Mental and Relational Process of Transitivity in Donne’s and Blake’s Poems: A Systemic Functional Linguistics Approach

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Abstract: This research occupied the transitivity system to analyze Donne’s and Blake’s poems, then specifically, it investigated each line containing mental and relation process. Elaborating the analysis, it as well applied descriptive analysis method. Fortunately, from six poems, the researcher identified thirty four lines indicating sixteen mental processes, and twenty three relational processes. It could be reported that two classifications of relational process were found; attributive and identifying relational process. Furthermore, the finding showed that there are some verbs usually used to indicate mental process, those are ‘love’, ‘honor’, ‘know’, ‘think’, ‘hear’, ‘see’, ‘repent’, ‘mind’, ‘want’, ‘fear’, and ‘dream’. Besides, there are four indications that are able to differentiate attributive relational process from identifying relational process; those are verbs (have and mean), articles (a/an, and the), adjectives (dead, tired, spent, young, bare, cold, joy, happy, and warm), and circumstance of place. Conducting this research, the researcher assumed that it could be an inspiration for other researchers to take more attention on such research since it combines linguistic and literary nuance.

Key words: mental and relational process, senser-attribute, token-value, circumstance, attributive-identifying.

Introduction

As a genre of literature, poem constructed in lines and stanzas as well is a medium of expressing ideas. Moreover, sometimes poets try to hide the intended meaning and monopolize the words in order to build up a nice structure of a poem. According to Bugeja (2001) poem contains ideas unifying thought and feeling, it shapes how people perceive the world and excites people with images of beauty or moment of truth. Thus, poets as the composer try to convey the real world by occupying the words. For instances

“She was a Phantom of delight
When first she gleamed upon my sight;
(Wordsworth, She was a phantom of delight, 1st and 2nd line)

It seems that Wordsworth tried to depict what came to his sight then transferred and expressed it by words, therefore, it can be posited that poem is made in order to express the reflection of world. On the other hand, the researcher argued that the instances of two lines above as well can be analyzed based on the linguistic point of view, for instance by applying systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Thus, SFL views language as a resource for making meaning, further Gerot and Wignel (1995) stated that this approach attempt to describe language in actual use and so focus on text and context. Besides, it concerns on how the meaning of texts are realized,
therefore the researcher would conduct a research based on this point of view in order to dig out more insight.

Specifically, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) there are three lines of meaning in the clause; clause as a message, clause as exchange and clause as representation. What this research was going to occupy is the last one i.e. clause as representation or it is called transitivity in SFL. As proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 170) that the transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types. Further, Gerot and Wignel (1995) posited that through the system of transitivity, there are points which can be explored form the text (clauses); those are who=does=what=to=whom, who/what=is=what/who, when, where, why or how function. This argumentation ensures the researcher to apply the linguistic view especially transitivity system in this present research.

Taking a look deeply on the explanation above, the researcher was interested in that discussion and then found two previous researchers covering about transitivity; they are Sujatna (2013) and Nguyen (2012). In her research, Sujatna did a descriptive analysis of mood and transitivity system on flight department slogan of both national and regional airlines (Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, Myanmar, Cambodia, Vietnam, Brunei Darussalam, and Laos). Especially transitivity, she found three process types; material, relational and mental processes in national airlines, while four process types are found in regional airline; material, mental, relational, and behavioural processes. Further, she identified that relational process more often appear than other process types. On the other hand, Nguyen as well did a research of transitivity on a novel, relating to the result of this research, Nguyen argued that by concerning on the transitivity, it would help to comprehend the characteristics of the characters in the story especially the main character since this research focused on the main character. Both researchers gave an inspiration to take an eye on this point too, then what makes this present research different form both is that this research analyze poem and tried to correlate the process types and the ideas in poems.

Trying to find out the answer of what this research focused on, the researcher directed the analysis on poems existing in Puritan Age. According to the historical background happened in that time, there was great movement of purifying the religion (the Church of England with everything under the popery). The point is puritan wished to return to more primitive principles, to simplicity, to sobriety, to religious earnestness, personal self-control and to a more democratic church organization. This condition influenced people to be closer to the religion, not only that it as well influenced the development of literature. There was shifting in theme and form. Relating to the theme, this research tried to investigate the transitivity system in the poems especially mental and relational process, the researcher argued that poems in the puritan age covered more on the religious contemplation and paradigm so that both processes would appear and reflect the ideas existing in the poems. Therefore, this research took the poems of two English poets living in the puritan age; they are John Donne and William Blake.

Hopefully, this research is such a chemical compound that can give the contribution on the literature as well linguistics, and become the inspiration for other researcher who is interested in cultivating literary works by applying linguistic approach.
Review of Literature

Transitivity system consists of six process types; those are material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process, and existential process. Each of these processes has its own characteristic. This research would only focus on mental process and relational process. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) mental process, as the clause of sensing, is concerned with our experience of the world of our own consciousness. It was added by Gerot and Wignel (1995) and Sujatna (2013) that mental process shows the feeling, thinking, perceiving and having emotional action to things. Mental process in clauses has three elements; the participant (senser and phenomenon), the process (mental) and circumstance. For instances;

[I wandered lonely as a cloud]
(Wordsworth, I wandered lonely as a cloud, 1st line)
[When first she gleamed upon my sight;]
(Wordsworth, She was a phantom of delight, 2nd line)

Taking a look on two clauses above, both can be classified as mental process since the verbs (wandered and gleamed) relate to thinking and perceiving. From both, the researcher identified the participants (I, she, and my sight) and circumstances (‘lonely’, ‘as a cloud’ and ‘when first’). As well, there is a difference of structure between both clauses; the order of the first clause is that senser is followed with process (verb), while the second clause the word ‘she’ as the subject takes role as the phenomenon while the senser is ‘my sight’. It means that not every subject is the senser. Furthermore, there are three classifications of mental process; affective, cognitive and perceptive.

On the other hand, relational process is a process expressing state of being. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), a relational clause serves to characterize and identify. Further, Gerot and Wignel (1995) it involves states of having. For instances;

[“She was a Phantom of delight]
(Wordsworth, She was a phantom of delight, 1st line)
[They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude;]
(Wordsworth, I wandered lonely as a cloud, 21st & 22nd line)

The first clause above shows that there are two participants; ‘she’ as carrier, while ‘a Phantom of delight’ as attribute. Carrier and attribute are the term found in the attributive relational process. According to Gerot and Wignell (1995), Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001), Eggins (2004), Lock (2004), Bloor and Bloor (2004), and Sujatna (2013), therefore, the second clause, classified as the identifying relational process, as well consists of two participants; ‘eye’ is as token, while ‘the bliss of solitude’ is as the value.

Methodology

Describing mental and relational process in the poems, the ideas embedded in the poems and the correlation process types toward the ideas, this research occupied descriptive analysis. What this
research analyzed are poems taken from John three Donne’s poems (Break of Day, The Sun Rising, and The Apparition) and three William Blake’s poems (The Chimney Sweeper, The Garden of Love, and The Angel) randomly.

Furthermore, this research applied two steps in collecting the data; identification of process and clausal formation. Identifying the process, the researcher took attention on the verb/verbal group found in the poems, since process type is basically referred to the verb. It means that identifying verb automatically identify the process types. The purpose of this step is to collect mental and relational process and to part the other process types. The second step is to take out the clause in which the process type exists.

**Findings**

Discussing both processes, the researcher would elaborate each poem orderly. Then, after being calculated, there are thirty four lines indicating mental and relational process. The analysis will be started from Donne’s poems and followed with Blake’s poems. The Following are the detail elaboration.

**Break of Day / John Donne**

1. **Light** 
   - **Carrier:** Pr. Relational
   - **Attribute:** Pr. Relational
   - **all eye:** (7th line)

2. **This**
   - **Dummy subject:** Pr. Relational
   - **the worst**
   - **that it could say:** (9th line)

3. **And that**
   - **Senser:** Mental
   - **loved**
   - **my heart and honor**
   - **so,** (11th line)

4. **Oh, that**
   - **Dummy Subject:** relational
   - **’s**
   - **the worst disease of love:** (14th line)

5. **He**
   - **Carrier:** relational
   - **business and makes love, doth do** (17th line)

Finding five clauses in this poem, the researcher then analyzed them in order to part mental and relational process and it is found that there is only one mental process in this first poem. Take a look on the clause (3), it seems that there are two verbs which as well can be classified as mental process; they are ‘loved’ and ‘honor’. On the other hand, the relational processes exist in this first poem contain two classification; attributive and identifying. When the participant (subject) is carrier, it would be attributive relational as in clauses (1) and (5), then when the participant (subject) is token so it would be identifying relational process as in clauses (2) and (4). In order to identify which relational process as identifying and attributive, it is by taking attention on the information about the subject whether it is explaining the quality of subject (for attributive) or elaborating the identity of subject (for identifying).
In this research, the researcher identified two demonstratives; ‘this’ and ‘that’. Concerning on the context, ‘this’ in the clause (2) is called *token* since when the researcher took a look on the previous lines, it referred to ‘light’, therefore, these two demonstrative has the role as pronoun. Thus, in the clauses where these demonstratives exist, they are called as the dummy subject.

**The Sun Rising / John Donne**

6. *Love, all like, no season knows, not clime.* (9th line)
   - **Senser**: *Love, all like, no season knows, not clime*
   - **pr. mental**: phenomenon

7. *Nor hours, days, months, which are the rags of time.* (10th line)
   - **token**: *Nor hours, days, months, which are*
   - **pr. relational**: value

8. *Why shouldst thou think?* (12th line)
   - **(VG)-senser**: Why shouldst
   - **pr. mental**: think

9. *But that I would not lose her sight so long.* (14th line)
   - **(VG)-senser**: But that I
   - **pr. mental**: would not lose her sight so long

10. *Ask for those kings whom thou saw’st yesterday.* (19th line)
    - **senser**: Ask for those kings whom
    - **pr. mental**: thou saw’st yesterday

11. *And thou shalt hear. “All here in one bed lay.”* (20th line)
    - **senser**: And thou
    - **pr. mental**: shalt hear. “All here in one bed lay.”

12. *She’s all states, and all princes I.* (21st line)
    - **token**: She’s
    - **pr. relational**: all states, and all princes I

13. *Nothing else is.* (22nd line)
    - **attribute**: Nothing else

14. *This bed thy center is, these walls thy sphere.* (30th line)
    - **value**: This bed thy center is
    - **token**: these walls thy sphere

*Note: ‘VG’ stands for verbal group, and ‘Pr.’ stands for process*

Take a look on the clause (6) and (7), the researcher tried to reconstruct the clause so that it will be easily explained as follow;

[Love, all like, knows no season, not clime, nor hours, days, months, which are the rags of time.]

This clause or called as clause complex has two processes, mental and relational process. The researcher argued that ‘Love, all like,’ is the *senser* and the verb ‘knows’ is as mental process while the rest i.e. [no season, not clime, nor hours, days, month, which are the rags of time] would be the *phenomenon*. Then, this *phenomenon* could be classified as identifying relational process, the part taking role as *token* is [no season, not clime, nor hours, days, month,], while as the *value* is [the rags of time]. Relating to mental process in this poem, it consists of verbal group (the researcher used ‘VG’ to indicate it); modal and verb, meaning that a process can be both verb and verbal group as in clause (8), (9) and (11).
Take a look on the clause (11), the researcher posited that the expression [“All here in one bed lay.”] is classified as phenomenon, since when it is related to the context of the clause, it seems like an utterance being heard by the senser (thou) and has apostrophes at the beginning and the end. According to the transitivity system, even though each element is put reversibly it still has its own name. Just like the clause (14), the researcher assumed that the construction of the clause could be [thy center is this bed], therefore ‘this bed’ being put at the beginning of the sentence, it would be value.

The Apparition / John Donne

15. When by thy scorn, O murderess, I am dead, (1st line)

16. And thee, feigned vestal, in worse arms shall see; (5th line)

17. And he, whose those art then, being tired before, (7th line)

18. Will, if thou stir, or pinch to wake him, think (8th line)

19. Lest that preserve thee, and since my love is spent, (15th line)

20. I had rather thou shouldst painfully repent, (16th line)

All of the relational processes in this third Donne’s poem are classified as attributive relational process, since the words (‘dead’, ‘tired’, and ‘spent’) explain the quality of the carrier or in this case they show the attribute pertaining to the carrier. It is usually found in the poem the inverted parts, as happened in clause (16), the researcher argued that it was intentionally done by the poet in order to get the same end rhyme of some lines. If this clause is reconstructed as the common one, it would be [thee shall see feigned vestal in worse arms]. Therefore in the analysis, ‘feigned vestal’ is as the phenomenon and ‘in worse arms’ is as the circumstance of this mental process. Especially clause (18), the senser of it is in the previous clause, since it is actually a clause complex being parted in two lines.

The Chimney Sweeper / William Blake

21. When my mother died I was very young, (1st line)

22. “Hush, Tom! Never mind it, for, when your head’s bare, (7th line)

23. You know that the soot cannot spoil your white hair.” (8th line)

24. As Tom was asleeing, he had such a sight! (10th line)
25. And by came an Angel who had a bright key, (13th line)

26. And the Angel told Tom, if he ’d be a good boy, (19th line)

27. He ’d have God for this father, and never want joy, (20th line)

28. Though the morning was cold, Tom was happy and warm; (23rd line)

29. So if all do their duty they need not fear harm, (24th line)

There are nine lines that the researcher identified from Blake’s the Chimney Sweeper containing mental and relational process. It was found that there are eight relational processes and three mental processes. Then, the researcher classified all relational processes found as the attributive relational process, since it seems that every part after the process explains the condition of what the senser felt and had. Another thing that the researcher got that it is not only auxiliary verb (is, am, are, was and were) which can be used in relational, but also the word ‘have’, as in the clause (24), (25) and (27).

Take a look on clauses (27), the word ‘want’ is classified as mental process, for it is followed by phenomenon. If it is followed by verb e.g. ‘write’ – ‘want to write’, then it would be classified as material process. While the other mental processes in this poem show the psychological response toward certain condition, just like ‘mind’, ‘know’ and ‘fear’.

The Garden of Love / William Blake

30. And saw what I never had seen: (2nd line)

31. And I saw it was filled with graves, (9th line)

Unfortunately, there are only two mental processes that the researcher found in Blake’s the Garden of Love, and both mental processes have the same process i.e. ‘see’ (the root word). Take a look on both clause (30) and (31), they are such a clause complex but it seems incomplete since the previous line is the missing part. Therefore, the complete one is [I went to the garden of love and saw what I never had seen and I saw it was filled with the graves]. Concerning on the clause (30), the researcher argued that the construction ‘what I never had seen:’ can be as well classified as phenomenon, it becomes something that the senser perceived. Further, the researcher calculated that there are three mental processes in this poem.

