teaching. Some researches show that the influence of learning motivation towards students' learning performance from 16%-20% studied by Herbert Walbery raise to 38% studied by Leslie Fyans and Martin Maehr. In addition, Robert Gardner, Richard Lalonde and R.Pierson have a deeper study about learners' motivation of learning foreign language, and they find that there is a close causal relationship between learner's foreign language learning performance and learning motivation. Gardner points out that learners' foreign language learning motivation can be divided into three parts: attitude of learning language, aspect of learning language and effort of learning language. All these factors interact to facilitate learners' knowledge acquisition. Facing the task they are interested, the foreign language learners would hold a positive learning attitude and enhance the learning motivation and thus obtained good learning performance. On the contrary, the bad learning attitude would bring a disappointing learning performance. This study examines college students' attitude toward English writing, which could have a contribution to the development and improvement of motivation theory.

Recently, the influence of functional linguistics on language teaching has gained an increasing recognition. Zhang(2006) based on the book *Functional Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching* and after summarized the researches by the premise of Halliday and his followers, he discussed the main aspect of the systemic functional linguistics that can be applied in foreign language teaching. He puts forward the systemic functional linguistics can be used to guide teaching and provide a teaching mode for writing. He thinks that language teaching puts discourse as the center and uses language to implement various function in the specific context of social and cultural context with the purpose of cultivating learners' language communicative ability. To a certain extent, language teaching is actually a discourse teaching. In the discourse teaching, we can use the bottom-up teaching method: starting from the text to explore the functional significance of lexical grammar and the relationship between context and cultural context. We can also use top-down approach: starting from the context of culture and context of situation, study the restrictions of context culture and context situation of generic structure and register features. Liao (2011) had a statistically analyze to a total of 27 papers about systemic functional linguistic in foreign language teaching (listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar teaching) that published on three domestic core journal of foreign languages. The results can be summarized as five "diversification": research object diversification, research content diversification, theoretical research diversification, research methods diversification and new teaching methods diversification. But there are some deficiencies in the research, that is the research content is unbalanced, the actual operational research needs to be strengthened, and part of the papers are obscure and difficult to understand.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Overview

This study adopts a mixed-methods, which are the quantitative methods and qualitative methods. The quantitative method allows the researcher verifies the objective question through analyzing the relationship between the different variables (Zhou, 2012). By collecting data through questionnaires, this study aims to provide a rich understanding of the situation of non English major college students' writing. In addition, it adopts the qualitative method which is one way of study from nature. By interviewing some non-English major students, the authors could have a deeper understanding to the students' psychology. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods can allow the researchers to acquire a more complete picture of human cognition, behavior and experience (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Specially it intends to address the following two research questions:

(1) What factors affect non-English major students' English writing ability?

(2) How to analyze the relationships among these factors to enhance the non-English major students' English writing ability?

B. Research Context

With the rapid development of China's economy and the trend of economic globalization, the connection among different countries becomes closer. Therefore, people need one way to communicate with each other and the importance of English writing shows gradually. What's more, English is vastly used by academics who speak different native language (Kakh&Bitchener,2016). People apply English writing when attending the international conference, surfing the foreign internet, and communicating by e-mail and so on. In order to meet the need of society, it is necessary for

college students to equip with the English writing ability. However, some problems exist in the process of English writing especially for non-English major students. This present the necessary of analyzing what factors effect non-English major student's English writing ability and how to enhance their writing ability.

C. Participants and Data Collection

TABLE 1.
PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

	n	Percentage
Major type:		
Liberal arts	84	54.2
Science	71	45.8
Gender:		
Male	77	49.7
Female	78	50.3
Age:		
18-20	79	50.9
21-25	74	47.9
26-30	2	1.2

The participants of this study were non-English major students from different departments of Jilin University. First, 160 questionnaires were sent to non-English major students in the library of Jilin University to assess their situation about English writing. The sampling procedure took into account variations in terms of major, gender and age. Therefore, this study classifies major roughly into two types: liberal arts and science. When distributing the questionnaire, effort was made to obtain a roughly equal proportion of questionnaires from each type of majors(see Table 1).

One hundred and fifty-five valid questionnaires were returned, the return rate being 97%. Of these, 84 were from liberal arts students (54.2%) and 71 were from science students (45.8%). Male students (n=77; 49.7%) roughly equal to female students (n=78; 50.3%), reflect gender balance in Jilin University. In terms of age, about half of the respondents were between18-20(n=79; 50.9%) and another half between21-25(n=74; 47.9%). Only a handful number of students over 25(n=2; 1.2%).

TABLE 2.
BACKGROUND OF INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS.

Student Code	Gender	Major	Age
S1	Male	Science	19
S2	Male	Science	22
S3	Female	Science	21
S4	Female	Liberal arts	20
S5	Female	Liberal arts	21

After a preliminary analysis of the questionnaire data, five students (named S1 to S5 in this study) were invited to take part in semi-structured interviews using maximum variation sampling, in which the researchers select a small number of units or cases that maximize the diversity relevant to the research question. An equal number of non-English major students were chosen from different majors in order to gain a better understanding of students' situation of English writing. Most of them have been studying English writing for at least one year, so they had rich experience about English writing. In terms of gender, two of students were male and three were female. Table 2 presents the background information of the interview participants.

D. Instruments

The questionnaire of Non English Major Students' Problem of English Writing (see Appendix 1) was developed to assess the real situation about English writing. It drew upon one related questionnaire (ChenL,et al.,2011) in formulating the items. The questionnaires consisted of 15 items that measured students' attitude, approach, the way of writing sources, the existing problems and self-evaluation. The items were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). In addition, there are one semi-questionnaire about the way of getting writing sources and one open questionnaire about the students' self-evaluation about their English writing in order to make the survey more objective. The questionnaire was written and administered in Chinese, and later translated into English.

In addition to the questionnaire survey, five students took part in semi-structured interviews. Each interview lasted at least half an hour and focused on the student's writing situation about English writing and factors affecting his or her English writing. Some salient questions and problems that identified through the analysis of questionnaire data were added to the interview questions to seek the further clarification. The interviews were all asked in Chinese, audio recorded, transcribe in Chinese and then translate into English (for the main interview questions, see Appendix 2).

E. Data Analysis

The quantitative data from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS version 16.0. All the factors that may lead to the problems of non-English major students' English writing can be divided into five subscales. The first scale

considers the problems that the students may be met in the process of English writing, including words, phrase, sentence, discourse and transfer of Chinese. The second scale assesses students' learning method, whether it is self-directed learning or teacher-guided learning. The third scale measures students' attitude towards English writing, whether it is positive or negative. The fourth scale assesses some ways they acquire writing sources, including teacher recommended, sources from internet, books bought in the bookstore and others. The fifth subscale measures the self-evaluation of students about their English writing.

Descriptive statistics of all the subscales and items were obtained to examine what problems they would meet in the process of English writing and how to solve them. Scores of these items reflect the situation of non- major English students' English writing. The scores higher than 3.0 pointed to an active attitude toward English writing while scores lower than 3.0 pointed to inactive attitude toward English writing. Table 3 presents the mean of each subscale.

The qualitative data from the interviews were analyzed using thematic analysis, which is a commonly used method in social sciences for analyzing qualitative data that involves identifying, coding, analyzing and reporting themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). When dealing with the received questionnaires and interviews, we first code the data into two major categories which were the problems about English writing and the solutions. We then analyze the sub-categories of English writing problems from different aspects. Finally the quantitative and qualitative data were integrated to provide a more complete understanding of non- major English situation about English writing.

TABLE 3.
ITEMS AND MEANS OF THE SUBSCALES

Subscale	Items	Mean
The existing problems of English writing	7,8,9,10,11,12,13	3.8
Approaches of English writing	3,4,5,5,6,	3.3
Attitudes towards English writing	1,2	3.2
The way of acquire English writing sources	14	3.4
The self-evaluation of students themselves	15	2.0

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

First of all, we have an overall analysis about the non-major English students' situation about English writing. And then we analyze from five parts. We first analyze the main factors that influence the students' writing ability based on the analysis of questionnaire and interview data. Second, we offer our interpretation of the multi-dimentional structure of the students' writing methods by drawing upon selected interview data. Next, we discuss the students' attitudes towards English writing, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Then, we show the results about where students acquire writing sources and analyze them. Finally, we have a conclusion about students' self-evaluation about their English writing and provide some implications. We analyze 155 questionnaires through using SPSS 16.0. It reflects all the aspects of students' English writing (see Table 4).

TABLE 4.
AN OVERALL DESCRIPTION ABOUT THE PRESENT SITUATION OF ENGLISH WRITING

Aspects	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Difficulties &Problems	155	1	5	3.8	0.967
Approach & Strategies	155	1	5	3.3	1.021
Attitude	155	1	5	3.2	1.139
Using of sources	155	1	5	3.4	1.072
Self- evaluation	155	1	3	2.0	0.310

In this questionnaire, we use five-point Likert scale to show the results intuitively. 1 represents strongly disagree and 5 represents strongly agree. Therefore, the higher score represents that students identify the items of questionnaire. It is also on behalf that the students' English writing situation more ideal, make good use of writing sources and writing methods and strategies more effectively. Through analyzing the data, we conclude the results are different from the previous studies. In terms of difficulties and problems, the mean is 3.8, which shows that students could realize the common difficulties and problems in English writing, however, it doesn't represent that they can deal with them well. The mean of writing methods and strategies is 3.3, which is also a little higher than 3. So students' cognition about writing methods and strategies is vague. The mean of students' attitudes towards English writing is 3.2, which is a little higher than 3. It shows that students' cognition about English writing is neither positive nor negative but more tend to positive. Upon the aspect of writing sources, the mean is 3.4, which shows that students could make use of all kinds of sources to exercise English writing. In the aspect of self-evaluation, the mean is lower than 3 and almost all the students believe that they need to improve their English writing ability. It shows that college students realize the importance of English writing in social life.

All in all, the situation of non-English major students' English writing needs to improve. Although most of the students realize some problems exist in their writing process, they do not know how to solve them, such as they can not connected English writing to other English study, do not know how to form consciousness of discourse and exist sever problem on expression. Therefore, they need system guidance of English writing. Fortunately, they have already mastered how to make use of modern information technology to learn, but the ability of self-directed learning is weak.

A. Survey about Difficulties and Problems of English Writing

Through the results of questionnaire, we can see that we divided the difficulties into some parts, such as vocabulary, sentence, discourse, writing format and the influence from their native language.