The Angel / William Blake

32. I dreamt a dream! What can it mean? (1st line)
33. And that I was a maiden Queen (2\textsuperscript{nd} line)

34. And grey hairs were on my head. (16\textsuperscript{th} line)

From this final Blake’s poem, the researcher judged three lines containing relational and mental processes. There are three relational processes found, one is attributive relational process and two are identifying relational process. Take a look on clause (34), there is no any value after the process, it is only circumstance of place, but it is still classified as the identifying relational process since it means that the token ‘grey hairs’ is identified to be exist on the head or in this case ‘on my head’. The researcher as well got the word ‘mean’ in clause (32) included in the words used in identifying relational process.

**Conclusion**

This research found that there are thirty four lines containing both relational and mental processes. Further, regarding to the analysis, there are thirty nine clauses indicating thirty nine processes automatically. In detail, there are twenty three relational processes and sixteen mental processes. The researcher as well identified some verbs used in those six poems as mental process, they are ‘love’, ‘honor’, ‘know’, ‘think’, ‘hear’, ‘see’, ‘repent’, ‘mind’, ‘want’, ‘fear’, and ‘dream’. While in the relational processes found, there are three forms appeared, they are ‘have’, ‘mean’, ‘would be’, and ‘to be’ (is, am, are, was, were). In order to identify which attributive and identifying relational process, this research clarified that there are two conditions to judge attributive relational process; 1) if the process is followed with adjectives (dead, tired, spent, young, bare, cold, joy, happy, and warm) and noun group (being begun with article a/an), and 2) if the process itself is possessive word (have). On the other hand, forms setting the identifying relational process are circumstance of place, article ‘the’, and the word ‘mean’.

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**References**

The Effect of Test Preparation on the Test Performance 
The Case of the IELTS and TOEFL iBT Reading Tests

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Abstract: The main objective of this study was to see whether preparation influences the learners’ reading comprehension of IELTS and TOEFL? Also as a subsidiary question, this study tried to find answer(s) to the following question: Does getting a high score imply enhancement in the reading comprehension ability? To this end, sixty EFL learners were selected to take part in a preparation program in which they were instructed different techniques and strategies to deal with the reading section of TOEFL and IELTS tests. Although the participants’ scores enhanced in the post tests, the preparation program did differently on these two tests (IELTS and TOEFL). Generally, findings showed that the preparation effect was more visible on performance of the IELTS reading test than on that of the TOEFL reading test. The IELTS preparation group significantly outperformed the TOEFL preparation group on the IELTS reading test. In contrast, the TOEFL preparation group performed better than the IELTS preparation group on the TOEFL reading test, but this difference was not significant. These different effects of test preparation on test performance are clarified in the current study findings.

Key Words: TOEFL / IELTS - preparation effects - reading ability - reading construct

1. Introduction

With the ever-increasing importance of IELTS and TOEFL tests for non-native speakers, as decisive gateways to better education opportunities and obtaining survival skills in the countries where English is spoken as first language, getting focused preparation for these instrumental tests has increasingly become a vital requirement. This special preparation may be of different sorts. For example, test familiarization is designed to ensure that prospective test takers are well versed in the general skills required for test taking and to help them gain familiarity with the procedures that are required to take a particular test. This type of preparation may entail, for instance, exposing test takers to the kinds of item formats they will encounter, making certain that they know when to guess, and helping them learn to apportion their time appropriately. Special preparation of this sort is generally regarded as desirable, as it presumably enables individuals to master the mechanics of test taking, thereby freeing them to focus on, and accurately
demonstrate, the skills and abilities that are being assessed (Powers, 2012). A variety of different types of test preparation: formal commercial coaching, school-offered test preparation programs, and test sponsor-provided test familiarization have been introduced (Powers, 2012).

Test developers, researchers, teachers and students/test takers have always been concerned with the issue of the effect of test preparation on the learners’ performance of IELS and TOEFL tests. However, on the other hand, from a more theoretical and pedagogical point of view, researchers and test designers often highlight the merit of a test which can independently measure the underlying ability of test-takers regardless of how well they have prepared or crammed for the test. In other words, if preparing results in a higher test score regardless of whether the candidate’s ability has increased, thus the construct validity of the test is questionable (Nguyen, 2007). From a practical standpoint, however, teachers and students/test takers often feel the vitality of test preparation before being tested.

In Iran, preparation programs are normally deemed so much pertinent though there is hardly a clear and predefined program or plan for preparing the English language learners for special purposes like partaking in the TOEFL or IELTS exams. This problem stems, to a large extent, from the status of English learning and teaching in Iran, where English is learnt as a foreign language, so obviously there is little, if any, exposure to authentic situations to use real English as a back-up means to compensate for the typical deficiencies of classroom contexts and other testing events. Moreover, only the ‘passive skills’, i.e. reading and writing, (though this term has been harshly criticized by Chastain, 1988) are paid attention. In fact, reading skill is seen as the main source of providing learners with target language input, and expectedly less heed is given to reading section in preparation programs in Iran. The taken-for-granted expectation among teachers and test-takers is that the reading section of the international tests would be the trump card to get high score due to all the preparation learners received during their school years and college attendance. Given the importance attached to it, this skill was chosen as the independent variable for this study. Iranian learners often expect that if they attend TOEFL or IELTS preparation programs, then their scores on all skills will improve, especially on reading skill, for the reason mentioned earlier. Their expectations, however, are not always met.

The reasons for the gap between their expectations and what actually occurs have not been researched in-depth to date in Iran. It is thus argued that from theoretical and practical outlooks, it is useful to investigate the effect of test preparation on test scores in general, and on reading test scores in particular in an Iranian setting.

In this study, test candidates were instructed various combinations of test preparation materials to enable them to become more familiar with the reading section of the IELTS and TOEFL, with each of the item types they contain, and the strategies necessary to tackle this
section in each test. The materials included full-length sample reading tests, and hints or tips for approaching each of these item types.

2. Review of related literature
2.1 The relationship between test preparation programs and test score improvement

Messick (1982, as cited in Powers, 2012) provided an insightful logical analysis of the ways in which special test preparation may impact validity, there appears to have been little empirical research to demonstrate how such practices may affect, for example, the relationship of test scores to other relevant measures. Most of the studies of test preparation have focused on the extent to which these practices cause spurious test score improvement. However, although relatively rare, researchers have also examined, in both a logical and an empirical manner, the effects of test preparation on the empirical relationships of test scores to other indicators of developed ability.

The impact of special preparation on test validity is a germane consideration. Though the assumption is sometimes made that preparation can serve only to adulterate the construct validity and impair the predictive power of a test, some kinds of special preparation may, by reducing irrelevant sources of test difficulty, actually improve both construct validity and predictive validity (Hayes & Read, 2004; Farnsworth, 2013).

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between test preparation programs and test performance scores (Anderman & Power, 1980; Bangert, Kulik, & Kulik, 1983; Powers, 1985, 1986, 2012; Geranpayeh, 1994; Bachman, Davidson, Ryan, & Choi, 1995; Thiel, 1995; Brown, 1998; Hayes & Watt, 1998; Celestine & Ming, 1999; Hayes & Read, 2004; Nguyen, 2007; Cho and Bridgeman, 2012; Sheshkelani, Ahari & Aidinlou, 2012). The findings from this body of research, however, are to some extent contradictory: while a relationship between test preparation and test performance is acknowledged in some studies, doubts about this relationship have also been voiced. Thanks largely to Messick (1982), the question of the effectiveness of test preparation has been extended beyond the search for a simple dichotomous yes/no answer to the oversimplified question “Does preparation work?” Partly as a result, researchers now seem more inclined to examine the components of test preparation programs in order to ascertain the particular features that are implicated in its effectiveness. This complex picture can be seen in research conducted in both non-language and language testing contexts.

2.2 The effect of preparation programs on non-language tests

In research into non-language tests, incompatible findings can be seen regarding the effect of preparation programs. Anderman and Power (1980) studied the effect of a special preparation program on the verbal part of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT). The researchers found that the
special preparation program had very little impact on students’ total scores in the SAT verbal section. Powers (1985) studied the effect of a special preparation program on scores of academic aptitude tests by using a representative sample (3%) from 5,107 candidates. His finding was similar to that of Alderman and Powers (1980): the preparation program had diminutive influence on test-takers scores.

In contrast, Bangert, Kulik & Kulik (1983) used a “meta-analysis” or “the analysis of analyses” method to investigate the effectiveness of preparation programs on achievement test scores. By statistically analyzing the results of a large collection of individual studies, they concluded that preparation boosted achievement scores and that there was a positive correlation between the length of preparation period and the achievement score achieved. Similarly, Powers (1986) used a quantitative summary method to synthesize the results of ten previous studies on the effect of test practice on a number of test item characteristics. He found a strong relation between test preparation and (a) the length and complexity of the test instructions, and (b) the format of the test item.

Powers (1986) suggest that GRE analytical ability scores may relate more strongly to academic performance after special test preparation than under more standard conditions and that they may relate less to measures of other cognitive abilities (verbal and quantitative scores). No consistent effects were detected on either the internal consistency or the convergent validity of the analytical measure.

McLaughlin, Skaggs, and Patterson (2009) examined GED Test preparation activities and created eight mutually exclusive test preparation profile groups: public school adult education with or without a practice test, community college adult education with or without a practice test, individual study with or without a practice test, practice test only, and none. It was demonstrated that the group with the highest pass rates was the individual study with a practice test group, and the lowest pass rates were recorded for the public school adult education without a practice test group.

2.3 Research on the effect of preparation programs on language tests

The effect of test preparation on language tests is a matter of some controversy: the effectiveness of preparation programs and products, unequal access to them, and concerns about the impact of preparation on the validity of test scores have always been at issue.

Bachman et al (1995) reported that test preparation did not produce a significant gain in test scores. Similarly, Celestine and Ming (1999) found that IELTS preparation did not make a significant difference to the scores of either average or high proficiency students from different disciplines. They went further by explaining that a preparation course did not have any effect on
the test scores because ‘IELTS is a test of proficiency thus the knowledge of test-taking strategies cannot substitute for fluency’ (p. 46).

Another study referring to the effect of IELTS preparation on test performance in Asian students was carried out by Hayes and Read (2004). The findings revealed that though approximately half of the student population improved their scores, the difference was not significant. An earlier study by Hayes and Watt (1998) also focused on the effect of the IELTS test preparation on the test performance of Asian students. They found that a two-month program with a testing rather than a teaching focus did not improve students’ performance. A similar finding was reported by Elder & O’Loughlin (2003) in their study of IELTS score gains of 112 students after a three-month intensive English study in either Australian or New Zealand. Although the average score gain of these students was half a band overall with a slightly greater average improvement for listening, there was no advantage for the subset of students who had taken a course focusing specifically on test preparation. In a more recent study, Sheshkelani, Ahari and Aidinlou (2012) found that Iranian English major students without test preparation got lower scores in listening than those who were prepared for TOEFL.

However, a number of studies lend support to the effect of testing preparation programs on test performance. Brown (1998) compared the performance on an IELTS test of students in an IELTS preparation course and a more broadly focused EAP course. A positive effect of the IELTS preparation program on the students’ performance was found. However, the sample sizes of the two groups in Brown’s study were rather small (9 vs. 5) and only writing skills were researched. Thus the findings of his study need to be interpreted with caution. Brown called for ‘a replication of the study with a larger population sample’ (p. 36). Hayes and Read (2004) found a significant difference in the mean score in the IELTS listening sub-test of 12 Asian students after a course focused on IELTS preparation though their overall score improvement was not significant. In a larger scale study, Geranpayeh (1994) examined the comparability of TOEFL and IELTS scores across two groups (group A: 113 subjects and group B: 103 subjects). Group B had gone through the TOEFL preparation course and were more familiar with this test than group A. A test preparation effect was found as group B performed significantly better than group A.

Farnsworth (2013) states that most language assessment research on test coaching has looked at the effect of test formats on instructional practices, or so-called test washback, and not looked at score increases due to coaching practice. Existing research, however, has shown similarly modest results of coaching on scores (Hamp-Lyons (1991); Brown, 1998; Nguyen, 2007). This effect is intrinsically difficult to measure however, because genuine proficiency gains and score gains derived from mastering the test format and/or test-taking strategies are very hard to tease apart, and real proficiency gains likely occur alongside “test wisdom” score gains during test coaching instruction.
The issue that finds head from these studies on the effects of preparation programs is that researchers have been at odds in their findings regarding the effect of language test preparation on test performance. The differences in the findings might be due to many factors, as pointed out by Nguyen (2007), such as the kinds of tests and/or test formats, the sample sizes, the background disciplines, the background cultures, and the language proficiency levels of the studies’ participants. In addition, the position of English, i.e., EFL or ESL is a critical factor, as perceived in Iranian context. Consequently, more research on this issue is needed to better understand the effect of test preparation on test performance.

In a similar vein, following Nguyen’ (2007) study, which made comparison between the effect two preparation programs on learners’ performance on the listening skill, this study aimed at investigating the effect of test preparation on the reading section of TOEFLiBT and IELTS and answering the following questions:

1: What is the effect of test preparation on test performance on the IELTSandTOEFLiBT reading section?
2: To what extant would the learners’ performance in the reading section of IELTS and TOEFL iBTbe indicative of theiractualability in reading skill?

3. Methodology

Research contexts and participants

Participants for the study were 60 Iranian students who were doing either the IELTS or TOEFL preparation courses in Ahvaz and Abadan cities, Khuzestan province in the southern part of Iran for the purpose of maximizing their chances of improving their reading score in TOEFL or IELTS or any similar tests like Ph.D. entrance examination in Iran. The IELTS preparation group consisted of 30 Ph.D. candidates majoring in different fields other than English at a private language institute; the TOEFL preparation group was also 30 Ph.D. candidates from different majors other than language attending another language institute.

3.3 Instruments

It was not possible to obtain operational versions of either test because of security consideration; therefore, the test materials used in the study were the IELTS Sample reading test versions 2010 and the TOEFL iBT practice test online 2010. While this may place certain constraints on the validity of the study, it should be said that the IELTS Specimen practice test published by the British Council, IDP IELTS Australia, and University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations is closer to the real IELTS test than any other commercial IELTS practice tests available. Similarly, the TOEFL iBT practice test available in 2010 was closely contrived to the real TOEFL iBT test. The number of items for each sample test was 40 questions and the time allotted was 60 minutes for each test administration.
3.4 Procedures

3.4.1 Treatment

The IELTS preparation group was provided with instructions on IELTS 6 hours a week in which about 1.5 to 2 hours were devoted to reading skills and doing IELTS reading practice tests. The program lasted for 10 weeks. The English language proficiency of this group of students ranged from IELTS band 5 to IELTS 6.5 with the reading sub-band from 4.5 to 6.5. The TOEFL iBT group was introduced to the TOEFL preparation program for about 2 hours on the first day. After that, instructions were focused on teaching reading skills in general and on the TOEFL iBT reading test in particular. For the participants in the TOEFL group, the training for the TOEFL iBT reading test ran for approximately 3 hours every other day and lasted for 2 weeks. The English language proficiency of the TOEFL preparation group ranged from 35 to 50 on the TOEFL iBT with the reading sub-band from 10 to 31. The time allocated for the preparation of the two groups and the level-off of their average scores were closely scrutinized so that the two groups would be as much the same as possible. This means that the outliers in both groups were excluded prior to study. Each group took the two tests in two different test administrations separately with an interval of 10 days to avoid any imitating of dissimilating effects.

3.4.2 Data collection

All participants in the study took both the IELTS and TOEFL practice tests. In order to avoid any possibility of a test practice effect, 30 participants took the IELTS Specimen 2010 reading test first and the other 30 took the iBT TOEFL reading test first. The data collection design can be summarized as follows (table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IELTS preparation group</th>
<th>TOEFL preparation group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>Group 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 learners</td>
<td>15 learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1: IELTS</td>
<td>TOEFL iBT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEP 2: TOEFL iBT</td>
<td>IELTS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.3 Data analysis

The effect of test preparation on test performance was investigated through a comparison of test performance between the two groups. T-tests were employed for the mean score comparison. It should be noted that the finding in this study ought to be interpreted with caution since the number of test takers is admittedly small for making generalizations, as maintained by (Camilli & Shepard, 1994; McNamara & Roever, 2006).
4. Results

4.1 The effect of preparation on the performance of IELTS reading test

The analysis of raw scores shows an effect of preparation of IELTS reading on the performance of the IELTS reading test for both groups of test takers. The descriptive analysis of the scores is provided in table 2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IELTS Preparation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT Preparation</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is clear from table 2, the mean score and SD of the IELTS preparation group were higher than those of the TOEFL group. Particularly, the SD showed a greater homogeneity in the IELTS group. However, to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, an independent t-test was administered (table 3). The observed value (2.781) was higher than the critical t value (p=1.667) at one d.f. and .05 level of significance. Therefore, we can conclude that there was a significant difference between the groups in the performance on the IELTS reading test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>SE btwn. groups</th>
<th>t_{obs}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IELTS Preparation Group</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>4.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT Preparation Group</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>5.428</td>
<td>1.331</td>
<td>2.781</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 The effect of preparation on the performance of TOEFL reading test

Unlike the descriptive statistics obtained on the performance of the IELTS reading test, where there were clear differences between the two groups, there were less obvious differences in the TOEFL reading test scores across the two groups, as shown in table 4. The maximum and minimum scores of the two groups of test-takers are relatively close (Max. 28 vs. 32 and Min. 16 vs. 18). Besides, the mean score and SD of the two groups, though different, were also close.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IELTS Preparation</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT Preparation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to find out if there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, an independent t-test was used. The observed value was .419 which is smaller than the p-value (1.667) at one \( df \) and .05 level of significance. Table 5 illustrates the inferential statistics. This led us to claim that there was no significant effect of preparation on the performance of TOEFL reading test between the two groups.

Table 5: a comparison of the means of the groups' performance on the TOEFL reading Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>SE btwn.Groups</th>
<th>( t_{obs} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IELTS Preparation Group</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.383</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT Preparation Group</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>3.483</td>
<td>2.620</td>
<td>0.419</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion and conclusion

The descriptive analyses of the raw scores, mean scores, and standard deviation of the two groups are suggestive of the effect of test preparation on test performance. This effect was particularly more evident in the IELTS reading test than in TOEFL iBT reading test. In short, it was found that there was a significant effect of IELTS reading preparation on test performance, while there was no such effect for the TOEFL reading preparation program. These findings support and contradict previous findings. On the effect of preparation on the IELTS reading, this study confirms Elder and O’Loughin (2003), Hayes and Read (2004), and Noguyen(2007), who found significant gains in the learners’ performance on the reading section of IELTS test after an intensive IELTS preparation courses. However, this study contradicts what Celestine and Ming (1999) and Hayes and Watt (1998) voiced regarding the ineffectiveness of the IELTS preparation courses on learners’ scores in the IELTS test.

Moreover, our findings are consistent with what Bachman et al. (1995) who claimed no effect of the TOEFL preparation on the learners’ performance on the reading section. Likewise, in this study the results show no clear effect of the TOEFL iBT preparation on the learners’ performance on the TOEFL iBT test. On the contrary, this study gainsays the findings reported by other researchers (e.g. Geranpayeh, 1994) interested in the same issue. Geranpayeh (1994) compared the effect of TOEFL preparation treatment with no preparation effect on the TOEFL test. He found that those who underwent TOEFL preparation outperformed those who received no instruction. Geranpayeh’ study, however, is different from the present study in that it included an intact group to examine the effect of the independent variable, that is, the treatment. However, in the present study the effect of two different treatments, i.e. IELTS and TOEFL iBT preparation programs were investigated. Another striking difference was the TOEFL test employed in Geranpayeh’s (1994) study (Noguyen, 2007). In that study, the test had less construct validity than its subsequent versions, since it was more ‘amenable’ to test preparation than the more
recent ones (Noguyen, 2007). We believe the results obtained in the TOEFL iBT in this study were not affected by the test taking strategies presented in the treatment.

The differences in the effect of preparation programs on the learners’ performances can be attributed to a number of considerations: firstly, the nature of the IELTS reading test which is quite different from that of the TOEFL reading section. The question types and the task types of the IELTS test impose different demands on the test taker to employ a variety of processes and authentic procedures to embark on answering the questions. On the other hand, in the TOEFL iBT there are a set of limited question types available that can be answered not necessarily by drawing on the strategies needed for the IELTS counterpart section. Therefore, it is tentative to claim that the questions in the IELTS are not only more difficult and demanding than the TOEFL iBT ones, but also they tap on a wide range of skills and abilities beyond the straightforward reading strategies instructed in the classroom. Secondly, the challenge is to fold, and sometimes, unfold the combined strategies needed for the IELTS and without enough practice this is doomed to failure, while for the TOEFL one can compensate for the lack of language skill by relying on his/her global real-world knowledge. We also agree with Noguyen (2007) claim that combining different task types under one section would decrease the test method effect on the test performance, but it may have negative effect, instead. A third reason is the genre of the texts utilized in these two tests. The texts in the IELTS reading section are descriptive, discursive and academic-related subjects and thus can be regarded as richer than the TOEFL iBT texts, where the texts are restricted only to academic domain. This may lead us to conclude that the learners in the IELTS group are more familiar with a variety of genres and did better in the performance phase of the study, accordingly.

One important issue noted by Miyasaka (2000) and Rubenstein (2004) is how test preparation can potentially affect test validity. Miyasaka (2000) stated that the majority of large-scale assessment tests should be designed so that one could make reasonable inferences about the achievement levels of students with respect to content knowledge and/or skills within a given domain. The primary concern is whether a few months of preparation can significantly influence scores. In other words, if preparation does affect test scores, is the purpose of the test to measure the knowledge of the test-taker (pertaining to the topic of the given test)? If yes, how much knowledge is truly being measured, specifically if test-takers have access to tools that may artificially enhance their scores (Rubenstein, 2004, p. 398)?

ACT has noted that the earning of high scores on the ACT should not be merely a reflection of intrinsic talent or provisional preparation, but should reflect a level of accomplishment resulting from hard work, planning, and a solid commitment (ACT, 2005).

But the validity of the test score is compromised when test preparation artificially increases students’ test scores without increasing mastery of the content domain, underlying
subject-area knowledge, and/or testing skill (Perlman, 2004). Further, any test preparation practice that violates ethical standards would in effect nullify any validity of the students’ test results (Miyasaka, 2000). Cho and Bridgeman (2012) express concern about the predictive validity of the TOEFL iBT expressed in terms of correlation with academic success. They maintain the students with higher TOEFL iBT scores tended to earn higher grade point averages (GPA) in their study and the TOEFL iBT provided information about the future academic performance of non-native English speaking students beyond that provided by other admissions tests. Combined with our results in this study, these observations can hardly lead us to conclude that a correlation might indicate a meaningful relationship between TOEFL iBT scores and preparation effect on test performance.

Contrary to what learners expected, their performance on the reading section of the two valid and accredited international tests was not backed up by their previous repertoire of skills acquired in their secondary and tertiary studies. It would be concluded that that formal education of English in our schools and universities doesn’t provide our English students with necessary and enough readiness for International and standard exams of English. So it is of high importance to have extra classes of skill teaching for English students as it is seen how effective and useful it was in for Non-English students. Last not the least is that this study was not a nation-wide, large scale and it is recommended that anyone willing to extend and make solid generalizations conduct it over a larger groups of learners with different levels of proficiency. The findings of the study will provide evidence to the score validity that concerns university admission officers and professors, i.e. whether accurate inferences and decisions can be made from students’ TOEFL and IELTS scores to their actual English language proficiency.

Finally, ETS research on test preparation has been more than an academic exercise. It has resulted in significant—even dramatic—modifications to several tests that ETS offers. These changes are perhaps the clearest example of the impact of ETS’s research on test preparation. However, there have, arguably, been more subtle effects as well. Now, when new assessments are being developed, the potential coachability of proposed new test item types is likely to be a factor in decisions about the final composition of a test. Considerations about test preparation figure into the design of tests, well before these tests are ever administered to test takers.

6. References


The Applications and Translations of *Pun* in English Advertising

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**Abstract:** Advertisement makes use of the simplest language to express the most complex meanings, meanwhile, the language charm in advertisement is fully displayed. Pun, as a kind of rhetoric, is commonly used in advertising, which can make the language implicative, humorous, lively, and witty, and highlight the characteristics of advertisement. This paper elaborates the application in English advertising in the aspects of homophonic, homographic, statement and grammatical pun. What’s more, the translation skills in English advertising are explored based on the four translation methods, including literal translation, table-law respectively, sets translation and compensation translation.

**Key words:** English advertising, pun, translation approaches

1. Introduction

With the high-speed development of commercial trade and economic globalization, international commodity circulation has become increasingly frequent, the producers in each country are scrambling to sell their products and compete in the world market. On the battlefield without smoke of gunpowder, advertising is undoubtedly the most favorable business weapon for merchants. In the background of internationalization, advertising has turned from the past simply “publicize widely” into an integrated way of propaganda which is a combination of marketing, communication, linguistics, sociology, heart, aesthetics and so on. But, finally, the ultimate goal of advertising is to sell goods. In order to achieve this goal, advertisers will use various means of communication, such as enhancing the effect of vision and audition to strengthen propaganda and improve product image. Therefore, as a kind of language to appeal people, advertising is one vital key to success. A great number of advertising terms, can not only cause the attention and interests of consumers and stimulate consumers’ desire to purchase, but also give them a memorable sense of enjoyment. That is to say, the language is the backbone and soul of advertising.

As a means of communication, the characteristics of advertisements are concise, vivid; abound with emotion, colorful and contagious. The advertising term is a kind of language which is refined, implicative, expressive and inspired. To be effective, the people who engage in advertising creation have invested a lot of time on words selection, syntax structure and rhetoric method. In many methods and skills, the application of pun is an undoubtedly finishing touch. Pun, which makes words and sentences in a particular context, has dual meaning. It is difficult in
translation of the pun due to the structure and the expression. Therefore, the translation of English advertising should be based on the advertising contents and characteristics. It is necessary to take into account the original language style and different cultures, different contexts expression, but also try to convey the original information.

2 Advertising

There is an old saying “good wine needs no bush”. But now, with more and more competitive market, “good wine also needs bush”. We know the third-rate enterprises make products, the second-rate enterprises establish brand, and the first-class enterprises publicize culture. Enterprises only with quality products and service are not enough, good advertisements are very important. Only with its own brand and culture, can make the enterprise still stand in commercial field.

2.1 Definition of Advertising

Advertising is a form of communication used to encourage or persuade an audience to continue or take some new action. Most commonly, the desired result is to drive consumer behavior with respect to a commercial offer.

The word, advertising, came from Latin “advertere”, which means attention, induction and spread. In the Middle English period, it changed into “advertise”, means making someone notice something, or informing somebody of something in order to attract others’ attention. Until 17 century, a large scale of commercial activities began to develop in Britain. At that time, “advertisement”, did not refer to an advertisement, but referred to a series of advertising campaign. Later, the word “advertise” had a modern meaning and turned into “Advertising”.

2.2 Functions of Advertising

The function of advertising points to the basic advertising effectiveness that the role and influence of the object and social environment by advertising content they spread. The core of studying the function of advertisement is actually studying what goal advertisements can achieve.

First, advertising plays a role in promoting social and economic development and promoting the progress of material civilization. Along with the development of human economic activities, advertising has generated and constantly updated.

In modern society, the level of advertising development is one of the important marks to measure the development level of a country or region economy. At present, China’s national income and social retail sales rise at a speed of about 10% each year, at the same time, advertising turnover is growing at around 30%. It not only shows that Chinese market economy
is booming, and but also suggests that the advertising industry has been increasingly important in Chinese economic development.

Second, advertising plays a role in enhancing the enterprises’ competitive power and raising enterprises’ economic benefits.

Western advertising has a maxim, “to sell products without advertising, as if to make eyes at a man or woman in the night.” In the process of production and operation, the core and purpose of enterprises is the economic benefit for itself. The enterprise competition is the market competition; the power of enterprise can be transferred according to market share. The important role of advertising can be expressed in the following aspects:

(1) Advertising is an important source of the enterprise transmitting and receiving market information;
(2) Advertising is one of the important methods of sales promotion;
(3) Advertising is to promote the enterprise competition and improve the enterprise internal management;
(4) Advertising is one of the crucial approaches to improve the enterprise brand popularity;
(5) Advertising can reduce business costs.

Third, advertising plays a role in guiding consumption trend.