Almost all the students (94.8%) agree that rich vocabulary is the basic element to have an English writing. 80.3% students had ever recite good words or template to writing English. And almost all the students (85.1%) believe that English reading is good for English writing. All these data shows that college students have ability to express their ideas by using the appropriate and correct English words. This result comes from the reality that English teachers in China pay more attention to the teaching of words and grammar under the exam-oriented education system. The interview of S2 explains this phenomenon for us:

Since I began to learn English, I recite English words everyday. Although I was not willing to do this, my teacher and parents told us that only memorize words can we learn English well. Every English class from elementary school to high school, teacher would have dictation about new English words. If we write wrong words, we would be punished for writing the same word for many times. It is a disaster for us! However, I got good grades in College English Entrance Exam, which made me feel all the 'disasters' are deserve.

Although students learn vocabulary, grammar and sentence under the pressure of examination and the curriculum reform has weakened the status of this basic knowledge, it can help students lay a solid foundation to learn English writing.

A good English writing calls for students' ability of discourse awareness, which based on the system-functional linguistics. According to the data analysis, most students do not pay attention to the fluency of language and the integrity of discourse. However, there only 37.4% students make an outline before English writing. This shows that most students realize the importance but they lack of the practical action. Now it's high time to cultivate students' discourse awareness under the guidance of system-functional linguistics.

As for the influence of native language, nearly half of students (52.3%) organize content in native language and then translate it. In some extent, the transfer of native language may have some influence on language structure and Chinglish expression. However, anyone who wants to have good second language writing has to master the knowledge of native language. The knowledge of native language could help students clarify the logical relationship and organize a complete discourse. The interviewee S1 shows her idea:

I always organize discourse in Chinese in my brain and then translate it into English. In this way, I may make some mistakes and express idea in Chinese style English. But I do not know how to solve this problem.

Through the corpus of S1, we find that native language has many positive effects on second language acquisition.

B. Survey about English Writing Approach and Strategy

We can see that most of students know about the writing approach and strategies, however, self-directed learning needs to improve. Except the uncertain students (31.3%), half of students (38.1%) would apply English writing to the real life such as leave a message and half (31%) not. Almost all the students (82.6%) realize that lots of exercises could help improve the ability of English writing. Unfortunately, only very few students (1.2%) could make writing plan for themselves and carry out strictly, most of students don't do it. And the following data can explain the reason in some extent. 51% students do writing exercise under the guidance of their teacher. It shows that Chinese students' dependence on their teacher is still serious, which is due to the tradition of China's education. As for the writing strategy, the number of students who can make an outline before writing or reread after the writing accounts for a very small part. It is enough to prove the writing strategies that teacher teach in class have not been applied to the real writing.

Interview data provides further insights into students' English writing approach and strategy. Generally speaking, the interview participants have favorable attitudes toward the approach and the strategy, buy they can not do it by themselves. In Chinese tradition, almost all the students study under the guidance of their teacher before they entered the university so that they can not adapt to the open learning environment in university. They do not know how to make a study plan and carry out. In addition to the tradition consideration, it is difficult for everyone to apply the second language to the real life. S3 says that they need some time to adapt these changes on English writing.

C. Aspect from Attitude

We can see that most of the students have positive attitude toward learning English writing and right consciousness of writing. 32.9% students like English writing and 29.6% students do not like English writing. Most of students do not know their feel about English writing. This finding is supported by interview data. The interview participants generally like English writing and always exercising English writing. However, they did not know what English writing is and did not have system knowledge about it although they have learned English for many years, according to the interview from S2. There are 56.8% students think that exercising English writing is not for exam and 31% students think it is for exam. This phenomenon shows that with the reformation of China's education system, university pays more attention to cultivate students' ability of practical application. However, this result contrasts to the interview data. S1 said in the interview:

I learn English writing just for getting good grades in the examination. To be honest, I prefer speaking English to writing English because speaking English is relatively free. I need not to pay attention to the correct form of vocabulary,

the coherence of discourse and many other factors. I just say what I want to say.

This interview shows us that the negative attitude of students toward English writing may come from the strict acquirement of writing. And the students' attitude towards English writing has a direct impact on students' interest to English writing.

D. Survey about Writing Sources

Most of the students get English writing sources from internet. This phenomenon may be due to the rapid development of information technology and popularization, which is contrast to the predecessors' research. In the thesis *The Situation of College Students' English Writing* (Chen, et al.,2011) about sources, most students using traditional study material such as teaching material and counseling information bought in the bookstore. Now, most students prefer to acquire the recommendation from their teachers.S1 stated that he sometimes can not choose a good sources for himself. There are a variety of sources sale in both bookstore and internet, which make him difficult to choose. Teachers' recommendation helps him a lot because teacher could recommend according to his real situation. And he found that these books are usually good for him to get good grades and pass the final examination. In addition, with the development of internet and the widely use of information technology in teaching, college teachers are more willing to use the internet sources in English writing teaching. Therefore, most students would find the resources that teacher recommended on the internet.

E. Survey about Students' Self-evaluation about English Writing

Most of students (92.3%) believe that they need to improve their English writing abilities. Only 1.9% students are very confident to their writing ability and 5.8% students choose to give up. It shows that most students are willing to do some effort to improve their English writing ability. The reason of this phenomenon may be the increasing demand for English writing in the social work, such as international conference and daily e-mail connection. In addition, Chinese students may be influenced by Chinese traditional culture-modesty. Unless they do very well, they would think that they should continue to work hard.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study have some differences comparing to the predecessors' researches. As for the writing sources, more and more college students are willing to acquire sources from internet due to the convenient and diversity of net sources. In the time that the predecessors do the relative research, the network has not been widely used in the daily work and study. Thus, the results are different. Students' attitude toward English writing is neither positive nor negative. They may be due to the curriculum setting of general English, which divides curriculum into four parts and writing only accounts for a quarter. The data about approach and strategy shows that college students do not have a clear cognition about approach or strategy of English writing, such as make a writing plan, write an outline before writing or reread after the writing. What's more, a lot of teachers still pay more attention to the teaching of words and grammar and ignore the cultivation about students' discourse awareness and comprehensive ability. Certainly, teachers have their own difficulties because they must teach students that could get good grades in examination. About self evaluation, almost all the students think that they need to improve their English writing ability, which shows the importance of English writing in social life. According to the newest data, the number of Chinese papers that published on SCI magazines ranks second in the world by 2010. We can find that English writing not only plays a crucial role in the daily international communication but also is applied in the academic writing. In a word, the status of non-English major students English writing needs to improve.

This study has implications for teachers about how to improve students' English writing ability. First, college students' English writing teaching should pay attention to cultivate the discourse awareness in content. Second, college students' English writing teaching should adapt various ways in form to promote students' initiative and creativity about English writing. Third, we should combine several kinds of teaching methods. The authors think process genre approach is suitable for students' English writing. It not only pays attention to the teaching of basic knowledge but also cultivates students' cognition awareness in writing process. In addition, many important issues such as the interaction between curriculum reform ideas with the teaching reality, the reformation of teaching material should be adequately considered. This paper also offers some reflections to the reform of special English course.

APPENDIX 1. QUESTIONNAIRE

Non-English Major College students' English Writing Status Questionnaire
Respected students:
This questionnaire aims to analyze the status of non-English major students' English status. It concludes the following parts: attitude to English writing, methods, way of acquiring writing sources, the problems existing in English writing and finally self-evaluating of English writing. Please fill in the questionnaire after carefully thinking. All information collected will only be used for academic research and the personal information will be strictly confidential.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

(please circle the appropriate number)

1. I like English writing	1 2 3 4 5
2. I think exercising English writing is not for exam	1 2 3 4 5
3. I would apply English writing to the real life, such as leave a message, writing or keep a diary	1 2 3 4 5
4. I think we need lots of writing exercises to improve writing ability	1 2 3 4 5
5. I could make a writing plan to myself and carry out strictly	1 2 3 4 5
6. My writing exercise usually finish under the guidance of teacher	1 2 3 4 5
7. Rich vocabulary is good for English writing	1 2 3 4 5
8. Reciting template and good words is good for English writing	1 2 3 4 5
9. English writing base on a great number of English reading	1 2 3 4 5
10.I would make an outline before writing	1 2 3 4 5
11. In the process of English writing, I always organize content in native language and then translate it	1 2 3 4 5
12. In the process of English writing, I would pay more attention to the fluency of language and the integrity of discourse	1 2 3 4 5
13.After finish English writing, I usually reread and correct	1 2 3 4 5

14. Where you acquire writing sources? (For example: teacher recommended, wet sources, from the book store, or others)

15. Please evaluate the English writing to yourself (For example: very confident, need to improve, already give up)

APPENDIX 2. INTERVIEW OUTLINE

1. Can you briefly introduce yourself?
2. How do you think of English writing?
3. What problems have you met in the process of English writing?
4. What do you think of your English writing level?
5. Where do your writing sources come from?

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Baroque Trauerspiel in William Shakespeare's *Hamlet*: A Rejection of Aristotelian Tragedy

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Abstract—Tragedy, as a literary genre and a high form of literature, deals with lives of noble people. This type of drama is rooted in Aristotle's formulation which later has resulted into theory of drama known as Freytag's Pyramid. This model of drama which follows Greek version of tragedy has some common features including unity of time, place, and action. Moreover, the elements of death, language, and melancholy have been treated in the conventional ways in the genre f tragedy. However, Walter Benjamin, the German philosopher and critic has opposed to the dominance of tragedy, and developed an independent genre called Trauer Trauerspiel in which ordinary people get to be the center of the play. Unlike tragedy which is based on myth, Trauer Trauerspiel is based on history that depicts the reality of life. Moreover, this genre has the trace of postmodern literature in which language has no meaning; death is treated in non-religious way, and melancholy is no longer considered to be a mental disease. By the same token, it could be claimed that Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, as a dominant form of tragedy, can no longer be considered as tragedy; since it repulses conventions of tragedy and Freytag's Pyramid, it belongs to a new genre, Trauer Trauerspiel in which Greek dramas' features can be dethroned and replaced by postmodern aspects of drama.

Index Terms—Baroque Trauerspiel, language, death, melancholia, Hamlet, Walter Benjamin

I. INTRODUCTION

Trauerspiel is a new literary genre for drama that opposes the traditional version of Greek literature. This genre has been developed by Walter Benjamin (1892-1940), the German eclectic thinker, cultural critic, and philosopher known as one of the Frankfurt School theorists. In his work, *The Origin of German Tragic Drama* (1928), Walter Benjamin refuses the traditional understanding of the Baroque Trauerspiel and tries to restore the value of this literary form as an independent genre of tragedy. By differentiating between Greek Tragedy and Baroque Trauerspiel, Benjamin Walter proposes Trauer Trauerspiel as an independent genre. To Walter Benjamin, the distinction between Tragedy and Trauerspiel is entirely based on linguistic and historical perspectives that are not end-and-perfection-based. Benjamin gives a whole view on writing and in the *introduction of The Origin of German tragic Drama*, he writes: "the writer must stop and restart with every new sentence. And this applies to the contemplative mode of representation... this form can be counted successful only when it forces the reader to pause and reflect" (Benjamin, 1998, p. 29).