Advertising has a guided effect on consumers’ consumption idea, consumer psychology and consumer behavior.

(1) Advertising is one of the important sources to consumers to get commodity information;
(2) Advertising can induce consumption attitude and consumption behavior;
(3) Advertising is an important component of consumers’ decision-making.

At last, advertising also plays a role in improving social civilization progress.

(1) Advertising can beautify social environment;
(2) Advertising can richen people’s cultural life;
(3) Advertising can promote social spiritual civilization progress.

3 Applications of Pun in English Advertising

3.1 Definition of Pun

The pun, also called paronomasia, is a form of word play which suggests two or more meanings, by exploiting multiple meanings of words, or of similar-sounding words, for an intended humorous or rhetorical effect. Pun, which makes words and sentences in a particular context, has dual meaning.

3.2 Classifications of Pun in English Advertising

A pun makes use of homophonic ambiguity or fuzzy phenomena, It can be a word, a phrase, a sentence or a paragraph with double meaning. A pun can make advertising language concise
and humorous, implicative and beautiful, moving and intriguing. According to the different characteristics of the pun, five categories can be divided into as follows:

3.2.1 Homophonic Pun

Homophonic Pun is a kind of pun with similar spelling, same or similar pronunciation but different words to take place of the original expressions. Advertisers are willing to use homophonic pun producers, because this kind of funny and nifty pun can increase the persuasion and appeal of advertisings and leave a deep impression on consumers.

(1) Trust us. Over 5000 ears of experience.

相信我吧。有 5000 多年的历史，有着 5000 多年的经验。

This is advertising for hearing aid. From the text, we can draw a conclusion that the product has been tested by many consumers, meanwhile, the homophonic word ears—years, fully suggests that the product has a long history and is of excellent quality.

(2) WEAR-EVER introduces a new concept in glass oven ware: CLEANABILITY.

“恒久”玻璃炉具带你一个全新的概念：洁净。

Here the manufacturers promote their products by making use of polysemy of the trademark “WEAR-EVER”. For one thing, WEAR-EVER is its brand name, for another thing, this brand has further implication: WEAR-EVER is similar to WEAR forever, showing the product is firm and heavy-duty. In addition, it is also similar to “wherever” which implies the product is very popular at any place. The advertising promotes its products in the multiple aspects. It can arouse the customer’s desire to buy and has strong effect of persuasion.

Many advertisements will pay more attention to the brand. The pun in brand can not only increase the interest of advertising and sense of humor, more importantly, it can attract people’s attention, which is easy to remember and strengthen publicity efforts to achieve the purpose of advertising.

3.2.2 Homographic Pun

The homographic pun takes advantage of the polysemy characteristic of words to make words or sentences in the particular circumstances, literally only a word, but in fact it has two different meanings. In other words, it means speaking this but intending that. Such expressions are implicative, tactful and interesting, they can stimulate the curiosity of consumers, enhance the effect of linguistic expression, and trigger the consumers’ creative thinking, finally generate purchasing desire in the process of thinking deepening the impression of advertisings. The homographic pun and homophonic pun have similar effects, so it is also widely used in English advertising.

(1) Money doesn’t grow on trees, but it blossoms on our branches.

钱不能长在树上，在我们“行”就能。
This is the famous outdoor billboard of British Lloyd Bank. The word “branches” have a double meaning: its surface meaning is a division of a stem, or secondary stem arising from the main stem of a plant, corresponding with the front word “trees”, and its deep meaning is a division of some larger or more complex organization. Here it refers to each branch of Lloyd Bank. So the true meaning of the advertising: If the customer deposits money into Lloyd Bank, their money will continue to increase. This advertisement uses homonymy ingeniously, the idea “branches” is unique and its effect is very good.

(2) Spoil yourself and not your figure.

This is advertising for ice cream, named Weight-Watcher, and this kind of ice cream is designed for dieters. Pun exists not only in commodity trade names; the word “spoil” is also a pun. “Spoil oneself” means “enjoy oneself”; but “spoil one’s figure” means “make someone become fat”. This advertisement makes the dieters accept the advertising in the tone of humor and relax through the pun, and make customers produce purchasing desire.

3.2.3 Statement Pun

Statement pun is a kind of pun that forms on the basic of the subtle changing and replacement of English proverbs, old saying, commonly used expression patterns and so on. Such pun reflects the strong language art, and makes use of the people’s knowledge about language culture as well as their familiarity with the classic statements, to make advertisements well-known.

(1) Thirst come, thirst served.

This is advertising for a kind of beverage. It is from an old saying “first come, first serve.” In this advertisement, the “thirst” has taken the place of “first”, not only the pronunciation is similar, making the person feel smooth and natural, but also the word “thirst” can give customers an impression that this kind of drinks will immediately terminate thirst for you. So, this advertising shows an irresistible attraction and powerful charm.

(2) No business too small, No problem too big.

This is an advertising of IBM. From an old saying “No pains, No gains.” The advertising maker modifies it skillfully into “No business too small, No problem too big”. It demonstrates the hard dedicated work style of IBM, and embodies its management idea that the customer is supreme. “No business too small” also implies products of IBM are of high quality so that there is no unsolvable problem with advanced technology.

3.2.4 Grammatical Pun

Grammatical pun refers to that a word or phrase with two or more grammatical functions generates pun because of the grammatical relations, such as elliptical structure, or some words caused by different parts of speech. These puns are humorous wit, abounding with text interest,
can make the consumer think deeply and print the advertisement on his/her memory for a long
time.

(1) Less bread. No jam.
在伦敦乘地铁，省钱、不堵车。
This is advertising in London subway, at first glance people may think of food, because the
bread and jam is inseparable in British people’s daily life, but here the word “bread” and “jam”
are both pun. Bread has another meaning in the oral English, which is money, and jam can also
refer to traffic jam. The intact elliptical sentence is less money, no traffic jam. People are
convinced by the advertiser’s creativity. The excellent advertising not only attract the eyeballs
but also is unforgettable.

(2) Coke refreshes you like no other can.
没有什么能像可乐那样令您神清气爽。
This is an advertisement for Coke. Its Chinese version is “没有什么能像可乐那样令您神清气爽”. But the effect of pun in English expression has not
been reflected. The word “can” in this sentence has two kinds of parts of speech, which is both
verb and noun. So it has two different meanings. As a modal verb, its function is equal to the
word “could or may”, and the exact expression is “Coke refreshes you like no other can refresh
you”. Meanwhile, as a noun, it can be replaced by “tin or drink”. This advertisement is humorous
and witty. The more important thing is that the text is unforgettable, just as the Coca Cola leads
people to endless aftertastes.

From the communication point of view, advertising style is a high commercial value style
about information transmission. To advertisers, the sign system of advertising language bears the
surface information, at the same time, and also carries the form of information about implied
semantic. It will produce successful advertising effectiveness only if the accepted information
and all information are approximate the equivalent.

From the view of linguistics, the limitation of language (a language sign system of forming
language) can transfer into a unique style of unlimitation language. Advertising language
belongs to “loaded language”, has a strong persuasive power. Due to the above, all kinds of
characteristics of advertising language have a special feature of its own. Rhetoric can make
readers have a deep impression of propaganda material. Imagination is the background and
bridge of consumers’ mental activity, so rhetoric can rise to the effect of borrowing meaning or
pointing this but intending that; the rhetoric can also realize the infinite style of language.

4 Common Approaches to English Advertising Translation

As a kind of cross-cultural communication and international economic communication
product, advertising has become a necessary part in people’s daily life. It makes our life become
more and more convenient. Due to more translators’ attention, advertising translation has
become a new worth field of study. As is known to all, in the eastern culture and western culture,
different words have different meanings. So the cultural differences between English and Chinese will bring some difficulties in the translation of English advertising, at the same time, both Chinese advertisements and English advertisements have their own features in the aspects of vocabulary, syntax and so on, which can attract readers through some rhetoric methods. Therefore, the local psychological factors and the way of expression of target language should be taken into consideration to keep the translations and the original advertisements equivalent in meaning.

The translation of English advertising is different from other translation. Because the purpose of advertising conveys information to people, most importantly attracts people to pay attention to the commodity and makes customers trust you and your products in the advertisement in order to reach the transaction. Therefore, the advertising translation not only need to keep the original value, but also lie in whether the translation can achieve the expected function and effect in the language environment and cultural environment of target language. Like the advertisement of “OLAY”, “Love the skin you are in.” If we just translate literally “爱上你的皮肤”, which is lack of novelty of source language, in addition, the function and effect of “OLAY” is insufficient. If the Chinese version is “惊喜从肌肤开始”, the excellent function of skin care product is obvious to all. Therefore, the faithfulness and its effect of the target language in the context should be taken into conversion in advertising translation so as to reach a win-win result.

4.1 Overview of Skopos Theories

In the 1970s, the appearance of Skopos Theories broke the traditional translation concept, making the translation standards become diversified and more flexible. The Skopos Theory is the most important theory in functional translation theory. It was the first time to put forward by Vemeer, a German scholar. Vemeer held the idea that the highest law of translation should be “skopos rule”. That is to say, translation methods are determined by translation purpose. Later, Nord put forward the concept “function + loyalty”, enriching the functional Skopos Theory. Nord put loyalty principle into function doctrine mode, in order to solve the problem of translation radicalism. So her functionism is based on two cornerstones of: function and loyalty. To achieve the expected function, it is necessary to make some changes, including rewriting even cutting; Loyalty refers to the interpersonal relationship among the translator, the original author, the translation receiver and the sponsors. Functional translation theories creatively presented the Skopos Theory, breaking through the restriction of Functional Equivalence, fixing the traditional standard about “faithfulness”, expanding the range of translatability, and increasing the translation strategy. It is requested translation activities should be based on the translation purpose.

4.1.1 The generation and development of Skopos Theories
In the 1970s, Functionalist Translation Theory sprung up in Germany. Its development underwent the following several stages:

The first stage: Katharina Reiss firstly and successfully introduced translation criticism into the functional categories. Language function, text type and translation strategy were combined. And it developed the translation criticism mode according to the source text and the functional relation of translation, thus put forward the rudiment of Functionalist Translation Theory. Reiss thought the ideal translation should be comprehensive communicational translation, meanwhile, the language form and communication function should be equivalent to the original text, but in practice, people should consider functional features of version in the first place.

The second stage: With the Skopos Theory put forward by Vermeer, translation study had been free from the concept that original text was center. The theory insists that translation is a kind of action on the basis of the original text with purposes and results, and this behavior should be completed after consultation; Translation must follow a series of law, including the first Skopos Theory. That is to say, translation depends on the purpose. In addition, translation must follow the intratextual coherence rule and intertextual coherence rule. The former shows the translation must be internal coherence. It seems to be understandable to the receiver of translation; the latter indicates the translation and the source language should also keep coherent. After three principles were put forward, the evaluation standards of translation have been no longer equivalence theory, but the adequacy of the expected target version.

The third stage: Under the reference communication and behavioral theory, Justa Holz-Manttari points out that translation behavior theory and further develops Functionalist Translation Theory droved by purposes of translation. It is an interaction between people guided by translation results. The theory has quite a lot in common with the Skopos Theory, so later Vermeer combined the both.

The fourth stage: Christiane Nord made a comprehensive summary and perfected functionalist translation theory. Nord first introduced the internal and external factors which are needed to consider in English text analysis of translation with English system, and how to develop the translation strategies with the purpose of translation on the basis of original function. Nord reviewed the different theories, and then put forward the principle that translator should follow the rule “function and loyalty”, thereby improved this theory.

4.1.2 Rules of Skopos Theories

The Skopos Theory views that all the translation activities should abide by the essential principle—skopos rule, namely translation should be effective by the way of receiver expecting in the situation and the culture of translators. The purpose of translation actions decides the entire translation process, which is the result-decided method. But the translation activities can have multiple purposes, these goals are further divided into three types:

(1) the translator’s basic purpose (such as, to make a living);
(2) the communication purpose (such as, to enlighten readers);
(3) the achievement purpose (such as, to illustrate the special grammatical structure of a language with the Literal Translation).

But, usually, “purpose” refers to the aim of communication. Therefore, the translator should clear its special purpose in a given context, and in accordance with this purpose to determine the type of translation methods.

4.2 Common Approaches to Advertising Translation

Advertising is a kind of public activities to widely inform the public something and to arouse public’s attention to something. The functions of advertising are to provide information, attract customers, keep demand, expand the market necessary and ensure quality. Therefore, we can think the persuasion function and the information function are the main functions of advertising. The enterprises can convey the information or service of products to consumers through the advertising, so as to make the customers know where they can buy and achieve the purpose of communication between producers and purchasers. We can create demand and promote consumption by advertising, namely some people who are not going to purchase a product may change their idea after receiving the advertising stimulation and having a new recognition to the characteristics of product, finally promoting the consumption.

The real purpose of advertising is not just to provide information, but to realize persuasion function through providing information. The final purpose of advertising is to evoke the audience to purchase. In the end, whether the customers want to buy and or not are decided by their hearts, thus effect of advertising to the audiences is the key to success. We can say, the essence of the advertising translation is to achieve the expected purpose and function as center, regard the readers as the audiences and use the language and culture as the guide. It is cross-cultural communication activities that translators adopt flexible translating strategies to reappear the persuasion function of source language advertising in the cultural environment of target language, under the premise of delivering its information.

Both Chinese and English belong to different language families. There are some common elements, but it is hard to reach the equivalent on form. So in the process of English advertising translation, the translator should develop the advantages of giving some insights into two kinds of language and culture. On the basis of fully understanding the original advertisement, considering the factors of audience language, culture, psychology and so on, with the purpose to realize expected function of advertising, translators should develop their creativity and comply with the characteristics of Chinese advertisements, take reasonable measures to adjust the structure and content of the original texts, and make it more be in line with the characteristics of Chinese advertisements, and more effective to stimulate the audience purchasing desire. What is more, translators should pay attention to avoid the cultural taboo of target language. In general, the translation methods commonly used have literal translation, table-law respectively, sets translation and compensation translation in English advertising translation.
4.2.1 Literal Translation

It is a method which English advertising can be directly and literally translated into Chinese. It keeps the image of the source language meaning, and reveals the cultural implication of the language according to the meaning of the source language. This method is suitable for some trademarks with common vocabularies. Most of the meanings imply beauty, elegance and luxuriance. All the translation can convey the original meaning well just as their original text.

Some puns in English advertising are corresponding with the puns in Chinese translation, which can be translated directly into Chinese puns. But to cause the reader’s attention, the translator had better mark the puns with quotation marks.

(1) Every kid should have an “Apple” after school.

This is advertising for Apple Computer. It is coincidentally that “Apple” brand is also “apple” after translated into Chinese, so we can translate this advertising directly as “每个孩子放学后都应该有一个‘苹果’”. Readers will understand the double meanings of “apple”. One is a kind of fruit; the other is the product of Apple Company.

If the same words appear more than once in advertisement, we can also take literal translation to express the literal meaning and implicit meaning of the pun. This kind of translation contains both the form and content of advertising. It is the most perfect method in English advertising.

(2) From sharp minds, come Sharp products.

This is an advertisement for “Sharp”. The first “sharp” that describes mind in the text, it means “quite smart”; and the second one not only mentions the “Sharp” brand, but also conveys the characteristic of its product. The word “sharp” gives people an impression of supremacy. The Chinese translation is “绝顶智慧造就尖端夏普”.

4.2.2 Table-law respectively

Just as the name suggests, it is a method which makes the translation divided into two parts, and expresses its literal and implied meaning respectively, because the fit pun cannot be found in the target language, so we only can make the two meanings of pun and translate into two independent words or sentences. We should note that this translation method retains the double meanings of puns, the witty charm, but the interesting of double meaning and concise structure of the original text will be reduced to some extent. Therefore, we usually do not use this approach unless it is necessary.

(1) I’m More satisfied. Ask for More.

It’s an advertisement for cigarette. They widely use the double meaning of “more”. As an adverb, it means better, it also modifies the past participle “satisfied”; after capitalized, it turns into a brand name. The two advertisements make it easy for people to remember the brand of goods, and make a deep impression that this product is superior to the similar products, can make
consumers more satisfied. The Chinese version is “摩尔香烟，我更满意；再来一支，还吸摩尔”。 The meaning of pun is split into two parts, respectively stated, and the four-word structure is not only neat and orderly, but also readable.

(2) The Unique Spirit of Canada: We bottled it.

Right to the finish, its Canadian spirit stands out from the ordinary. What keeps the favor coming: Super lightness, Super taste. If that’s where you’d like to head, set your course for Lord Calvert Canadian.

In this advertising for Canada wine, spirit is a finishing touch. It can refer to strong drink, and another meaning is mind or morale. So, the first sentence we can translate it into the special national spirit of Canadian. As a verb, the “bottle” here means makes something into bottle. It is very common in alcohol advertisings, but we should understand its further implication that this kind of wine has made the special national spirit of Canadian into bottle. But if we translate it directly, namely “我们把别具风格的加拿大酒装进瓶子里”， it is too literal and inelegant. In order to retain its double meaning, we can take the double semantic meanings apart, and translate as “别具风昧的加拿大酒，独一无二的加拿大精神”.

4.2.3 Sets Translation

Some puns in advertising are based on a certain cultural background. Because of cultural exchanges between Chinese and English language and the propagation of English language and culture to Chinese language, it has gradually formed some fixed mode or expression way. Sets Translation makes use of the intrinsic mode to translate English advertising. The advantage of sets translation is that it can deliver most cultural connotation of original text, and the language is simple and concise. But due to the great differences between Chinese culture and English one, the true implication of a pun can not be displayed fully.

(1) Better late than the late.

This is an advertising slogan to mention which drivers drive carefully and keep a way for safety. It comes from English idioms “Better late than never”, means “Coming late is better than not appearing.” This advertising not only cited the structure of the idiom, and uses the double meaning of the word “late” tactfully. Except for the literal meaning, “late” also can refer to “the dead”, means lose one’s life. Therefore, its Chinese translation is “迟到总比丧命好”. The application of pun makes this advertisement give a strong shock to readers. It plays a very important role in warning all drivers to take care of safety.

(2) All is well that ends well.

In fact, this advertising is an English idiom, which means “If the ends well, everything will be good.” But when advertiser puts it into tobacco advertising, “ends” has a double meaning: as a verb, means finish; as a noun, means “cigarette end”. This sentence can apply to idiom translation mode, translated into Chinese “烟蒂好，烟就好”.

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4.2.4 Compensation Translation

When translating one meaning of a pun into the other which can’t be expressed entirely, then we should take some measures to compensate. To advertising, the most commonly used means is to compensate through media, such as through television, radio, newspapers, magazines or graphic design to achieve its purpose.

At this time, the translator should not get bogged down in the language form, follow the functional equivalence rule but not the formal equivalence principle. We should use different strategies to communicate that information of translation directly. For example, if the content is important, we can translate by way of changing figures of speech, emphasizing tone, or increasing footnotes to compensate; if the content or figure of speech has no significance to the original thought and plot development, it needn’t to be translated, and only do simple instructions to let people who do not understand the original text realize the beauty of original rhetoric.

(1) CUTTY SARK; SCOTS WHISKY.

Some people wear trendy clothes to attack attention. Others drive flashy cars. A glass of Cutty Sark won’t turn any heads. But if you insist on creating a stir, you can always ask the bartender for one of them.

Scots Whisky

Uncommonly Smooth

This is whisky advertising, the advertising producer takes advantage of three ambiguous phrases: “turn one’s head” has a meaning of “make someone dazed,” and also can be understood as “this kind of alcohol would not go above”; “Create a stir” means “make a splash”, and also means “attract others’ attention and enjoy themselves”; “Smooth” refers to “(wine) gentle” and “safety, peace, and harmony”, also has a meaning of “sweet and attractive”. The use of ambiguity in advertising left a profound impression to people: this wine can bring people a beautiful feeling. The translation adopts compensation method:

顺顺顺

格

兰

威士忌

, 有些人穿着艳艳艳装引人注目，有些人驾着漂亮新车惹人羡慕。顺风

酒绝不上头，不会让你飘飘然。但君想尽显风流，还是顺风酒。苏格兰威士忌，非凡的享受。

(2) OIC

Oh, I see!

This is another advertising of classic glasses, three concise capital letters’ shape looks like a pair of glasses, and its pronunciation is same as “Oh, I see.” This advertising uses visual effect to attract public attention, in addition, and uses hearing language make customers who are poor-eyesighted feel comfortable. Choosing this kind of glasses, they needn’t worry about the poor eyesight any more. However, this advertising translation is difficult in giving dual attention to the vision and hearing. We only translate it by sense of hearing “哦，我看到了！” The visual
effect can only appear through advertising media, such as video; graphics to make up for the information which cannot be transmitted.

It should be noted that the translation method has some shortness, but sometimes compensating measures can also achieve unexpected effect through the newspapers, magazines, radio, television and so on.

5 Conclusion

In general, when creating advertising slogan in order to achieve the desired effect, the advertisers must strictly comply with the basic advertising strategy, and adopt appropriate rhetoric method. The application of pun is very common rhetoric style in advertising. It can not only make the advertising language concise, rich and witty, but also make advertisement attractive and easy to remember. However, it is difficult in translating for there are insurmountable obstacles of puns in the language structure and expression, and advertising language is a kind of language that has much motivational and guiding effect. So it is necessary to absorb more extensive knowledge and combine practice with theory in order to finish a good translation. Only in this way, can we translate a creative and unique advertising to draw public.

There is a well-known formula in the field of advertising, which is “KISS”. “KISS” means Keep It Simple and Sweet. “Simple” requires advertising language to be concise, popular and understandable; “Sweet” wants advertising language to be attractive and convincing. Thus the translator should follow the formula while translating.

In actual translation process, we should combine the specific information about English advertising that expects to convey, and background with certain environment, make a careful analysis so as to reach a maximum equivalence between source language and target language. Translation is a purposeful activity, so it is important to realize the expected purpose on the basis of the skopos principle. Besides, advertising is a kind of practical and functional style, the cultural taboos of target language should be paid attention to and avoided in its translation to develop a successful cross-cultural communicative activity.

References


Psycholinguistic Sources of English Spelling Errors

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Abstract: From the point of view of SLA research determining the sources of errors is the most important stage in an error analysis as it involves an attempt to establish the processes responsible for L2 acquisition. As far as psycholinguistic sources of errors are concerned, two major processes are identified, distinguishing interlingual and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors seem to result from L1 interference which refers to those instances of deviation from the norm of the target language which occurs as a result of familiarity with the mother tongue. Intralingual errors, however, are those which result from faulty or partial learning of L2, rather than from language transfer. In order to classify sources of spelling errors, this study has benefited from the classification utilized by James et al. (1993). To this end, a 65-word dictation test, taken from English text book of Persian learners of English in grade one, was administered to 40 learners. Upon the analysis of the spelling errors in the current study the sources of spelling errors are: L1 interference, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction, homophone confusion.

Keywords: Psycholinguistic, Spelling errors, Persian learners of English.

Introduction

Spelling, according to Willett (2003), is a key functional component of writing. Brann (1997) and Mosely (1993) state that spelling has a direct impact on the ability to read and write. In other words, spelling is the key to both reading and writing of the language. Therefore, effective writing depends on effective spelling, and understanding learners’ spelling difficulties can help teachers support the development of learners’ writing.

Ida (2006) states that unquestionably English spelling is a difficult and complex matter and learners around the world have difficulty getting the letters right. As stated by Fay (1971), English spelling is characterized by the inconsistencies of pronunciations, as well as by the discrepancies in the numbers and combinations of letters used to represent English sounds. Titlestad (1999) also clearly illustrates that English spelling is not phonetic, thus creating difficulties for learners and teachers involved in writing and pronunciation classes.

In fact, when it comes to English spelling difficulty, Persian English language learners are no exceptions. There are, of course, specific reasons for this matter. First, English spelling is highly
irregular which makes it hard to learn for Persian learners. Second, there are significant differences between Persian and English writing systems. These differences also make English spelling hard to learn for Persian learners. Third, according to many studies (Mohammadi, 1992; Khodaverdilou, 1997; Mirhassani, 2003) a majority of Persian learners of English are not able to spell English correctly. According to these studies, it seems that getting enough mastery over English spelling has been a dream for many Persian English language learners at different levels. Finally, there is limited body of research in the acquisition of spelling skills and in spelling errors produced by Persian English Language learners. To fill this gap, this study aims to shed light upon English spelling errors among Persian English language learners, and to investigate their sources.

Review of the related literature

According to Taylor (1986), the error source may be psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, epistemic, or may reside in the discourse structure. As far as psycholinguistic sources of errors, which concern the nature of the L2 knowledge system and the difficulties learners have in using it in production, are concerned, two major processes are identified, distinguishing interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

Interlingual errors

Based on the assumption that interference occurs across a learner’s native language and the target language, we can now proceed to a discussion on what linguists mean by interlingual errors. Interlingual errors seem to result from L1 interference, which is related to the concept of transfer as explained by Lado (1957). L1 interference refers to those instances of deviation from the norm of the target language which occurs as a result of familiarity with the mother tongue or first language. Although the contrastive hypothesis cannot be accepted as accounting for all errors in L2 use, it is nonetheless true that there is a transfer effect from the mother-tongue to the new language. As stated by Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977), interlingual errors are “those caused by the influence of the learner’s mother tongue on production of target language in presumably those areas where languages clearly differ” (p. 443). Also, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) define interlingual errors as “L2 errors that reflect native language structure, regardless of internal processes or external conditions that spawned them” (p. 171).

According to Brown (2000), interlingual transfer is a significant source of errors for all learners. In the beginning stages of learning a second language, learners usually make interlingual errors, because of transfer of L1 onto L2. In this relation, Richards (1979) mentions that interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second-language learning, and contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. Regarding to spelling errors, James et al. (1993, pp. 291-300) divides sources of interlingual errors or L1 interference errors into three types: mispronunciation or L1 interference, misrepresentation, and lexical cognate misspelling.
Intralingual errors

Richards (1971) defines intralingual errors as those which occur as a result of interference from application of general learning strategies similar to those manifested in first language acquisition. According to Keshavarz (2005), intralingual errors are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language, i.e. the influence of one target language item upon another. Such errors reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage of second language development and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language learning. In fact such errors are similar to errors produced by monolingual children, and result from the learner's attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from his/her limited experience with it. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) also state that intralingual errors reflect the operation of learning strategies that are universal, i.e. evident in all learners regardless of their L1. James (1998) provides a useful summary of these strategies, the most of which are false analogy, misanalysis, incomplete rule application, exploiting redundancy, overlooking co-occurrence restrictions, and system-simplification. Regarding to spelling errors, James et al. (1993, pp. 301-302) divides intralingual errors or non-interference errors into three types: overgeneralization of an L1 spelling rule, homophone confusion, and letter naming.

In order to classify interlingual and intralingual sources of spelling errors of Persian English language learners, this study has benefited from the classification utilized by James et al. (1993) because this classification is an excellent account of spelling errors within the context of EA which distinguishes among sources of interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Apart from that, according to James et al. (1993), this classification seems to facilitate a plausible description of types of spelling errors. They also suggest that it could be used for raising teachers’ and learners’ awareness of the kinds of options and decisions that are made in real time during the act of composition (ibid).

A review of studies on English spelling errors

Many studies show that second-language learners tend to be interfered by their L1 in the acquisition of English spelling. In this regard, Rodriguez-Brown (1987) investigated L2 spelling of 84 secondary school students learning Spanish as a second language. The result showed that performance in English spelling is a good predictor of performance in Spanish spelling. Ferroli (1991) investigated the relative influence of L1 literacy skills and L2 oral proficiency on students' ability to read and spell in L2. The results showed a positive role of L1 literacy skills and L2 oral proficiency in students' ability to read and spell in L2. Similarly, Odisho’s study (1994) indicated the effect of L1 orthography on learning L2 spelling. In short, the results of these studies reveal that students applied whatever conceptual background knowledge they had of spelling in their native language to the spelling task in English.
In addition to an awareness of the L1 influence, the possible effect of the L2 is another important issue. In this regard, a study with 38 Spanish-speaking and 3 English-speaking second and third graders was conducted by Fashola et al. (1996) to examine how Spanish-speaking children spell English words. James et al. (1993) examined the extent to which the ESL spelling of young Welsh-English bilinguals is systematically idiosyncratic. St. Pierre et al. (1995) studied the nature of the spelling lag existing in the development of English spelling in early French immersion students. Al-Jarf (2008) examined the sources of spelling errors that ESL Arab college students make. The results of these investigations make clear that sources such as overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restriction, and incomplete application of rules also account for many errors.