Benjamin shows this genre as the combination of different aspects of history and language in construction of heroic or non-heroic action, pathological melancholy or non-pathological melancholy, named or namer, being catastrophic or a messianic redemption, and natural history. In contrast to Baroque Trauerspiel as an independent genre, the Greek Tragedy is a dead genre that belongs to a particular time and place. This genre, Baroque Trauerspiel, is based on characteristics which not only distinguishes it from tragedy but also carries it on postmodernism as a dominant genre.

For Benjamin, understanding of Trauerspiel can only be possible by uncovering its truth content and "acknowledging its distinctiveness" (Gilloch, 2002, p. 73). For Benjamin, distinguishing Trauerspiel from Tragedy is embedded in what has been shaped its dramatic plot structure; history and myth. Since the world based on myth is inherently law-making thus every action should be eschatological. Indeed, the idea of fulfillment of action and time which is the dominated idea in mythical world, as Greek Tragedy tries to demonstrate has an accomplished plot structure, it can be seen in the pyramid drawn by Freytag on Aristotle principle. However, in Trauerspiel history which is entropy-based draws the truth content of the world which is deprived of any potentiality for salvation, progress or redemption and it is quite against the conventional roles in developed by Aristotle. That is why every human deed in Trauerspiel doomed to futility unlike tragedies.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616) is known among critics and playwrights and as the creator of masterpieces, not only in drama but also in poetry. He wrote 36 plays that could be classified in three groups, comedies, histories and tragedies collected in the First Folio of 1623. As a tragic playwright, Shakespeare created 12 tragedy that are the masterpieces of the tragic literature of which *Hamlet* (1605) is the most important and the most recognized tragedy. This play narrates the story and of life of a Danish prince which is dethroned after his uncle assassinates his father and

marries his mother. This prince cautiously identifies himself as mournful prince to reveal the truth of his father's death. Step by step, he moves toward madness and melancholy that occurs consciously and unconsciously.

II. METHODOLOGY

To distinguish Baroque Trauerspiel from Greek Tragedy in the introduction to this work, the "Epistemo-Critical Prologue", Benjamin sketches a unique methodology which is quite self-dependent. This "treatise as a method is" blended with "digression" so that objectively is drained of any "conclusiveness" (Salzani, 2008, p. 20). To show that Trauerspiel can be considered as independent genre, there are some key terms that must be studied. Melancholy and language are two significant features of Trauerspiel genre that can distinguish it from Greek tragedy. It is known that melancholy comes from Freud's remarks in psychology. Freud depicts a pathological disposition of human subjectivity which is strongly visible in the characterization of melancholy. Accordingly, Freud traces mourning and melancholia as two contradictory mental beings originated from the patient's responses to the bereavement and loss. Freud distinguishes between these two concepts: Mourning can be considered as the gloomy reaction to the loss of a loved object which can be taken over by passing of time while melancholia does not leave the subject, and like a ghost, it haunts the person throughout his entire life and drives into madness.

For Freud the division between mourning and melancholy is the result of reaction to loss imposed on someone. In this, the lost-object which is "intimately tied to love" (Ferber, 2013, p.21) could be a person or an ideal. In this condition, the mourning causes the person to not only clearly identify the lost-loved object but also detaches himself from it through bemoaning and wailing, while melancholy "remains sunken in his loss" (Ferber, 2013, p.21). Indeed, melancholia knows "whom he has lost but not what about him was lost" (Ferber, 2013, p.21). Unlike mourning in which it completely detaches itself from the dead-object and permit it to leave, Melancholy internalizes it in his ego, and thus "the lost object continues to exist … as part of the dejected subject" (Ferber, 2013, p.20), consequently it is difficult to "define the borders between [one's] subjectivity and … the lost object within it" (Ferber, 2006).

Benjamin, in Trauerspielbuch challenges the Freudian fixed distinction between mourning and melancholy, and renounces indirectly the Freudian pathological understanding of Melancholia, and thus he uses the melancholy and mourning interchangeably. It has been said that "Benjamin's annotations to the engraving and his concept of melancholy stand in a direct relation to… [the period which Melencolia I belongs]… Baroque…" (Goebel, 2009, p. 57). Freudian idea for Benjamin is nothing but a narcissistic way that leads to narcissism. A melancholic person inevitably reaches a state in which the world with all its natural and human laws presented as a mask decoration after losing the love-object in a moment. In fact, he realized the truth of the world that the loss in the world as condition of possibility is prominent deficit not transitory. And here the differences clear out; indeed, Freud wants you to forget not only the lost-object but also the loss as condition of possibility and with selecting new love-object again returns to the world of masks that calls it back to reality.

This sense of loss and melancholy is very significant for Benjamin; despite the "certain superficial resemblance" between Trauerspiel and Tragedy (Gilloch, 2002, p.73), For Benjamin Nothing distinguishes Trauerspiel from tragedy more clearly than" (Gilloch, 2002, p.78) its tendency toward loss; indeed, Loss is not only presented in the content but also in the structure of Trauerspiel genre and it is because in the Benjamin's view, "history was the source of Trauerspiel" (Gilloch, 2002, p.75). Therefore, the focus of the used method in this essay would on finding this kind of feeling.

Language and death are the other elements that must be found in *Hamlet*; however, these concepts must be distinguished and elaborated at first. Aristotle, by definition of tragic plot, the most important play element, in fact, constructs an idealistic system, which is aimed to form a whole. Then, accordingly "the task of tragic plot (muthos), is [nothing but] to render an ideal action [_ a beginning-middle-end structure] in terms of stage-event;" but such action in the ideal form "may [not] succeed in" (Jones, 1962, p. 31) "the deliberate selection and arrangement of the incident" (Rush, 2005, p. 63) "without having recourse to" the Newtonian relative time in linear trend. (Jones, 1962, p. 31). However, in postmodern era, the linearity is replaced by non-linearity of events.

The distinction that Benjamin makes in "Trauerspiel and Tragedy" was origined from the difference between Tragedy and Trauerspiel considered in context. He considers the basic difference in the different attitudes of the two genres towards historical time and says that Greek Tragedy is constructed on mythical time while in Trauerspiel the time has a historical background. Benjamin believes that the mythical time in Greek Tragedy causes the motion of the relative time in linear trend and triggers the transformation of Greek Tragedy's State of Equilibrium to the New State of Equilibrium. To show this difference, using figures – the first one for tragedy and the second one for Trauerspiel – can be helpful.
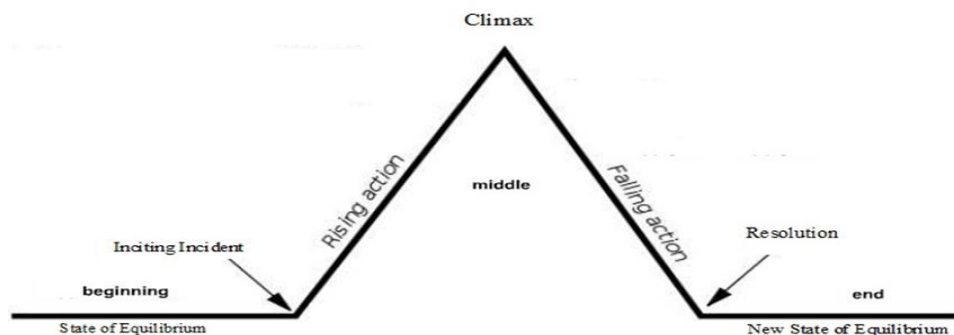
Fig. 2. The "Freytag Pyramid" depicting the key points that occur in the time line of a typical well-made play

It's the diagram form of a triangle to chart five basic component of dramatic structure which follows Aristotle's theory on the unity of dramatic plot_ beginning, middle and end; namely State of Equilibrium, Rising action, Climax, Falling action, and New State of Equilibrium. "This three-step breakdown [, beginning-middle-end structure]… as a whole … can be applied to all actions, large or small", even in the Newtonian laws of motion[1], in the natural world, we see such a whole unity. In fact, "the heart of a dramatic action is the series of events that lead to a significant change taking place in a specific situation. Thus, we have a period of time before that change starts to happen, a part that takes us through the process of change, and the part afterward. Since the meaning of the play is found by contrasting how the ending differs from the beginning…" (Rush, 2005, p. 38). However, Trauerspiel's dramatic structure consists of two parts, a decisive part_ the middle that is included components such as Ex-climax, Natural History and Climax, alongside a non-obligatory part_ the beginning which can be omitted.

Trauerspiel's Dramatic Structure
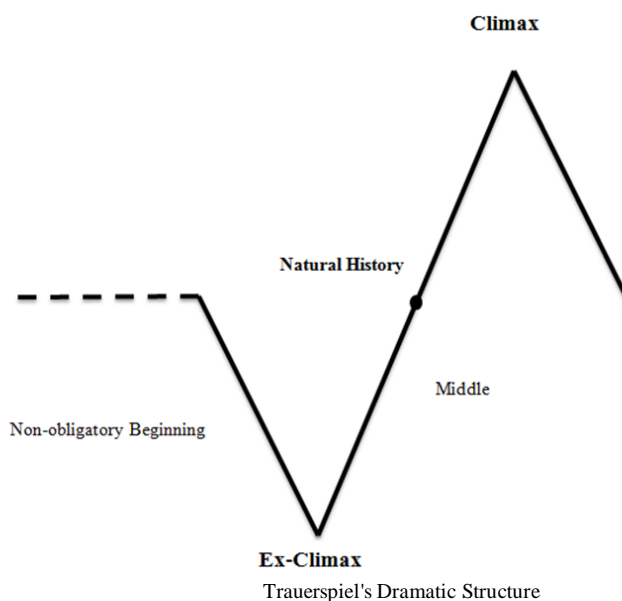
From Benjamin's view, the world of tragedy is always expectant of new rules and these rules cannot be achieved unless in the end which represents itself in the death of the hero. Death as a whole has meaning because death is the end of life; however, in Trauerspiel, for Benjamin the status of Death is always accompanied by the utter indeterminacy which in his "Trauerspiel and Tragedy" (1916) puts it in this way: A tragic death is an ironic immortality, ironic from an excess of determinacy. The tragic death is over-determined… Death in Trauerspiel… is no conclusive finality… Its events are allegorical schemata, symbolic mirror-images of a different game. We are transported into that game by death" (Bullock I, 1996, p. 56-7). The status of death in tragedy means the stop and end of not just life but also the misery of it through the providing death as rest and solution; on the contrary, death in Trauerspiel indicates the opposite marks of death. Therefore, finding such a death which is not the end of life would be another task of this essay.

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[1]The great seventeenth-century English mathematician Sir Isaac Newton tells us that a body at rest will remain at rest until something sets it in motion: A ball does not start rolling until somebody pushes it. Then the ball rolls, and after a while, it comes to rest again.(David Rush A Student Guide to Play Analysis Southern Illinois University Press 2005 p. 38)

It has been argued that "there is an essential connection between" the tragic action and tragic language for giving meaning to life (Bullock I, 1996, p. 56). For Benjamin Greek Tragedy genre is based on human speech. He stresses on this point that tragedy is dialogue-based genre. In tragedy, dialogue is the instrument of communication for transferring the significance which is the idea of tragedy. Such outlook of tragedy elucidates it certainly as a goal-oriented genre; a goal that always is achieved at the end. However, in Benjamin's Trauerspiel, there exist a relationship between language and mentality. In mental pain the mourner tries to transcend his individual pain through the transferring his anguish into the public communal utterance through the communication. For this reason "man communicates his own mental being in his language" (Bullock I, 1996, p. 64). However, this pain and suffering are the result of the inability of human language to express itself. In the other words this is not the lost-object but the language itself through the inability in expression and extending immediately that creates melancholic situation. Therefore, showing inability of language to transfer mental state of the main character would be another scope of this essay.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Death and Language in *Hamlet* as a Trauerspiel

It is known that in the Freytag's Dramatic Structure, in which "Death is a refuge from all" (Grady, 2009, p. 161), pain and suffering, "the sense of loss… is firmly implanted in" (Grady, 2009, p.161). Indeed, in Trauerspiel's diagram unlike the Greek Tragedy, one does not have any State of new equilibrium which is always tied with the emergence of new rule and the determination of all miseries; the lost-avoidance procedure introduces Death as an end. Such archaic intuition about the matter of death as a commercial fact is visible –can be seen even in helmet himself in the first time that he faces the ghost:

HAMLET

O, answer me!...

Why thy canonized bones, hearsed in death,…

That thou, dead corse, again in complete steel

Revisit'st thus the glimpses of the moon,

Making night hideous; and we fools of nature

So horridly to shake our disposition

With thoughts beyond the reaches of our souls? (1. 4. 49)

For Hamlet, death means the determination of one's suffering and reaching quietly the rest through canonization. Then it is not conceivable for a person like Hamlet that how it can be possible for a dead body to revisit.

The ghost reveals far more beyond the Hamlet new intuition that the death is not the rest of the dead person, so that it "Would harrow up thy soul, freeze thy young blood," and "Make thy two eyes, like stars, start from their spheres". Indeed, for the ghost of the king, the dead body not only did the misery and pains not "come to rest," but also they were accompanied with severe and intolerable and tough tortures in the "sulphurous and tormenting flames" (1. 5. 55)

But the matter of Death as un-mitigation does not limit the Ghost of the dead body that is resurrected. Indeed, the death of other characters, either the main character or not, against the tragic hero whose death brings the new state of equilibrium as a conclusive end, always remains un-resulted and un-finalized. And Hamlet is the main character of a Trauerspielian drama that is not excluded from this rule. Hamlet himself in this regard says:

HAMLET

To be, or not to be: that is the question:

Devoutly to be wish'd. To die, to sleep;

To sleep: perchance to dream: ay, there's the rub;

For in that sleep of death what dreams may come

When we have shuffled off this mortal coil, (3. 1. 119-120)

He raises the question whose answer he knows well. He knows that there is no difference between being a worrier who faces all the "sea of troubles" or a "nobler" (3. 1. 120) because of that Death does not finish the miseries, not only just the misery of the main character as Hamlet himself but also the human world's profane misery. Indeed, Hamlet is aware of the fact that his death does not bring peace for himself.

This sense toward death among other things as the ghost's free movement we see in the first scene of the first act that disturbs the Jetztzeit, the relation between chronological time with action, "embodies Hamlet's sense of the lost world of immanent meaning[s]"(Grady, 2009, p. 161). So that, "Hamlet reacts to the death of his father as the death of [his] entire world view" (Grady, 2009, p. 161):

HAMLET

…and indeed it goes so heavily

with my disposition that this goodly frame, the

earth, seems to me a sterile promontory, this most…

what is this quintessence of dust? man delights not

me: no, nor woman neither, though by your smiling

you seem to say so. (2. 2. 97)

Hamlet aligns with the play trying to disengage "from what had been, before the death of his father, a meaningful, epic, immanent world" which is the features of the mythical world and a step forward to the real world in which time and action are two completely separate things(Grady, 2009, p.160-1). Then, the world that Hamlet describes, what Benjamin means real world, indeed, is nothing just the post-fall world. As it has been said before Man after the Sin was expelled from Eden and exiled to this world, the profane world, the world in which "both [Man's] words and actions" (Grady, 2009, p.164) cannot bring back the thing which is lost.

Such "[profane] world … [after The Fall] is an alien collection of objects seeking meaning and significance," (Grady, 2009, p.155) however, after The Fall, human language in contrast to the paradise language loses "the natural correlation between word and thing" (Grady, 2009, p. 144). This is a "cut off from higher meaning" (Grady, 2009, p.) that Benjamin expresses it as Naming changes to Overnaming.

And Hamlet in facing Ophelia's father, Polonius, as a post-fall man begins to correlate between word and objects:

LORD POLONIUS
My lord, the queen would speak with you, and presently.
HAMLET
Do you see yonder cloud that's almost in shape of a camel?
LORD POLONIUS
By the mass, and 'tis like a camel, indeed.
HAMLET
Methinks it is like a weasel.
LORD POLONIUS
It is backed like a weasel.
HAMLET
Or like a whale?
LORD POLONIUS
Very like a whale. (3. 2. 153)

Hamlet more than plays with Polonius, as a namer tries to find a name for the cloud which is in motion. Such action reminds us of "Adam's naming of the animals and other things of the world in Genesis," but with the difference, as Benjamin says that "out of paradise, human language begins to lose the Adamic, natural correlation between word and thing[s]"(Grady, 2009, p. 139.144).In addition, this section of Hamlet not only does represent the lack of human's capability to name objects, but it also warns that Nature itself can never be the name. And this is only because Nature in absolute time as a cloud which Hamlet refers to does not have a stable shape and is constantly being deformed.

Benjaminian Melancholy in Hamlet

Unlike "the older attempt to describe" (Pensky, 1993, p.90) the character Hamlet as one who transforms from the state of mourning to melancholia, for Benjamin "Hamlet is the figure in which melancholy (Rice, 2009, p. 106)… [Is] tied with incompleteness time" (Rice, 2009, p. 173) of the Trauerspiel dramatic structure. Hamlet as a main character of Trauerspiel genre is not classified in any way in the pathological Freudian dissociation between mourning and melancholia.

Trauerspiel genre's dramatic structure in contrast to the tragic one completely forms the basis of the middle part that consists of ex-climax, Natural history and climax. And this is the middle part of the Trauerspile dramatic structure that rejects all the Freudian pathological attitude toward characters like Hamlet, and therefore inaugurates a non-pathological one.

Hamlet, as "a stranger's eyes"(Cantor, 1989, p. viii) ,following the loss of his father changed his worldview, in the ex-climax of Treauerspiel, "keenly"(Cantor, 1989, p. viii) begins the Natural history for disclosing the truth of the fallen world through the distraction of the pre-accepted process by the community: Historical fate. This is why the disclosing of the truth of the object "lies [in] paradox: the only way to [attain the truth] is to destroy it." (Ferber, 2013, p. 59)

In *Hamlet*, the Historical fate in the matter of the loss of the object of love is formed on the Freudian thinking about the loss and how to deal with it. In the first meeting between Hamlet and the new king, in which Hamlet is dressed in black for the loss of his father, Claudius as the ruler and the voice of community pointes out to the Historical fate:

KING CLAUDIUS
'Tis sweet and commendable in your nature, Hamlet,
To give these mourning duties to your father:
But, you must know, your father lost a father;
That father lost, lost his, and the survivor bound…
This unprevailing woe, and think of us
As of a father: for let the world take note,
You are the most immediate to our throne;
And with no less nobility of love
Than that which dearest father bears his son, (1. 2. 25)

Claudius as new king of Denmark explains to Hamlet that death is a natural and normal process that is not to be prevented which "you must know [that if you lost your father,] your father lost a father [and] that father lost" a father too and being in sorrow is acceptable and admirable but only when the period of mourning be short. Actually, from the perspective of Danish society, mourning is a duty, social or religious, but any form of transgression of normal treatment in which indicates the "heart unfortified [and the] mind impatient" of mourner severely criticized and condemned. In this regard, they believe that a man must avoid any form of "unmanly grief" by filling the emptiness of that loss with a new love-object.

Therefore, Hamlet's uncle expresses the social view that wholly follows the Freudian pathological thinking on the matter of loss and wants Hamlet to answer the call of reality through choosing him as his new father. Such historical fate in Denmark is so strong that the queen, Gertrude, after the loss of her husband, the previous king of Denmark, remarried her husband's brother and because of that is firmly criticized by Hamlet:

HAMLET
Look here, upon this picture, and on this,
The counterfeit presentment of two brothers.
See, what a grace was seated on this brow;
Hyperion's curls; the front of Jove himself;…
Could you on this fair mountain leave to feed,
And batten on this moor? Ha! have you eyes?
You cannot call it love; for at your age
The hey-day in the blood is tame, it's humble,
And waits upon the judgment: and what judgment (3. 4. 167)

Gertrude's desertion and remarriage with Claudius as Hamlet mentions it correctly is not the result of the outpouring of the sensuality of the old queen because the age always adds to the mind and reduces passion. Then how could it be possible an old person as the queen remarries shortly after her husband's death? And the answer is that the old more than the young is the peremptory follower of the Historical fate. Moreover, Gertrude's sex as a female intensifies her obedience of the Freudian ideas of the society about loss.

Then in such a community, the behavior of people like Hamlet, in the eyes of others is an "antic disposition"(Rice, 2009, p. 167) which causes him to be known as a melancholic one, whether it is the reason for people like Polonius about Hamlet's love for Ophelia or the hasty remarriage of his mother from the queen's perspective. However, although Hamlet, as he describes his task, the Natural history, for the queen, is "a glass [that] you may see the inmost part[s] of" (3. 4. 163) human existence, and somehow Polonius points it that "Though this be madness, yet there is method/in 't… (2. 2. 91) but still "his anti-social behavior" from people's perspective "gives …good reason" for them "to fear him as a menace to the state" (Cantor ix) and consider him mad. Indeed, such a reaction by others, the Double-alienation that pushes Hamlet to death in the Trauerspiel's climax, is originated from their commitment to Historical fate.

Accordingly, such intuition to melancholy even answers "the question which has preoccupied critics of Hamlet…: why does the prince delay in taking his revenge on the man who murdered his father?" (Cantor, 1989, p. 20); although his father is murdered by one who usurps this was the loss of his father that let him to face the truth of a profane world which has fallen, animate or inanimate.