**Objectives and research questions**

Due to the limited body of research on the acquisition of spelling skills, the types of spelling errors, and the major spelling difficulties for Persian English language learners, this study intends to examine the English spelling of Persian English language learners in general and the following objectives in particular:

1. To determine sources of interlingual errors in the spelling of Persian English language learners.
2. To determine sources of intralingual errors in the spelling of Persian English language learners.

**Participants**

The subjects of this study were 40 students who were in grade one of the secondary education cycle. The students have 14-16 years of age. They have been learning English for three years in junior high school and have received three hours of English instruction per week. The students’ exposure to the English language was limited to the classroom. Therefore, they are able to understand and use English language skills at the basic level of language proficiency.

**Instruments**

In this study, a word dictation test is selected to collect data because of the following concerns as mentioned by many researchers (Randall, 1997; Masterson & Apel 2000) about norm-referenced tests and writing samples: First, data collected with the use of norm-referenced tests provide little information about students’ spelling performance or competence. Second, in writing samples, students with spelling deficits often avoid attempts to spell words that they do not know how to spell.
According to Fender (2008), two main criteria should be used to select the words for dictation test. One is to select words that are familiar and known by students. The second is to select words that correspond appropriate to levels of spelling difficulty. For this purpose, words having these criteria were derived from the English textbook of Persian learners of English in grade one of the secondary education cycle and spelling word lists of learners’ final examinations.

**Design**

Based on the research objectives mentioned above, it can be deduced that this study is a quantitative and descriptive one as the data will be collected at one point in time and it does not propose to use method such as observation, control group and other such research techniques in its investigation of the problem.

**Procedures**

The word dictation test was administered in a single session and lasted about 30 minutes. It was administered as following steps: first, reading a word to the learners, followed by a three-second pause. Next, reading the context for the learners, followed by a three-second pause. Then, giving the learners a second reading followed by a three-second pause. Finally, asking the learners to write the words they had heard.

The learners’ word dictations were then analyzed for identifying and explaining the spelling errors. In this study, every word that deviates from the norms of written Standard English is identified as an error.

**Findings of the Study**

**Findings of the study attributed to the sources of interlingual spelling errors**

The sources of interlingual spelling errors according to James et al. (1993) are: L1 interference, misrepresentation, and lexical cognate misspellings. Because of differences between Persian and English writing system, misrepresentation and lexical cognate misspellings were not applied in this study. Upon the analysis of the spelling errors of Persian English language learners in the current study the sources of interlingual spelling errors are:

**L1 phonological interference**

The current study reveals that some specific differences between the sound systems of English and Persian have affected the spelling ability of Persian learners of English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
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Example 1: than  \[\rightarrow\] dan or zan

The example displays that Persian learners alter the grapheme <th> to <z> and <d> as no /ð/ sound exists in Persian. As a result, /z/ and /d/ sounds in Persian which are represented by graphemes <z> and <d> in English, replace the grapheme <th> in the word "than".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example 2:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>tink or sink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The example shows that Persian learners of English change the grapheme <th> to <s> and <t> because no /θ/ sound exists in Persian. As a result, /s/ and /t/ sounds in Persian which are represented by graphemes <s> and <t> in English, replace the grapheme <th> in the words "think".

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example 3:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch</td>
<td>vatch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The example illustrates that Persian learners change the grapheme <w> to <v> since no /w/ sound exists in Persian. As a result, /v/ sounds in Persian which is represented by grapheme <v> in English, substitutes the grapheme <w> in the words "watch".

From the above examples (1, 2 and 3), it can be interpreted the fact that Persian lacks consonants that are available in English, have affected the spelling ability of Persian English language learners. Consequently, when Persian learners spell English words, they cannot help but tending to substitute graphemes <s, t, z, d> for <th>, and <v> for <w>. As such, this is the main reason why spelling errors such as “tink, dan, vatch” are quite common among Persian learners.

### L1 syllable structure interference

The differences between L1 and L2 syllable structure is another source of interlingual error that affects spelling ability of Persian English language learners.

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<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example 4:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>bread [CC-]</td>
<td>beread [CVC-]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The example shows that Persian learners of English substitute Persian cluster CVC- for English cluster CC-, since Persian does not permit any initial consonant clustering. The clusters involved are “cl, br, dr, fr, pr and pl”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
</tr>
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</table>
Example 5: still [CC-] → ?estill [?]VCC-]

As seen, Persian learners of English substitute Persian cluster ?VCC- for English cluster CC-. As Persian syllable does not begin with a vowel, a glottal /ʔ/ is phonologically inserted before a vowel at the beginning of a breath group. The cluster involved is “st”. As examples (4 and 5) show, some of Persian learners’ spelling errors are caused by the differences in the syllable structure of the two languages. The examples show that initial consonant clusters are not permitted in Persian. Therefore, Persian learners substitute Persian cluster CeC- or ?VCC- for English cluster CC-.

Findings of the study attributed to the sources of intralingual spelling errors

The sources of intralingual spelling errors according to James et al are overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction, homophone confusion and letter naming. Because of differences between Persian and English writing system, letter naming was not applied in this study. Upon the analysis of the spelling errors of Persian English language learners in the current study the sources of intralingual spelling errors are:

Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization errors refer to the deviant structures produced by the learner on the basis of his/her limited knowledge of and exposure to other structure of target language. As the result of the study show, large amounts of spelling errors are caused by the inconsistency of English spelling system. In majority of cases, there is no one-to-one correspondence between graphemes and phonemes they represent. Therefore, learners impose certain spelling features on words that do not contain them. For example, Persian learners replace grapheme <k> for a range of spelling representations for the /k/ sound which are <c>, <k>, <ck>, <que>.

The analysis of spelling errors of Persian English language learners reveals that a consonant can be represented by different graphemes. Their manifestations are illustrated in Table 1.

| Table 1: English consonants representation and subjects spelling errors. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Consonant Sound | Consonant Representation | Intended Word | Written Word |
| /k/ | <c>, <ck>, <que> | practice | prakteck |
| | | ticket | ticket |
| | | mosque | mosk |
| /f/ | <gh>, <ph> | prophet | profet |
| | | enough | enouf |
From Table 1, it can be interpreted that the non-phonetic nature of English spelling caused a lot of spelling errors for Persian English language learners because: a. There are different spelling representations used to denote each consonant sound, which means that a given consonant sound is often represented by different graphemes, b. The double consonants that are not distinguishable in pronunciation from the single ones create a lot of problems for Persian learners in spelling English, such as in the words "still, bottle and arrive", c. Some of the consonants that do not represent any sound in a particular word (silent consonant) are another main sources of spelling errors for Persian English language learners, and d. Spelling errors related to silent consonants are the most common spelling errors for Persian English language learners.

The analysis of spelling errors of Persian English language learners also reveals that a vowel can be represented by different graphemes. Their manifestations are illustrated in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowel Sound</th>
<th>Vowel Representation</th>
<th>Intended Word</th>
<th>Written Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>&lt;ue&gt;, &lt;ie&gt;, &lt;ea&gt;, &lt;a&gt;</td>
<td>guess</td>
<td>ges</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows that there are different spelling representations used to denote each vowel sound, which means that a given vowel sound is often represented by different graphemes. It also shows that some of the vowels that do not represent any sound in a particular word (silent vowels) are another main sources of spelling errors for Persian English language learners, and spelling errors related to silent vowels are the most common spelling errors for Persian English language learners. Table 2 also illustrates that phonemic distinctions are evident in the English /ɪ/ and /i:/ sounds. Such phonemic distinctions are absent in Persian. This creates several problems for Persian learners in spelling English, as demonstrated by the incorrect spellings "belive, wimin" and "bisy". In these cases, Persian learners have substituted the letter "i" for the English /ɪ/ and /i:/ sounds.

Ignorance of spelling rules

This type of error is due to the learner’s ignorance of the restrictions of an exception to general English spelling rules. That is, the learner fails to see restrictions of English spelling rules. The analysis of spelling errors of Persian English language learners in the present study show that the ignorance of spelling rules is another source of spelling errors. Consider the examples in Table 3.

**Table 3:** Subjects’ ignorance of spelling rules in English suffixes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tapes of English Suffixes</th>
<th>Intended Words</th>
<th>Written Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-es</td>
<td>studies</td>
<td>studyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>sitting</td>
<td>sitting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ly</td>
<td>easily</td>
<td>easily</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The data in Table 3 shows that learners have ignored the following rules:

1. When a word ends in –y and is preceded by a consonant, the -y usually changes to -i when you are adding a suffix.
2. When a one-syllable word ends in the CVC combination, it is usually appropriate to double the final consonant when adding a suffix that begins with a vowel.

The above data show the Persian learner's ignorance of restrictions of and exceptions to English spelling rules (adding suffixes), as demonstrated by the misspellings “studyes, siting, easily, heavyer, fater”. It seems that spelling error attributed to ignorance of spelling rules be the results of weak morphological knowledge and rote learning of rules. As most English spelling rules have many exceptions, it’s no wonder that Persian learners find it very hard to spell English.

**Homophone confusion**

Homophone confusion is the result of failure to make fine distinction between two existing lexical items that sound the same but are not spelt the same. The current study reveals that homophone confusion is a source of many spelling errors of Persian English language learners. Consider the examples of homophone confusion in Table 4.

**Table 4:** Subjects’ homophone confusion in English spelling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written Word</th>
<th>Intended Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>seat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>live</td>
<td>leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our</td>
<td>hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hi</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who's</td>
<td>whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>here</td>
<td>hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right</td>
<td>write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too/to</td>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the present study, it seems that homophone confusion is the consequence of failure to
make fine distinctions between two existing lexical items, that pronounced the same but differ in meaning and spelling. These errors may be due to lack of exposure to the English spelling system, insufficient experience and practice, and the way English words are grouped and presented to the students. It also seems that spelling errors attributed to homophone confusion be the results of weak or fuzzy mental images of words. The present study also reveals that “hear-here” and “write-right” are the dominant homophone confusion spelling errors.

Discussion of the Findings

The following tables show the percentile information of sources of spelling errors, interlingual errors and intralingual errors. As Table 5 shows, the sources of spelling errors are interlingual and intralingual.

**Table 5:** The percentile information of subjects’ sources of spelling errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Spelling Errors</th>
<th>Interlingual Errors</th>
<th>Intralingual Errors</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages</td>
<td>22.85%</td>
<td>77.15%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Upon analyzing spelling errors of Persian English language learners of this study, the figures offered in Table 5 show the fact that in the present study the number of intralingual errors is far beyond the number of interlingual errors. This may be attributed to the lack of the correct semantic, phonological and orthographic associations between the spoken sounds and the printed symbols in English spelling (Ehri & Wilce, 1987; Treiman, 1993). Interlingual errors in the spelling errors of Persian learners in this study amounted to 130, which constituted about 22.85%, while errors attributed to intralingual errors amounted to 439, which constituted about 77.15% of the overall total number of errors recorded (569). This study supports the view that L1 transfer does not appear to be the major source of errors in learning L2 (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Tran-chi-chau, 1975; Ellis, 2004).

**Table 6:** Frequency and percentage of subjects’ interlingual errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Errors</th>
<th>Interlingual Errors</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Furthermore, Table 6 shows that Persian English language learners on produced a total of 130 interlingual spelling errors: 72 or 55.38% related to transfer of L1 phonology and 58 or 44.62% related to transfer of L1 syllable structure. The distribution of errors seems to suggest that Persian learners have more problems due to transfer of L1 phonology than due to L1 syllable structure.

**Table 7:** Frequency and percentage of subjects’ intralingual errors in English spelling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of Errors</th>
<th>Intralingual Errors</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L2 Inconsistency</td>
<td>Overgeneralization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequencies</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages</td>
<td>54.21%</td>
<td>14.35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that Persian English language learners on produced a total of 439 intralingual spelling errors: 238 or 54.21% related to overgeneralization, 63 or 14.35% related to ignorance of spelling rules and 138 or 31.44% related to homophone confusion. The distribution of errors seems to suggest that Persian learners lacked knowledge about English consonants and vowels than about spelling rules or homophones.

The rank ordering of the various English spelling errors of Persian learners in the term of L1 and L2 transfer based on frequency information of sources of spelling errors are outlined in Figure 1.
The rank ordering of sources of English spelling errors based on their frequency reveals that the most dominant errors made by Persian learners are attributed to the overgeneralization and homophones. This study implies that the subjects of the study who were all in their third year of academic English did not yet have a fixed idea of the English sound system, and they have low spelling proficiency in English spelling. In other words, the results of the current study imply that many spelling problems that Persian English language learners have in spelling English may be due to lack of knowledge of phonology, orthography, morphology, and mental orthographic images. This implies that at secondary school in Iran, spelling receives very little attention in EFL instruction and evaluation. As a result, many phonological and spelling problems that Persian English language learners have in spelling English may be due to a lack of English spelling instruction. The inability to realize the differences between the L1 and L2 sound systems could be the reason behind the occurrence of the interlingual errors. The results of this study imply a real need for enough time, adequate instructions, and teacher knowledge.

References


Quarterly, 8 (2), 129-136.


The Effects of Teaching English on University Students’ Motivation in Iran

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Abstract: Motivation is the driving force by which humans achieve their goals. It is often assumed to be a rather abstract concept (Dörnyei, 2001). In fact, it is the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain previous set goals. Accordingly, the current study was implemented in order to shed light on the effects of teaching or training on university students’ motivation in learning English in non-native context, namely, Iran. The research was conducted on a population of 44 university students, all Persian speakers, majoring in English translation course at Payam-e Noor University in fall semester of 2013-2014 academic year, Sirjan, Iran. Technically speaking, this study is based upon pre-experimental method (one group pre-test post-test design). Interestingly, the results of quantitative findings revealed that there was not a significant difference in students’ overall motivation after the treatment. Nevertheless, no notable differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and between female and male participants’ motivation were detected. In short, it may be concluded that teaching or training activities have resulted in a moderate increase in learners’ motivational level and enhanced metacognition as well.

Keywords: Teaching English, Motivation, University Students, EFL Context

1. Introduction

Motivation is internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested in and committed to a job, role, or subject, and to exert persistent effort in attaining a goal (Weiner, B. 2000). Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language learning. In fact, it provides the primary impetus to initiate learning English language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Interestingly enough, among other psychological variables, motivation plays an effective role on academic achievement among students in general and English language learners in particular. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can work as driving force that affect students overall
performance. In this regard, teaching or training students also aims to build and heighten learners’ awareness of themselves as learners and the language learning process. Additionally, the overall aim of learner training is to contribute to not only learners’ cognitive but also learners’ affective development. Therefore, second or foreign language learning is one of the subject areas in which learners are expected to learn how to learn in order to be more self-sufficient in their language learning process. Interestingly, most of the researches in this field revealed that the implementation of teaching or training approach has been very advantageous and promising in terms of many aspects of the language learning process such as learner beliefs, attitudes, autonomy, perceptions, self-confidence, self-esteem, motivation etc. With the respect of teaching and motivation, teachers’ responsibility is so important.