But in Hamlet there is another one who is so close to the Freudian melancholy: Ophelia. She faces two kinds of loss; the loss of her lover and after that her father, which paralyzed her. In the matter of the loss of Hamlet, her lover, Ophelia passively obeys her father and turns away from being a beloved to a spy, however, she really loves him. And similarly later, in her father's loss, we see such passivity:

QUEEN GERTRUDE
There, on the pendent boughs her coronet weeds
Clambering to hang, an envious sliver broke;
When down her weedy trophies and herself
Fell in the weeping brook. Her clothes spread wide;
And, mermaid-like, awhile they bore her up:…
Till that her garments, heavy with their drink,
Pull'd the poor wretch from her melodious lay
To muddy death. (Act IIII scene 7)

The Queen express to Laertes and Claudius how Ophelia's clothes after she falls in the water is slowly filled with water and drowns her while she does not attempt to rescue herself. Accordingly, we can firmly say Hamlet, unlike Ophelia, has no sign of the Freudian melancholia as a dilemma, sloth and acedia. However, the majority, compared with Laertes in taking revenge on the Polonius's murderer, accuses Hamlet of dilemma in action. But for Benjamin "Hamlet's dilemma is a matter not of personal failure" (Cantor, 1989, p. xiii). In fact, for Benjamin, the prince's delay "in taking revenge on the man who murdered his father… as soon as he learns of the guilt of" him (Cantor, 1989, p. 20) after the act of the murder of king Gonzago originated from "the absurdity of action itself in a corrupt world" (Cantor, 1989, p. xiii). Hamlet as one who is under the Benjaminian melancholy knows well that the post-fall world does not have the capability to fulfill an action. So the revenge will not terminate the fratricide.

IV. CONCLUSION

Having analyzed, the play of *Hamlet*, it could be said that *Hamlet* is a tragedy, However, it is not entirely complies with the Aristotelian principles of Tragedy. In this essay, three key terms have been applied to the play; unlike Greek tragedy, for Hamlet death was not the end of life. In fact, death and life were merged together and provided a new aspect of tragedy which was depicted by presence of the ghost. In *Hamlet*, the ghost of a dead man who calls himself, the king not only is not separated from the world of living but also as a living king wants prince Hamlet to swear and take the ghost's revenge from Claudius. The existence of a ghost and the duty that binds Hamlet and reveal the loss of eschatology; the lack of judgment day puts the duty of revenge on ghost's son. As if, that death has never been the end of life.

Regarding language, "to the death of fixed meaning" (Makidon, 2004, p. 19) could be traced throughout the play. In this play, language does not possess duality of polar concept to decipher meaning; in fact, the convention duality of pairs is absent, and meanings cannot be realized. Shakespeare through his character prince Hamlet as a person who has postmodern mind tries to destroy the centrality of meaning not only in his sentence but also in the others through the presence of the absent part of a word or sentence. Therefore, language cannot convey Hamlet's state of mind which paves the way for the third key term, melancholia. In this regard, melancholia is no longer a mental disease; rather, it is entering into reality of the world which is not based on the world of myth but history. Consequently, it can be said that Hamlet does not belong to the genre of Greek tragedy developed by Aristotle; rather, it belongs to Benjamin's genre of Trauerspiel as a postmodern literature.

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An Investigation into Writing Strategies and Writing Proficiency of University Students

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Abstract—This paper reports on an investigation into the relationship between writing strategy use and L2 writing proficiency. Although research into language learning strategies is extensive, only a few studies have addressed L2 writing strategies of university students. 312 undergraduate students learning English as a second language took a writing proficiency test and completed a writing strategy questionnaire. The results of the study showed that the participants generally had a relatively high level of ESL writing strategy use. It was also found that Effort regulation strategy and metacognitive strategy were reported as the first and second most frequently used writing strategies respectively, while social strategy was reported as the least frequently used category. The results also showed that students with high writing abilities reported a significantly higher level of writing strategy use compared with those who had intermediate or low writing proficiency. It was found that students with higher writing ability reported using significantly more metacognitive, cognitive, affective and effort regulation strategies than those with lower writing proficiency. The discussion of the results, implications for language classroom and writing instruction are articulated. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are also presented.

Index Terms—writing strategies, writing proficiency, second language learning, ESL writing, university students as writers

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning strategies have been shown to be highly influential in the success of language learning. The language strategies are conscious techniques that individuals use to solve problems in their language learning process (Brown 2000).There has been a rapidly increasing body of research on language learning strategies since the mid-1970s (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Ma & Oxford, 2014; O'Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975). Although there is a rapidly growing body of research focusing on the various aspects of language learning strategies, there have been controversies among the researchers about the definition of language learning strategies. Generally, learning strategies have not been clearly defined and there are many definitions for the language learning strategies in the SLA literature.

Various taxonomies of language learning strategies have been proposed by SLA scholars and researchers (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Some of these taxonomies such as Oxford's (1990) strategy system and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) strategy taxonomy have received much attention in L2 learning. Oxford's (1990) strategy taxonomy which encompasses six categories includes cognitive strategies, metacognitive, memory, compensatory, social and affective strategies, while O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have categorized them into cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective categories.

Many research attempts in the area of L2 learning strategies have mainly focused on successful learners. Researchers believe that good language learners use a wide variety of strategies and tactics to do their learning tasks effectively in a given situation. Dörnyei (2005) stated that learners who are good at language learning tend to have a bigger repertoire of strategies than less proficient learners, and they employ the strategies more effectively. Successful language learners use various types of strategies for different language tasks; they choose appropriate strategies for a task based on task specifications (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999). In identifying strategies, efforts have also been made in research to be skill-based such as that of focusing on writing.

The development of writing is needed for university students as it is a very essential skill for their academic development. Writing is considered as an important ability for production and dissemination of knowledge within any disciplinary discourse. It is valid to say that the assessment of the students' academic achievements in academic contexts relies largely on their abilities to convey their knowledge and ideas. It helps students to do key assignments, enhance their critical thinking capabilities and develop their cognitive performance and functioning (Graham & Perin, 2007). Within educational contexts, the ability to write in English is very fundamental and instrumental for university

students to function successfully in their academic areas. In academic settings, writing in English enables students to share their research findings with global readership, and it allows the student to place their thoughts and research in an international outlet.

Writing skills enable us to communicate with people beyond the limits of time and distance. It is an essential skill for students in the current internet-driven epoch. It is a valid mode for the transmission of culture, knowledge and ideas from one generation to another, and hence it directly deals with preserving and developing the sociocultural, educational and anthropological aspects of human life. In other words, writing is not only considered as criteria of getting knowledge, but it is also an important means for disseminating and producing knowledge in any educational and cultural system. Canagarajah (2002) ascribes the importance of writing to the five salient features of writing. First, writing both reflects and creates reality; second, writing is a social interactional activity between the writer and the reader within a specific space and time. Third, writing is created from the negotiation between writer and available resources in a context. Fourth, writing provides an opportunity for writers to present ideological beliefs, to express self and to give value to entities through the text. Fifth, writing is a historical dynamic process where the ideas, struggles, conflicts and concepts of the text are open to the readers and writers' comments and stance.

Writing is one of the essential skills that university students need to master in order to achieve their academic goals and get better job prospects. Indeed, good writing ability often indicates an ability of the individuals to attain professional development in their academic areas. In Malaysia, writing in English has been highlighted in national exams and assessments such as that of Lower Secondary School Certificate, Secondary Leaving School Certificate and Malaysian University English Test (MUET). In each of these examinations, there is a section assessing students' writing ability in English. English as a second language is a taught subject in Malaysia and is compulsory for students at all levels in schools. In Malaysia, university students have positive attitudes towards writing in English (Ansarimoghaddam & Tan, 2014). In spite of considerable attention given to English particularly writing skill in Malaysia, still every year, a great number of Malaysian undergraduates are obliged to attend writing classes due to their low scores in English proficiency and writing. Therefore, the specific problems that Malaysian students face when writing in English within ESL contexts need to be further investigated and documented, and it is essential to understand what factors account for the difficulties students encounter in their L2 writing activities.

Writing is a complex and multifactorial phenomenon; it is more challenging for learners who write in a language other than their first language. Weigle (2005) asserted that L1 writers have automatic and quick access to grammatical and lexical repertoires while second language writers especially those with a low level of language proficiency need to consciously focus on these processes since the strategies and language knowledge are not easily available to them when they attempt to write in their second language. Rao (2007) stated that, writing in L2 is a difficult task for the students because the writing task requires different linguistic and cognitive strategies which students are not certain about.

Given the multifaceted nature of L2 writing, and the significant role of writing proficiency in academic settings, it is important to understand to what extent ESL university students use writing strategies in creating their L2 writing and, how their writing proficiency is related to their writing strategy use. Understanding and identifying L2 writing strategies and techniques is very essential for language instructors to improve the writing curriculum and also helps them to plan their writing lessons appropriately and effectively. Since individuals differ in the ways they approach the processes to perform a task, It is worth examining how students' planning and monitoring processes in producing ideas, and the ways they orchestrate their efforts to create L2 writing are influenced by their writing ability.

II. WRITING STRATEGIES

It is believed that writing strategies play a key role in the development of L2 writing. The past couple of decades have witnessed a substantial body of L2 writing research targeting writing strategies (Roca de Larios et al. 2008; Sasaki, 2002, 2007 Victori 1999; Whalen & Menard 1995; Wong, 2005). Research investigating the relationship between L2 Writing strategies and writing ability indicates that students' with high writing ability use more writing strategies than those who have low writing ability (Sasaki, 2002; Victori, 1999), and hence writing proficiency can explain some variation in the use of writing strategies. Research in the field of second language writing has also addressed the use of L2 writing strategies in relation to goal orientation (He, 2005), writing performance (Nguyen and Gu 2013), and learning context (Leki, 1995, Sasaki, 2007; Wong, 2005).

L2 writing research also examined the link between L1 and L2 writing strategies L1 writing strategies (Alhaisoni, 2012; Whalen & Menard 1995). Research indicates that there is a link between the L1 and L2 strategies, though there are some inclusive research findings. Generally, it can be concluded from previous research that L2 learners transfer some of the writing techniques and strategies from their witting in their mother tongue to their writing in a second language. Writing strategies are thought to be learned in first language, and then transferred to L2 writing. Therefore, learners who have a wealth of experiences in L1 writing are more likely to be more successful in L2 writing endeavors. It is reasonable to assume that L1 writing experiences, to some extent, shape the way learners approach the L2 writing tasks.

Despite the rapidly growing research on various aspects of L2 writing, little research has focused on documenting the nature of the writing strategies used by second language learners. Furthermore, very few studies have examined the use of writing strategies by university students within second language learning contexts. Most of the research studies

available have addressed generic language learning strategies, rather than L2 writing strategies. Considering the lack of research on the university students' writing strategies within Malaysian ESL context, this study aims to address the following research questions: What are the ESL writing strategies of Malaysian undergraduate students? Are there any significant differences between students with different levels of English writing proficiency in the use of writing strategies?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In total, 314 university students (all Malaysian nationals) at a national university in Malaysia participated in this study. 89 were male and 225 were female. They came from three L1 backgrounds, (Malay, Chinese and Tamil), the majority had Malay as their L1, and the remainder had either Chinese or Tamil as their L1. They were all first-year and second-year undergraduate students, and ranged in age from 19 to 24 years. The participanthals represented a wide range of fields of study offered by the university. The participants in this study completed a questionnaire and two writing tasks.

B. Instrument

1. Writing Strategy Scale. A 26-item scale was designed to assess L2 learners' writing strategy use. The scale comprised of five writing strategy categories: metacognitive, cognitive, social, affective and effort regulation strategies. The items for the scale were adapted from four sources: He's (2005) writing strategy questionnaire, a writing strategy scale by Petrić and Czárl (2003), Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, and Pintrich et al.'s (1993) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Modifications were made to the strategy scale items, specifically items from Oxford's (1990) and Pintrich et al.'s (1993) scales in order to prompt participants to consider L2 writing strategies when responding rather than be constrained by general language learning strategies or general learning strategies. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which the statements in the scale corresponded with their actual use of writing strategies, using a scale ranging from 1 (*Never true of me*) to 5 (Always true of me). The internal consistency reliability of the scale calculated using Cronbach's alpha, was high, α = 0.91. The questionnaire was presented to the participants in both English and Malay languages since the bilingual version of the scale are required for L2 respondents especially for those with low proficiency in the second language.

2. Writing Proficiency Test. The study included two writing tasks from the Writing Section of Malaysian University English Test (MUET), developed to measure writing skill for students entering tertiary education in Malaysian public universities. The writing test (the two tasks) was delivered in the classroom by the researcher. The first task required the test-takers to write a descriptive report using data given in a table and a graph, while the second task required them to write an argumentative essay. The total writing score was 100, of which 40 marks went to task 1, and the other 60 marks were allotted to task2. The students were classified into three writing proficiency groups (low, middle and high) on the basis of the score they got on the writing test.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The data was collected during the regular class time with the cooperation of writing instructors in charge of the writing class. After explaining the purpose of the study to the students, they were told that the participation in this study was voluntary and their answers would be kept confidential. They were also told that participation in the study involved taking a writing proficiency test and completing a questionnaire. No time limit was set for the completion of the writing strategy questionnaire, but for the writing test, the students were advised to spend 40 minutes on writing task 1, and 50 minutes on writing task 2.

The data collected from the writing strategy scale and writing proficiency test were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 22). For the first research question, descriptive statistics for writing test scores, writing strategy categories and total writing strategy use were calculated. For the second research question, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to investigate the differences in the use of writing strategies among the three writing ability groups (low, middle and high).

IV. RESULTS

Means and standard deviations of the entire writing strategy use, scores for the five categories of writing strategies, and individual strategies were calculated for the whole sample. Oxford (1990) classified the mean scores of the strategy use into three levels as low (ranging from 1.0 to 2.4) medium (ranging from 2.4 to 3.5) and high (ranging from 3.5 to 5). The participants reported almost a high level of writing strategy use as the overall mean of writing strategy usage was 3.72. As can be seen in Table 1, all of the categories had mean score above 3.5, indicating that all strategy categories were frequently employed by the participants. Among the five categories, effort regulation strategy (M = 3.97, SD = .42) and metacognitive strategy (M = 3.73, SD = .41) were reported as the first and second most frequently used strategies respectively while social strategy was reported as the least frequently used category (M = 3.58, SD = .57).

TABLE 1
MEANS AND RANKING OF FIVE WRITING STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Writing strategies	N	Mean	SD	Ranking
Effort regulation	314	3.97	.42	1st
Affective	314	3.63	.48	4th
Social	314	3.58	.57	5th
Cognitive	314	3.64	.40	3rd
Metacognitive	314	3.73	.41	2nd

Another analysis of data with regard to individual writing strategies found that a metacognitive strategy *"I revise my writing to make sure that it includes everything I want to discuss in my writing"* (M = 4.02) and effort regulation strategy "Even if the writing activities are difficult, I don't give up but try to engage in them" (M = 4.02) were the most used strategies. Social and affective strategies were the least used among the participants. Among the strategies, the least used strategies were *"After revising and editing my essay thoroughly, I ask a friend or my classmate to read and comment on it"* (M = 3.33) and "I try to write an essay in class with confidence and ease" (M = 3.38). It was also found that only five items had a mean score below 3.5; it indicates that Malaysian university students use different techniques and strategies in their writing endeavors as they consider writing as a very essential skill for their studies.

A series of ANOVA tests were conducted to examine the differences in the use of writing strategies among three writing proficiency groups .As mentioned earlier, writing ability groups (low, middle and high) were determined based on their scores on two writing tests. Assumptions of ANOVA (e.g., homogeneity of variance, normality) were checked before performing ANOVA. The results of the first ANOVA showed that that the proficiency groups differed in their overall use of strategies $F_{(2, 311)} = 13.01$, p = .00, η^2 (eta-squared) = .080. Follow-up Scheffé analyses showed that high proficiency group reported significantly more writing strategies than the middle group who in turn used significantly more writing strategies than the low group.

With regard to each category of writing strategy, the results showed that there were significant differences among the groups in their use of metacognitive strategies, $F_{(2, 311)} = 15.61$, $p = .00$, η^2 (eta-squared) = .094. Further analysis using post hoc Scheffé tests revealed that there were significant differences between the high and intermediate proficiency groups ($p = .01$), between the high and low proficiency groups, ($p = .00$), and between intermediate and low proficiency groups ($p = .00$).

The results also showed significant differences among writing ability groups in their cognitive writing strategies. $F_{(2, 311)} = 11.30$, $p = .00$, η^2 (eta-squared) = .070. Post hoc comparison analyses indicated that participants with high writing proficiency reported significantly higher use of metacognitive writing strategies than those with intermediate writing ability ($p = .00$) and those with low writing ability ($p = .00$). However, no significant difference was found between low and intermediate groups ($p = .42$). Summary of the results for the five writing strategy categories among the three writing proficiency levels are given in Table 2.

It was also found that the proficiency groups differed significantly in their effort regulation strategies. $F_{(2, 311)} = 10.42$, $p = .000$, η2 = .065. Follow-up Scheffé test revealed that the high writing ability group reported making a significantly higher use of effort regulation strategies than low writing ability group ($p = .00$). There was also a significant difference between low and middle writing ability group ($p = .00$) while there was no significant difference between middle and high ability writing groups in their effort regulation strategies ($p = .27$).

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES IN THE USE OF WRITING STRATEGIES BY WRITING PROFICIENCY

Writing strategy categories	Low (n = 76)		Middle (n = 178)		High (n = 60)		F	p Value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Social	3.50	.57	3.63	.55	3.53	.60	1.09	.33
Metacognitive	3.49	.43	3.75	.36	3.97	.35	15.61	.00
Cognitive	3.51	.39	3.60	.36	3.91	.34	11.30	.00
Affective	3.43	.55	3.65	.44	3.83	.40	8.08	.00
Effort regulation	3.75	.45	4.1	.36	4.13	.34	10.42	.00

There were also statistically significant differences in affective strategies among the three writing proficiency groups (. $F_{(2, 311)} = 8.08$, $p = .000$, η2 = .051. Post hoc Scheffé test indicated that highly proficient writers did not differ significantly from moderately proficient writers ($p = .120$) while highly proficient writers differed significantly those with low writing proficiency in affective strategies. The difference between low and middle proficiency groups was also significant ($p = .023$). Unlike other categories of writing strategies, the category of social writing strategies was not significantly different among the three writing proficiency groups, $F_{(2, 311)} = 1.09$, $p = .33$, η2 = .007.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The participants generally reported a relatively high level of writing strategy use as the overall mean of writing strategy usage was 3.72. Indeed, ESL Malaysian students reported using writing strategies at a moderate to high level. One possible explanation for the slightly high usage of writing strategies is that these students are ESL university students in a writing course who may have explicitly been taught some techniques and strategies about ESL writing. In

addition to the effect of the writing course, the Malaysian ESL university context may have affected their strategy use. Students in ESL university contexts understand the importance of English for their academic achievements as they are required to write their assignments and reports in English. Thus, it can be assumed that the students in such contexts are required to develop their writing ability, and consequently they are likely to allocate considerable attention to the different ways and techniques to expand their writing skill.

It is worth noting that the strategies used by learners in their general language learning in which writing is only a part of the whole language may be different from those they employ specifically in their L2 writing endeavors. Regardless of this difference, this result is similar to that of Hong-Nam and Leavell's (2006) study which reported a high overall strategy use among ESL university students. Nevertheless, the overall strategy use reported in several studies focusing on language learning strategy use (Lai, 2009; Park, 1997) was moderate or low. This finding seems to reflect the fact that students in SL contexts have access to authentic L2 input and they have more interaction opportunities than those in FL contexts. This explanation supports Wharton's (2000) argument that exposure to authentic input and interaction opportunities affect the strategy use.

Among the five categories, effort regulation strategy (M = 3.97, SD = .42) and metacognitive strategy (M = 3.73, SD = .41) were reported as the first and second most frequently used strategies respectively while social strategy was reported as the least frequently used category (M = 3.58, SD = .57). ESL students in the writing course seem to know the need to regulate and manage their writing processes and showed they had control over planning and organizing, and focusing their own writing. The learning environment of the writing course may be an important contributor to the high usage of metacognitive and effort-regulation strategies. Writing course students were learning to advance their academic writing. They appeared to know the need of writing as an essential skill for being successful in any academic area. The threat of getting a low grade, or the threat of not getting success in their study was likely to be an important motivator for taking self-regulated learning.

Although social writing strategy was less employed by the participants compared to the other categories, it was highly used by the students. The means score for the writing strategy was 3.58 which shows that the students reported using social writing strategies at a high level according to the Oxford's (1990) guidelines for the use of language learning strategies. Regardless of the differences between ESL writing strategies and general ESL language learning strategies, this result corroborates the findings of Hong-Nam and Leavell's (2006) investigation of ESL Asian university students who reported high use of metacognitive, social and cognitive strategies at a high level (above 3.4 out of 5).

The results also showed that that the proficiency groups differed in their overall use of strategies. That is, the higher the proficiency level, the greater was the strategy use. This finding was in line with that of previous studies (e.g., Bruen, 2001; Park,1997; Lai, 2009; Wharton, 2000) that indicated that L2 proficiency is significantly associated with strategy use. Thus, the results of this study support the linear relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency. The results contradicts the findings of Hong-Nam and Leavell, (2006) and Philips's (1991) studies which showed that the relationship between L2 proficiency and strategy use is curvilinear rather than linear. These researchers argued that learners in intermediate proficiency group use more strategies than those in low and high proficiency groups.