1.1. Statement of the Research Problem

It seems that there are many variables underlying students’ motivation to learn English language. Students’ motivation to learn English in Iran, as non-native environment, has to do with student’s desire to participate in the learning process. But it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities. Despite the fact that the students may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation to learn English as a foreign language may differ. As mentioned before, motivation plays an important part in improving and developing learner’s communicative ability, however, in Iran, some university students are not enthusiastic enough to learn English even though their course is English. It seems that teaching and teachers have vital role in enhancing students’ motivation. Since learning a foreign language is mostly bothersome and problematic per se for most of the students; therefore, it is foreign language teachers’ responsibility to smooth the learning path and energize and motivate the students. Accordingly, the present study is to evaluate the effect of teaching on students motivation among Iranian university students majoring translation in Sirjan, a prosperous city in South-east of Iran.

1.2. Objectives

The current study is to investigate the effects of teaching or training sessions on university students’ motivation in learning English. Furthermore, any possible significant differences between female and male students’ motivational level in learning English before and after teaching sessions were investigated. Finally, it was also intended to explore any significant differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation before and after the treatment. Accordingly, the objectives can be classified as follow:

1- The evaluation of university students’ motivational level in learning English before and after teaching or training sessions.

2- The evaluation of probable difference between learners’ extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and gender before and after treatment.
1.3. Importance of the Research

Because of the central importance attached to motivation by practitioners and researchers alike, motivation has been the target of a great deal of research during the past decades. Strictly speaking, the current research is of prime importance on account to deal with one of the most important area of educational psychology. The result of researches in motivation field is not only rewarding for teachers but also beneficial for students.

2. Review of the related literature

Motivation is the driving force by which humans achieve their goals. It is said to be intrinsic or extrinsic. However, motivation to learn has a slightly different meaning that will be defined as following. According to Hermine Marshall 1987 motivation to learn is "the meaningfulness, value, and benefits of academic tasks to the learner-regardless of whether or not they are intrinsically interesting". On the other hand, Carole Ames 1990 mentioned that motivation to learn is characterized by long-term, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning.

2.1 Student Motivation

Student motivation naturally has to do with students' desire to participate in the learning process. But it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities. Although students may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ. A student who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity "for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes" (Mark Lepper 1988). An extrinsically motivated student performs in order to obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself," such as grades, stickers, or teacher approval.

2.2. Factors Influence Students' Motivation

As Jere Brophy (1987) and Deborah Stipek (1988) revealed, motivation to learn is a competence acquired "through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers)." Some factors influence that the development of students motivation can be classified as follows:

1- Home environment
2- Classroom climate
3- Beliefs about teaching and learning.
4- Teachers’ creative policies and procedures to teach.
5- University/school-related success and failure.
2.3. Teaching or training students

The term teaching or training learners has been defined in fairly similar terms by different scholars in this area. Hedge (1993, p. 92), for instance, mentioned that training is to do with “a set of procedures or activities which raise learners’ awareness of what is involved in the process of learning a second language, which encourage students to become more involved and responsible for their own learning, and which help learners to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning”. As a matter of fact, teaching or training students involves two main components: raising learners’ awareness and helping them acquire a set of skills for more effective learning (Hedge, 2000). In other words, typical learner training programmes aim at enhancing learners’ metacognition which is defined as “an awareness of one’s own mental processes and an ability to reflect on how one learns, in other words, knowing about one’s knowing” (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.148).

2.3. Connection between teaching and motivation

Interestingly enough, it has been widely mentioned that teaching or training schedules aim to increase learners’ cognitive and affective development through an attempt to build learners’ awareness of themselves as learners and the language learning process; furthermore, assist them to attain a set of skills for more effective learning. The common aim of such research studies is to investigate the effects of learner training on different constructs such as learner autonomy, academic success, beliefs about and attitudes towards language learning, motivation, etc. Despite the fact that there is a small number of studies exploring the effects of teaching programmes on motivation, the results of several studies point to some connections between learner training and motivation. For instance, it is pointed out in a study by Victori & Lockhart (1995, p.228) that the improvement in learners’ tolerance of ambiguity in language learning/use contexts, increased motivation, and improved self-esteem as language learners. Likewise, in a study Mynard’s (1999) indicated that more able learners tended to have higher intrinsic motivation and a higher internal locus of control than less able ones. Without a doubt, variables such as learner characteristics, teacher characteristics, the practices followed during learner training, etc. all interact differently in different contexts. Therefore, to investigate the topic of learner training from as many angles as possible in varied ways will add new insights to our understanding of the issue better. With regard to teaching and students’ motivation, this study is to investigate effect of teaching on university students’ motivation.

4. Methodology

4.1. Design of the Study

The design of the current study is based upon pre-experimental research design. To elaborate, only one intact group participated in the study; and that group was administered a pre-test prior to the treatment (learner training sessions). After presenting treatment sessions, a post-test was
conducted again to find out whether the treatment caused any significant differences in participants’ motivational level in learning English.

4.2. Participants and Setting

This research population represents university students in undergraduate stage at Payam-e Noor University (PNU) in Sirjan, Iran. Actually, Sirjan is a prosperous city located in South-east of Iran. The main reason for conducting the study in this setting was its convenience to the researcher since she worked at the same university at the time of the research. Therefore, arranging the appropriate time and conditions for the implementation of the study was easier. Accordingly, the study covered a period of 6 weeks during the fall semester of 2013-2014 academic year.

4.3. Instrumentation

With regard to instrument, a questionnaire on motivation was developed by adapting various items about motivation from different sources. Most of the items were taken and adapted from Mynard’s (1999) questionnaire and Demir’s (2004) Attitude-Motivation Scale. The questionnaire on motivation, which involved 34 close-ended items originally, was built on a five-point Likert scale having the options of (1) I strongly agree, (2) I agree, (3) I am not sure, (4) I disagree, (5) I strongly disagree. The analysis of the data collected from the piloting of questionnaires showed that some of the items needed to be removed in order to ensure that data collection was reliable. After the necessary elimination based on the current research, the final version of the questionnaire included 19 items were divided into the two dimensions of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Then, the remaining 19 items were analyzed statistically (Appendix 1). The Cronbach-alpha value of 12 items belonging to intrinsic motivation was found highly reliable (α = .86) for data collection. The Cronbach-alpha value of items related to extrinsic motivation was found to be .69, which is accepted to be moderately reliable according to the literature.

4.4. Procedures of Data collection

All the participants were informed about the purpose, content, length, time, language and procedures of the study prior to the study. Then, they were asked whether they would like to participate in the study, and all of them agreed to take part. The study was conducted in a six-week-long period. Firstly, a motivation pre-test was administered before the training sessions were started. Each session focused on a different aspect of foreign language learning lasting approximately 45 minutes per session. As mentioned before all the participants were Persian native speakers. Hence, participants’ mother tongue, Farsi, was used from time to times during the sessions since the general purpose of the study was to help learners learn how to learn and in relation to this, investigate their motivational level. Additionally, all the participants did not seem to be professional and confident enough to speak in English about complicated and technical
subjects. A typical learner training session started with greeting and establishing rapport. In order to increase participants' awareness about the topic and also make them personalize the content, the participants were asked to reflect on their experience from the session by answering these two main questions: 1) What have I learned from this teaching session? 2) How and where can I use what I have learned this session?

4.5. Procedures for data analysis

The data obtained from the pre-experimental study were fed into the computer and analyzed with several statistical procedures like descriptive statistics, Paired Samples T-test and Independent Samples T-test on SPSS.

5. Results

Table 1
Total mean values of motivation pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Subjects</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out whether a significant change occurred in learners’ motivational level in learning English, firstly descriptive statistics of pre-test motivation was carried out and mean values were calculated. As it is revealed in table 1 the mean value of pre-test total motivation was found to be 5.12. The results of descriptive statistics indicate that learners’ overall intrinsic motivation appears to be fairly high (mean: 5.17). This result reveals that the majority of the participants are quite aware of the significance of English in their future lives. On the other hand, the mean score of extrinsic motivation was 5.06. It is fairly lower that intrinsic motivation.

Table 2
Descriptive statistics of learners’ intrinsic motivation in learning English (Before Treatment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation Items of questionnaire</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I like English.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the table 2, some questions’ mean and standard deviation was more than the others. For instance, I find English learning enjoyable have the highest mean score (Mean:5.68). On the other hand, ‘I would like to learn English even if I didn’t have to’ had the least mean score (Mean score:4.94). The other items’ mean scores are classified in the above table separately.

Table 3
Descriptive statistics of learners’ extrinsic motivation in learning English (Before Treatment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items of questionnaire on motivation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. I will need to know English in the future.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It will be important for me to know English in the future.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I need to learn English for my future career.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I want only to survive the English lesson.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The main reason I learn English because I have to.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. If I had the choice I’d give up learning English.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interestingly enough, participants’ extrinsic motivation was also high among university learners’ too. After analyzing motivation questionnaire, it was noticed that all of the first three highest scoring items involved statements related to the importance of English with respect to learners’ future employment needs or career.

Table 4
The differences between extrinsic and intrinsic Motivation before treatment (Paired-Samples T-test results for)
In order to find out whether the difference between total mean values of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of pre-test was significant, a Paired-Samples T-test was implemented in the above table.

**Table 5**
**Total mean values of motivation post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Subjects</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic motivation(Pre-test)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out whether a significant change occurred in learners’ motivational level after treatment in learning English, descriptive statistics of post-test motivation was carried out and mean values were calculated. As it is revealed in table 5 the mean value of post-test total motivation was found to be 5.01. The results of descriptive statistics indicate that learners’ overall intrinsic motivation appears to be fairly high (mean: 5.10). This result reveals that the majority of the participants are quite aware of the significance of English in their future lives. On the other hand, the mean score of extrinsic motivation was 5.06. It is fairly lower than intrinsic motivation. All in all, there was not specific change in students’ level of motivation after treatment.

**Table 6**
**Descriptive statistics of learners’ intrinsic motivation in learning English (After Treatment)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation Items of questionnaire</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I like English.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the results of descriptive statistics show that participants’ intrinsic motivation could be said to be high as in the pre-test. As table 6 shows in some items, there are specific differences between some items.

Table 7
Descriptive statistics of learners’ extrinsic motivation in learning English (After Treatment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items of questionnaire on motivation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. I will need to know English in the future.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>.40</td>
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<td>5.94</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I need to learn English for my future career.</td>
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<td>5.98</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I want only to survive the English lesson.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The main reason I learn English because I have to.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. If I had the choice I’d give up learning English.</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results of motivation items, descriptive statistics show that learners’ extrinsic motivation is considerably high, especially in terms of some items.

Table 8
Gender differences in learners’ motivational level after treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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As table 8 revealed there is not a particular difference between female and male subjects’ motivation in this study. The mean score of male is 5.14 and mean score of female is 5.23. Therefore, there wasn’t significant difference between two genders.

Table 9
The results for the differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation after treatment (Paired-Samples T-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic motivation</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.361</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic motivation</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table revealed the difference between the mean values of extrinsic motivation (mean: 5.16) and intrinsic motivation (mean: 5.18) is not statistically significant (p>.05).

Table 10
The results for the differences between pre-test and post-test total motivation (Paired-Samples T-test)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sd</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test total motivation</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test total motivation</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the values in table 10, there is not a significant difference among participants’ motivation before and after the treatment (p>.05).

5. Discussion and Conclusion

One of the main purposes of the present study was to seek any possible significant increases in learners’ motivational level after a teaching or training program. According to the statistical results there was no considerable increase in university students’ overall motivation after
teaching sessions. Moreover, the findings pointed to no significant differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation neither before nor after the treatment. Finally, female and male students turned out to have quite close motivational level in learning English. Interestingly enough, it was proved that learners’ motivational level was again fairly high following the treatment. As it was revealed in the students’ pre-test motivation no notable differences were found between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of university students. Interestingly, future professional careers seemed to be an external factor for most of the participants. Seeking any possible significant increases in learners’ motivational level after a teaching or training program was the critical purpose of this study. Accordingly, the statistical results revealed that no considerable increase was detected in learners’ overall motivation. Additionally, the findings revealed that there were no significant differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation neither before nor after the treatment. Since motivation is considered one of the main elements in shaping learners’ behavior and performance, and determination to achieve goals; therefore, it could be suggested that teaching can enhance learners’ motivation with a focus on the development of learners’ metacognition provided that it incorporated into every subject area and introduced preferably from the very beginning of education for different levels. If the time and the duration of the learner training observed, better behavior changes may occur in long periods. Teaching learners to become aware of themselves as learners and learning process is one of the most important factors of teaching and learning process. Therefore, it should be taken as part of a whole scheme of language learning.

6. Pedagogical implications and some hints for English teachers

Putting the result and findings of every research into practice to improve others’ knowledge is the most important purpose and challenge of every scientific research. Since motivation is a very important part of learning second/foreign language, a teacher must equip him/herself with up-to-date techniques and methods of motivating students. As matter of fact, motivation is affected by several elements including personal ones such as age; academic success level; educational, cultural and family background, etc. and several contextual ones such as timing, duration of the training, intensity of teaching program and so on. Nevertheless, the English teachers should bear this point in their minds that all the other factors, or at least a majority of them, such as effective teachers, effective materials, and effective instruction should be provided so that motivation in learning can be greatly enhanced. Interestingly, the results of the present study have several important implications regarding learners, teachers, and methodological issues. Considering the fact that motivation is a crucial construct shaping learners’ behavior and performance, and determination to achieve future goals, it could be suggested that teaching and training aiming to increase learners’ motivation with a focus on the development of learners’ metacognition should be incorporated into every subject area and introduced preferably from the very beginning of education. With regard to foreign language teacher, the training of pre-service language teachers should be strictly concerned with teaching how to learn apart from teaching how to teach the
content area. All in all, English teachers should be aware that considering motivation is essential part of teaching and learning process, specifically, in nonnative classes.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank all the participants of this study for their time, tolerance, and cooperation.