With regard to each category of writing strategies, the results showed that there were significant differences among the groups in their use of metacognitive strategies, $F_{(2, 301)} = 15.61$, $p = .00$, $\eta 2$ (eta-squared) = .094. From the results, it can be assumed that the highly successful student writers employ more monitoring and planning strategies than moderately successful and unsuccessful ones, showing that the metacognitive strategy use is an important contributor to the development of L2 writing skill. This finding is in agreement with those from previous studies (Bruen, 2001; Lai, 2009; Green & Oxford, 1995; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Victori, 1999) which demonstrated that higher level of language proficiency is strongly related to higher usage of metacognitive strategies. The results suggest that the strategies which help students to control and regulate their own cognition may be essential for developing L2 writing skill. Though, metacognitive strategies are positively linked with L2 proficiency, some caution is required for the interpretation of results because the direction for the causal relation between the language learning strategies and language proficiency is not clear (Lai, 2009; Rees-Miller, 1993). Still further investigation is needed to determine whether strategies cause improvement in language proficiency or vice versa.

The results also showed significant differences among writing ability groups in their cognitive writing strategies. $F_{(2, 301)} = 11.30$, $p = .00$, $\eta 2$ (eta-squared) = .070. The results of this study suggest that effective student writers are more capable of using cognitive strategies for producing written language and hence it can be assumed that this type of strategy category seem to be very essential for successful L2 writing production. This finding seems to be similar to, and confirms that of previous studies (Bruen, 2001; Lai, 2009; Liu, 2008; Peacock & Ho, 2003)**.

It was also found that the proficiency groups differed significantly in their effort regulation strategies, $F_{(2, 301)} = 10.42$, $p = .000$, $\eta 2 = .065$. However, follow-up Scheffé test revealed that there was not a significant difference between middle and high ability writing groups in their effort regulation strategies ($p = .27$). Unfortunately no study in the area of SLA has focused on the role of effort regulation strategies in language learning. This study found that in addition to cognitive and metacognitive strategies, effort regulation strategies appear to be among the key strategies employed by successful L2 learners. In line with previous studies, this study found that the students who reported being able to regulate and maintain their effort in face of distracting factors and boring tasks are the more successful students.

The results obtained from the present study is in harmony with the previous research in the fields of education and psychology (Bidjerano & Dai, 2007; Pintrich, et al., 1993; Van Nuland, et al., 2010;) which shows that effort regulation strategies are closely related to successful performance. Van Nuland, et al., (2010) and Komarraju and Nadler (2013) demonstrated that successful learners use more effort regulation strategies in their learning.

There were also statistically significant differences in affective strategies among the three writing proficiency groups (F (2, 301) = 8.08, p = .000, η2 = .051. However Post hoc Scheffé test indicated that highly proficient writers did not differ significantly from moderately proficient writers (p = .120). Combined with findings of previous research (Khaldieh, 2000; Lai, 2009; Liu, 2008;) the present finding reveal that learners with high language proficiency use more affective strategies than those with low proficiency. They use these strategies to reduce their anxiety in order to increase their learning and performance. The causes of high use of affective strategy by students in high proficiency group may be attributed to their self-efficacy. As Bandura (1997) claims that successful learners because of their mastery experiences usually have high self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) also asserted that academic anxiety is largely determined by self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, it can be assumed that highly successful student writers have lower level of L2 writing anxiety and also can better regulate and control their emotions compared with less successful student writers.

Unlike other categories of writing strategies, the category of social writing strategies was not significantly different among the three writing proficiency groups, F (2, 301) = 1.09, p = .33, η2 = .007. In this study, higher writing proficiency levels were not associated with higher social strategy use. This finding stands in contrast with that of previous studies (e.g., Salahshour, et al., 2013; Lai, 2009) in that L2 proficiency significantly affected social strategy use. This result may be explained with reference to several factors. First, within university contexts, majority of students, regardless of their language proficiency level, probably need help and guidance for their academic writing because it involves subject knowledge as well. Second, personality traits such as extroversion appear to be an important factor in determining the use of the social strategies (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2013). Thus, it can be assumed that there are factors other than proficiency which affect the use of social strategies. It seems reasonable that social strategies are employed more by extrovert students than by introvert students. Third, the three proficiency groups reported using the social strategies at the similar level, indicating that a culturally-driven approach to learning within this particular multi-ethnic Asian context may be in operation.

The findings of the study revealed that Malaysian university students use writing strategies at a relatively high level. The participants reported using all categories of writing strategies, though they had a slightly higher tendency toward the use of effort regulation and metacognitive strategies than affective, social and cognitive ones. The results of this study also showed that writing proficiency would explain some variation in the use of writing strategies. The use of all writing strategy categories, except social strategy, across the three writing proficiency groups (highly skilled, moderately skilled and less-skilled student writers) differed significantly. However, there are several limitations that should be acknowledged and considered in the interpretation of these findings. First, the study used only self-reported data collected through a questionnaire. Although a survey questionnaire is a reliable data collection tool, data collected via the other tools such as think-aloud interviews and observations would be able to give more insight into students' writing strategy use. Second, the data was collected from only one Malaysian university, and the sample may not represent the whole university population in Malaysia. Therefore, replications of this research with different groups of ESL students from other universities are required to validate and confirm the main findings of this study. Thus, some caution is needed in generalizing the findings of this study to the full spectrum of Malaysian undergraduate students. These limitations need to be addressed in future research.

The findings of this study have some implications for language classroom and writing instruction. It is very essential for language teachers to convey to L2 learners that ESL writing is learnable and can be developed by employing appropriate strategies. Language teachers can promote the use of effective strategies by encouraging learners to share their own techniques and strategies in writing tasks. L2 learners should be encouraged to develop a repertoire of writing strategies in order to enhance their writing ability. Teachers should help students self-evaluate their writing tasks in order to become aware of their shortcomings and problems, and consequently think about the use of appropriate strategies. Furthermore, strategies can be taught explicitly by language instructors. L2 strategy instruction increases L2 learners' metacognitive awareness and their use of strategies which in turn will lead to improvements in their L2 writing ability. Given the important role academic writing plays within the educational contexts especially universities, writing teachers can use weblog or other online social networking sites to promote the use of different writing strategies among students by designing different writing activities which requires them to write their own opinion and communicate ideas.

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Accuracy and Precision of Polysemous Judgment Terms in Legal Translation: A Corpus-based Method and Discussion

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Abstract—**The primary goals of this paper are on one hand to emphasize the accuracy and precision of legal translation, on the other hand to describe the superiority of a corpus-based method and discussion in legal translation. It is beneficial to both practice of legal translation and study of corpus linguistics further to ensure the accuracy and precision of translation of polysemous judgment terms in legal translation.**

Index Terms—**accuracy, precision, polysemy, legal translation, corpus**

I. INTRODUCTION

Legal translation is the translation of articles within the field of law. And far from being separate, the law and life form an indivisible whole. By the increasing process of globalization and the intercultural study over the past decades, the legal translation has been playing a significant role in the life. Especially, we need to use the experience of other countries for reference in the perfection of the legal mechanism, the legal translation in Chinese is therefore steadily ceaselessly paid attention to.

As law is closely related with many elements, such as culture and language, the legal translation needs to be considered in more aspects. If the accuracy and precision of legal translation is not absolutely assured, that means the misreading of legal passages, for example, a text in a contract, could lead to loss of wealth and even lawsuits. In the Chinese translation of legal texts, many factors should be taken into account. One of the impact factors, which could impair the correct quality of the to be translated legal texts, are polysemous judgment terms in legal translation.

It could be summed up that a polyseme is a word or phrase with two or more meanings. And there are often links between these several meanings. The polysemy is a very common and complicated linguistic phenomenon in Chinese, which also influences the quality of legal translation.

Considering the seriousness in legal texts and the frequent polysemy in Chinese, it is necessary to attach importance to accuracy of Chinese- English translation of polysemous judgment terms. As to the problem of how to deal properly with all kinds of complicated items in the Chinese- English legal translation, the study on corpora provides of good chances to ensure and improve the quality of legal translation.

II. PRINCIPLES OF LEGAL TRANSLATION

Legal translation is a kind of double operation of legal transfer and language transfer (Sarcevic 12). According to Li Kexing, there are six practical principles of legal translation: Accuracy and Precision; Consistency and Identity; Clarity and Concision; Professionalism; Standardized Language; Team Work (Li 46). Accuracy and precision are regarded as the fundamental principle. Chinese is simple, flexible and poetic yet fuzzy, which easily leads to ambiguity in legal texts. The academic world has made a lot of criticism about the non-logic, fuzzy problems in the Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China in 1979.

Mellinkoff (1963) argued that for legal and official purposes, it is usually necessary to apply documents serving as or based on evidence and other official documentation in the official language(s) of a jurisdiction. In some countries, translators are required to swear an oath to attest that translations of such documents are the legal equivalents of the source texts. Newmark (1988), Sarcevic (1997) pointed that when translating a legal text, the translator should keep the words "Accuracy and Precision" in mind. Prioritizing culture-fit as a key factor in the legal system of the source text, which is for short as ST, is an obvious reflection in the legal language. Similarly, the readers of the target text, which is for short as TT, have on the whole thoroughly acquainted knowledge of the other legal system and its language through study or experience. One of the conspicuous features for most forms of legal writing, and contracts in particular, is to establish clearly defined rights and duties for certain individuals, of which is therefore absolutely necessary to ensure accurate correspondence in the source text and in the translation.

Accuracy is the soul of legal words, but different language has its own characteristics, there are diversities in terms of accuracy. For example, since the accuracy of the French is better than that of other languages, in some international conventions the texts in French would prevail, if there is ambiguity in different language texts. Chinese has the

advantages of simple, flexible, and poetic characteristics, whose deficiency is nevertheless its fuzziness, because it has to do with the Chinese traditional way of thinking. The Chinese ambiguity is easy to cause the inaccuracy of legal texts. One of the typical examples is, the fuzzy phenomenon in our 1979 criminal law had repeatedly come under strong criticism from the academia. On the other hand, compared to the wide range of lexical meanings in Chinese, the word meaning in English is usually more specific. Therefore, it often appears that the same Chinese words need to use different English words to express. For example, the word "责任" in the legal system of the source text Chinese, has many possible associated translations in the target language system English, such as duty, liability, responsibility etc.

III. POLYSEMOUS JUDGMENT TERMS IN CHINESE

Many foreign and domestic scholars, such as Klein & Murphy (2001), Hjort-Pedersen & Faber (2001), Rodd, Gaskell & Marslen-Wilson (2002), Koskela (2005), Beretta, Fiorentino & Poeppel (2005), Hino, Pexman & Lupker (2006), Li (2007), Klepousniotou & Baum (2007) have been discussing the concrete contents of polysemy for years. Fillmore and Atkins (2000) argued that the definition stipulates three elements: (i) although polysemous words have different meanings, they come mostly from a same central origin. (ii) A framework is formed between these diverse meanings. (iii) The internal understanding (or understanding the "inner" one) is conducive to the external understanding (or understanding of the "outer" one). For Hebdige (1979), in the frame of polysemous word each article has the potential to produce large amounts of meaning. According to Middleton (1990/2002), no polysemous word is almost impossible.

In the following, there are some examples from *Collins English Dictionary*. At first, we could take the word "Man" as an example.

Example 1. *Are you a gambling man, Mr. Berth?*

Example 2. *...as the Stock-port man collected his winnings...*

These two examples are refereed to a group or kind of people who have similar features.

Example 3. *She had not expected the young man to reappear before yesterday...*

In this sentence, the man refers to an adult male human being.

Example 4. *...if they see your man cuddle you in the bathroom or kitchen.*

Here has the word "man" specific meaning: some people refer to a woman's husband, lover, or boyfriend as her man.

Actually, example 1or 2 contains 3, and 3 contains 4.

There is also a set of Chinese judgment terms that are more polysemous than their English counterparts within the legal domain. Therefore, there is a lack of one-to-one correspondence of legal terms between English and Chinese.

Here we could take the word "裁决" as an example. We have usually "sentence" and "verdict" as choices. The word "sentence" usually refers to the punishment that the suspect receives in a law court after he or she was convicted. The word "verdict" usually refers to the final judgment given by a judge or jury at the end of a trial. Therefore, in the first example sentence from *Collins: Cobuild English Dictionary*, the word "Sentence" is chosen as the translation word:

Example 1. *The person carry a maximum sentence of 15 years.*

It means that the person receives a punishment of 15 years after he or she was convicted.

In Example 2 (also from *Collins: Cobuild English Dictionary*), the word "Verdict" is chosen as the translation word:

The jury returned a unanimous guilty verdict. It means that the jury had a final decision.

Despite of their semantic relatedness (because both are related to the results of a trial), the "verdict" and the "sentence" are sufficiently distinguished. However, when expressed in, or more often translated into, Chinese, the accuracy is somehow weakened.

IV. CORPUS-BASED EXPLORATION AND METHOD

A corpus is a collection of authentic texts and documents prepared for computer processing (Hunston 2).Nowadays corpora have a verity of uses, here are some summarized: For language learning, corpora can be explored by students themselves to "observe nuances of usage and to make comparisons between languages" (Hunston 13). For language teaching, corpora can provide information about "how a language works that may not be accessible to native speaker intuition" (Hunston 13). Many scholars, such as Connor & Upton(2009), Thompson & Hunston(2010), argued that translators could take advantages of corpora to make their translations more accurate and native. What's more, corpora are regarded as perfect platforms of translation verification. Besides, corpora are significant resources for dictionary, especially frequency-dictionary, and for research of linguistic, stylistic and culture.

The type of corpora depends on the purpose of the corpus. Here are some common ones: Specialized corpus, General corpus, Comparable corpus, Parallel corpus, Learner corpus, Pedagogic corpus, Historical or diachronic corpus, Monitor corpus (Hunston 16). Specialized (legal) and parallel corpora are used in the study of this paper.

We take "责任""判决"these two typical words as examples, which are used in high frequency in the legal context and translation. We searched the Chinese word in the corpus and took out respectively two or three examples for every translation possibility from the searching results. All of the following items and examples are taken from the "Parallel Corpus of China's Legal Documents (PCCLD)" (http://corpus.usx.edu.cn/lawcorpus1/index.asp, http://corpus.usx.edu.cn/lawcorpus3/index.asp, http://corpus.usx.edu.cn/lawcorpus2/index.asp) and the sources and

reference are cited in brackets after the examples. These data are moderate in quantity and reasonable in distribution, and they could reflect the actual use of a language item.

A. The Word in Chinese "责任"

The corpus retrieval results show that the corresponding English translation has the following possibilities:
(1) duty
Example a) *業主的責任 (from HK0303C0229)*
Translation: <u>DUTIES</u> *OF PROPRIETORS (from HK0303C0229)*
Example b) *司法常務官有責任將結果通知審裁處 (from HK0004C0418)*
Translation: <u>Duty</u> *of Registrar to notify tribunal of result (from HK0004C0418)*
Example c) *免除破產人在第(1)款下的責任 (from HK0005C0889)*
Translation: *Release the bankrupt from his <u>duty</u> under subsection (1) (from HK0005C0889)*
Analysis: The results from the corpus indicate that the word "duty" usually refers to a task that someone has to perform for legal reasons (example a and b), or the force that someone is bound to do out of his or her obligations (example c).
(2) responsibility
Example a) *……但該管制人員須負個人責任。(from HK0001C0852)*
Translation: *The controlling officer may, on his personal <u>responsibility</u>, ... (from HK0001C0852)*
Example b) *……規定律師無須因疏忽而負上法律責任， 或免除他負上如非有該等條文則作為律師須負上的任何責任，均屬無效。" (from HK0708C0325)*
Translation: *... or that he shall be relieved from any <u>responsibility</u> to which he would otherwise be subject as a solicitor, shall be void. (from HK0708C0325)*
Example c) *保管人: 需要对于客户证券负法律責任的金融机构。 (from 财经双语词典 C0368）*
Translation: *Custodian: A financial institution that has the legal <u>responsibility</u> for a customer's securities. (from 财经双语词典 E0368)*
Analysis: From the results of corpus, we could find that the word "responsibility" is used in highest frequency, which refers to duties because of someone's task or position (example a and b), or the action that will protect someone's interests(example c).
(3) liability
Example a) *該人須承擔的法律責任及義務，與破產人在破產呈請提出當日根據該財產的租契而須承擔者相同。(from HK0006C0341)*
Translation: *...subject to the same <u>liabilities</u> and obligations as the bankrupt was subject to under the lease in respect of the property at the date when the <u>bankruptcy</u> petition was filed; or... (from HK0006C0341)*
Example b) *截至 1990 年 3 月 31 日學生貸款基金就財務委員會核准的計劃而從學生貸款基金批出貸款予學生所須承擔的一切法律責任。(from HK0002C0040)*
Translation: *all the <u>liabilities of</u> the Student Loan Fund in respect of schemes approved by the Finance Committee as at 31 March 1990 for the purpose of granting loans to students out of the Student Loan Fund. (from HK0002C0040)*
Analysis: The word "liability" generally refers to reasons which cause problems or embarrassment (example a) or a financial obligation(example b).
Conclusion: This Chinese word has been mostly identified as the translation equivalent for "duty, liability, responsibility" in the bilingual corpus of court judgments. It is concluded that "duty" focuses on somebody; "responsibility" is more often used to express the word "责任" and in general together with a definite description like personal, court, retiree and so on; "liability" is generally used in some specific fields. In this way, we could improve the accuracy of terms when we process some Chinese-English legal translations.

B. The Word in Chinese "判决"（或"裁决""决定""裁定"）

The corpus retrieval results show that the corresponding English translation has the following possibilities:
(1) verdict
Example a) *陪审团作出"无罪"判决。*
Translation: *The <u>verdict</u> from the jury is NOT GUILTY.*
Example b) *第二百零九条 第一审人民法院判决被告人无罪、免除刑事处罚的，如果被告人在押，在宣判后应当立即释放。 (from 刑事诉讼法 c579）*
Translation: *Article 209 If a defendant in custody is given the <u>verdict</u> of not guilty or exempted from criminal punishment by a People's Court of first instance, ... (from 刑事诉讼法 e579)*
Analysis: As we have discussed, the word "verdict" usually refers to the final judgment given by a judge or jury at the end of a trial. The retrieval results also clearly verified the statements.
(2) judgment

Example a) *第十二条 法官对与当事人实体权利和诉讼权利有关的措施和判决应当依法说明理由，避免主观、片面地作出结论或者采取措施。（from 法官道德准则C020）*

Translation: *Article 12. A judge should specify the reasons for the measures and judgment relating to the substantial rights and litigating right of the parties. ... (from 法官道德准则 E020)*

Example b) *第三十九条 ......，协议不成时，由人民法院根据财产的具体情况，照顾子女和女方权益的原则判决。（from 婚姻法C081）*

Translation: *Article 39 ... In cases where an agreement cannot be reached, the people's court shall make a judgment in consideration of the actual circumstance of the property and on the principle of caring for the rights and interests of the wife and the child or children.（from 婚姻法E081）*

Analysis: The examples indicate that the word "judgment" is usually a decision made by a judge or by a court of law (example a and b). In this sense, the word "judgment" has similar use and meaning with "verdict".

(3) decision

Example a) *第七十五条 金融监督管理部门自收到设立保险公司的正式申请文件之日起六个月内，应当作出批准或者不批准的决定。（from 保险法c178）*

Translation: *Article 75 The financial supervision and regulation department shall make a decision approving or disapproving the application, ...（from 保险法e178）*

Example b) *复议期间，原处罚决定照常执行。（from 价格管理条例C103）*

Translation: *The original penalty decision shall be implemented as usual during the period of reconsideration. （from 价格管理条例C103）*

Analysis: The word "decision" has been rendered as "决定"in Chinese, chosen what should be done or which is the best possibility of various actions, among many possibilities.

(4) order

Example a) *拒不履行人民法院已经发生法律效力的判决、裁定的。(from 民事诉讼法 C305)*

Translation: *...refusing to carry out legally effective judgments or orders of the people's court. (from 民事诉讼法 C305)*

Example b) *海事法院对确权诉讼作出的判决、裁定具有法律效力，当事人不得提起上诉。（from 海诉程序法 C292）*

Translation: *The judgment and order made by the maritime court on an action for affirming rights shall be legally effective, the parties shall not file an appeal.（from 海诉程序法C292）*

Analysis: The word "order" is usually used with the word "judgment" as the translation for the word "裁定".

Conclusion: We could conclude that the word "verdict" and "judgment" are preferred to be translated into "判决" "裁决". The word "verdict" refers usually to a decision of a legal group like the jury or the board; the word "judgment" is more frequently applied and ordinarily combined with someone who gives out the legal decision like a judge or a court. The word "decision" has been in general rendered as "决定"in Chinese and the word "order" is usually applied for the translation of the word "裁定".

V. CONCLUSION

As the foundation of legal translation, accuracy and precision are the dominant factors to decide the quality of legal translations. However, not all translators are so competent to translate legal documents and texts precisely, which are resulted from different knowledge and culture background. The above mentioned two examples are taken to discuss, how can translators correctly use the corpus to choose the accurate word in the translation process. We could get the impression that through the correct use of the retrieval results from the corpus, the accuracy and precision of polysemous judgment terms in legal translation could be verified and improved. It could be also foreseen that the corpus is exerting more influences on translation in legal and other fields.

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If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

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