References

Appendix 1

Dimensions of motivation and corresponding questionnaire items

Dimensions of motivation
Item Numbers

(1) I strongly agree, (2) I agree, (3) I am not sure, (4) I disagree, (5) I strongly disagree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic motivation items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I like English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I would like to visit an English-speaking country.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would like to be able to speak English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I enjoy English lessons.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I find English interesting.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I want to do well in English class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I would like to meet English-speaking people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. When I learn new things in English, I feel satisfied.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I would like to learn English even if I didn’t have to.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I find learning English enjoyable.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Learning English is important for my personal development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. It makes me happy to think that I learn English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic motivation items</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. I will need to know English in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. It will be important for me to know English in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I need to learn English for my future career.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I want only to survive the English lesson.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The main reason I learn English because I have to.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. If I had the choice I’d give up learning English.</td>
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</table>
On CLT in Iran: Customers or Students' Reflections

Fatemeh Hemmati1
Payame Noor University of Tehran, Iran

Abdullah Gharbavi2
Payame Noor University of Ahwaz, Iran

Somayeh Salmani Kalleh3
Payame Noor University of Varamin, Iran

Abstract: This study intends to explore students' perceptions about teachers' qualifications to help students learn the communicative skills as they are taught in schools. Another purpose was to determine the most frequently taught communication strategy in high school classrooms in Khuzestan province. Ninety seven high school students participated in this study. A questionnaire and an interview were used. They ticked statements about the support they received and the frequency of communication strategies taught by the teachers. The statements were to be rated on a 6-point Likert-type classification from Strongly Disagree (rated as 1) to Strongly Agree (rated as 6). The findings showed that many students considered the problem of "my teachers did not use English to run the class (M=6.2) and" my teachers did not help me when I stopped to talk and they always turned to better students" (M=5.1) as preventing them from learning to communicate more than "the lack of use of group, pair-work or role plays" (M=4.6). The mean differences of the two groups were statistically significant (p=.00).

Key words: CLT, students' attitudes, teaching English in Iran, communication strategy

1. Introduction

Good communication skills are a vital key to living a successful life. Business life, family life, social life and all relationships hinge on how well we communicate. Colleges and corporations place a high value on communication as a key skill (Horwitz, 2008; Nunan, 2003). Businesses want workers who can communicate effectively. Employees must be able to communicate clearly one-on-one, write clearly and present information to a group.

In Iran, many schools and language institutes offer English language courses to students. In addition, many universities require students take English courses. Do these courses and classes prepare students to do business with people of other nations and cultures or give them the competence to continue their studies in overseas countries? There are burning questions to ask with respect to communication skills: do the students feel they are taught communication skills? How communication skills are taught in Iranian education system. The answer to some of questions has remained an enigma. One of the pitfalls of education system in Iran is that it does
not equip the graduates with communicative ability in English (Dahmardeh, 2009; Fazel & Aghamolei, 2011). It is noteworthy to mention that English is the international language of politics, education, communication, medicine, tourism, science and technology (Bisong, 1995; Crystal, 1992; Gradol, 2006; Philipson, 1992). Because English is undisputedly the language of information and technology, it is expected to remain influential in the coming few decades (Graddol, 2006; Crystal, 2002). Indeed, David Crystal (2002) asserts that English has become such a pervasive power that it is now unstoppable, so that a shift to another language is unlikely in the near future. Accordingly, if we seek to produce graduates who can compete in the international market and help in the development and advancement of their societies, we have to scrutinize our educational system.

2. Statement of the problem

Despite the assertions of many teachers who claim to be communicative-oriented teachers, there are many obstacles in the way of implementing CLT pedagogy. "There are voices from both students and their parents that students are not taught communication skills to prepare students for career or persuasion of their studies." (Fazel & Aghamolaei, 2011). Kariminia and Salehi Zadeh (2007, p. 290) when discussing the problems of Persian learners of English stated:

Persian learners of English encounter problems in all the language skills. The students in Iran learn English in their native country, where the native language is Persian. The only way to learn English in Iran is through formal instruction, i.e. inside the classroom where the language teachers at school are native speakers of Farsi. There is little opportunity to learn English through natural interaction in the target language. This is only possible when students encounter native English speakers who come to the country as tourists, and this rarely happens.

While Dahmardeh (2009) concludes that textbooks and curriculum are not communicative, some for example, Fazel and Aghamolaei (2011) attribute this inadequacy to teachers' teaching styles and lack of knowledge of modern methods such as task and content-based instruction. And while researchers have been looking at what the inadequacies and pitfalls of the curriculum, little attention was paid to students' own perceptions about teaching procedures and of teachers' qualification to implement CLT. This leads to a need to explore the perceptions of students of the way communication skills are taught and the quality of the teachers to support the learning of communication skills.

3. Aim or purpose of the study

The aim of this study was, as mentioned earlier, to explore Iranian students' perceptions about teachers' qualifications and behaviors to help students learn the communication skills as they are taught in schools. Another purpose was to determine the most frequently taught communication strategy in Iranian high school classrooms in Khuzestan province.
4. The current situation of ELT in Iranian education system

Schools in Iran consist of three levels. The first level which is called *Dabestan* (the primary school) starts at the age of 6 for duration of 5 years of study. The students start their school at this level when they are 6-7 years old. This is followed by middle school which is composed of three years of education. Middle school, also known as orientation cycle (*Rahnamayi*), goes from the sixth to the eighth grade. Having finished the middle school students will be then qualified to enter into secondary school which involves four years of studying. Basically, the students should study twelve years to be entitled to attend national university entrance exam in order to go to university. Concerning ELT, the English language is a foreign language in Iran and students are taught this subject from the first year of the middle school. Students are taught English for seven years in schools. However, the quality of English education in schools is not satisfactory and most of students in order to obtain a better English fluency and proficiency have to take English courses in private institutes (Dahmardeh, 2009; Naghavi & Nakhle, 2003).

5. Definition of CLT

At the end of the 1960s, Audio-Lingual Method met a drastic attack from both American sociolinguistics and British functional linguistics based on the study of language from a wider perspective (Savignon, 2005). Hymes (1970) put forward the term —communicative competence to refer to appropriate language performance in contrast to "linguistic competence". At the same time, Halliday (1973) Wilkins (1972, 1976), Widdowson (1972, 1978), and Brumfit and Johnson (1979) emphasized the functional and communicative potential of language. They saw the need to focus on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001:153). Influenced by this view of language learning and teaching, "Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) came into existence with explicit attention on language in use" (ibid), which expanded the dimension of language from the previous linguistic forms to communicative function.

According to Savignon (1983, p. 10), the various pedagogical principles of a communicative approach to language teaching can be summarized as follows:

1. Teaching is learner-centered and responsive to learners' needs and interests.
2. The target language is acquired through interactive communicative use that encourages the
3. Genuinely meaningful language use is emphasized, along with unpredictability, risk-taking, and choice-making.
4. There is exposure to examples of authentic language from the target language community.
5. The formal properties of language are never treated in isolation from use; language forms are always addressed within a communicative context.
6. Learners are encouraged to discover the forms and structures of language for themselves.
7. There is a whole-language approach in which the four traditional language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) are integrated.
6. Debates on communicative competence

Communicative competence is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately (Canale & Swain, 1980, pp. 29-30).

The term was coined by Dell Hymes in 1966, reacting against the perceived inadequacy of Noam Chomsky's (1965) distinction between competence and performance (Richards and Rogers, 2001). To address Chomsky's abstract notion of competence, Hymes undertook ethnographic exploration of communicative competence that included "communicative form and function in integral relation to each other" (Leung, 2005). The approach pioneered by Hymes is now known as the ethnography of communication (ibid).

Debate has occurred regarding linguistic competence and communicative competence in the second and foreign language teaching literature, and scholars have found communicative competence as a superior model of language following Hymes' opposition to Chomsky's linguistic competence (Widdoson, 1978). This opposition has been adopted by those who seek new directions toward a communicative era by taking for granted the basic motives and the appropriateness of this opposition behind the development of communicative competence.

The notion of communicative competence is one of the theories that underlies the communicative approach to foreign language teaching. Canale and Swain (1980) defined communicative competence in terms of three components:

1. grammatical competence: words and rules
2. sociolinguistic competence: appropriateness
3. strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies

Canale (1983) refined the above model, adding discourse competence: cohesion and coherence.

A more recent survey of communicative competence by Bachman (1990) divides it into the broad headings of "organizational competence," which includes both grammatical and discourse (or textual) competence, and "pragmatic competence," which includes both sociolinguistic and "illocutionary" competence (Bachman, 1990). Strategic Competence is associated with the interlocutors' ability in using communication strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983).

Through the influence of communicative language teaching, it has become widely accepted that communicative competence should be the goal of language education, central to good classroom practice. This is in contrast to previous views in which grammatical competence was commonly given top priority.

7. Previous research

Naghavi and Nakhle (2003) examined the effect of cooperative learning strategy of Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD) on developing oral communication skills of intermediate language learners at a Language Institute. Utilizing this strategy, a list of six oral communication
skills were proposed and used as the most related skills to intermediate learners. The experimental design of the study depends on voluntary selection of choosing the group of the study, which consisted of 60 intermediate learners. The following tools were used to fulfill the purposes of the study: Oxford Placement Test, a pre-post oral communication skills and cooperative learning strategy of STAD which consisted of a teacher's guide and students' handbook. The findings revealed that the program was effective in developing students’ oral communication skills as there was statistically significant difference between the pre and post administration of the test.

In another study, Fazel and Aghamolaei (2011) conducted research on the attitudes of medical students toward learning communication skills at Hormozgan University of Medical Sciences in Iran. In this cross-sectional study, the questionnaires were distributed to 210 medical students. Twenty-eight students were excluded since they either did not return the questionnaires or filled them out incompletely. The results showed that there were statistically significant differences between male and female students and between basic sciences and pathophysiology students on the one hand and clinical course students on the other as regards their attitudes toward learning communication skills.

Dahmardeh (2009) investigated the issue of how to make the Iranian secondary school's English language textbooks communicative. He interviewed the teachers and the authors of the textbooks. However, he ignored the student's attitudes and views about their teachers. Students are the main clienteles of the education system in Iran. Having considered the collected data from a variety of sources (Textbooks analysis as well as comments made by the respondents), Dahmardeh concluded that: 1. Iranian students have to study English as a foreign language for nearly seven years in the schools (3 years in Guidance school, 3 years in Secondary school and 1 year in Pre-University level), yet the education they receive neither enables the students to attain full competence in using the English language nor helps them to interact with confidence. 2. English language classes have become nearly one of the boring classes for both teacher and students. 3. He also states that "it is surprising to find that there is no evidence of non-Iranian culture in the textbooks."

Considering what was found in the literature and the researcher experience, the following research questions were formulated:

1. How do students perceive teachers' methods and their teachers’ instructional practices to support the learning of communication skills?
2. Are there differences in the perceptions of students who can use English for communication and those who cannot – about their teachers’ qualifications in high school?
3. What is the most frequently taught communication strategy in high school classrooms?

8. Methodology
8.1 The design
The research design is exploratory, aiming to investigate, from a student-perspective, the state of communication skills teaching in Iran. This type of design was thought appropriate since there is a dearth of research on this topic, and the present study is the first investigation on how communication skills are actually taught in Iran. Hence, it opens an uncharted line of investigation. Exploratory research provided qualitative data either through interviews; questionnaires or think-aloud protocols. However, in this study, questionnaires were chosen over interviews because interviews require spontaneous answers, which might be hard for students whose English is weak. It is important to note that this communicative-oriented questionnaire was constructed by the present authors of this study. To overcome the barrier of low English proficiency, students were given a chance to answer the questions in either Farsi or English.

8.2 The instrument

In order to categorize the students into two groups: students who were able to communicate and use the language for the purpose of communication and those who were not able to communicate and use their English for the purpose of communication, at the start point, a simulated IELTS interviews (May, P., 2004) was administered (see Appendix A). And then a total of 97 high school students, answered a questionnaire. They ticked statements about the teachers’ instructional practices and the frequency of communication strategies taught by their teachers (see Appendix B).

8.3 The participants

97 students from different schools answered the questions. In years ranging from the second to the third of high schools, they came from diverse schools; Participants came from different regions in Khuzestan province, including Abadan, Khoramshar, Ahwaz, Shush, Dezful and Shushtar.

9. Results

9.1 Students’ responses

When the 97 students were asked to rate barriers that stopped them from learning communication skills or using English for the purpose of communication, the analysis showed that many students considered the problem of "my teacher did not use English to run the class" (M=6.2) and "my teachers did not attempt to help me when I stop talking due to my language problems in communication and they always turned to better students" (M=5.1) as preventing them from learning to communicate more than "the lack of preponderance use of group, pair-work or role plays" (M=4.6). However, in comparing the mean scores of those who were not able to communicate and those who were able to communicate, the results showed that those who were not able to communicate had an overall higher mean (M=5.7) on the perceived effect of lack of group activities and role plays on their learning to communicate compared to those who were able to communicate in English (M=3.5). The mean differences were statistically significant.
(p=.00). However, there were no significant differences between the two groups on their rating of the problem of "my teachers did not help me to overcome my language problem. When I stop to continue speaking, they turn to better students." (see Tables 1 and 2)

Table 1. Teacher's activities and behaviors affecting students to learn the communication skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My teacher didn’t use English to run the class</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>63.30</td>
<td>6.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher didn’t help me to communicate when I stop talking due to my language problems and they always turned to better students.</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teacher did not employ group activities and role plays in their classrooms</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Comparison of the mean scores of CCAU and CNAU on the perceived problem of lack of group activities and role plays

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Having ability to communicate</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot;</th>
<th>(p)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCAU</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>5.466</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNAU</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*CCAU* = students who were able to communicate and use the language for the purpose of communication

*CNAU* = students who were not able to communicate and use their English for the purpose of communication

When asked to rate the frequency of communicative strategies that were taught to them, the analysis showed that many students considered "appeal for help" strategy (M=5.6) and "circumlocution" strategy (M=5.3) to be more frequent than "non-linguistics signals" such as mime, gesture, or facial expression (M=3.2).

Table 3. Three most frequently taught communication skills
### 10. Discussion

The main objectives of the study were to find answers to three guiding questions: 1) how do students perceive teachers’ methods and their teachers’ instructional practices to support the learning of communication skills? 2) are there differences in the perceptions of students who can use English for communication and those who cannot – about their teachers’ qualifications in high school? 3) what is the most frequently taught communication strategy in high school classrooms in Khouzestan? Looking at Table 1, you can see that many students considered the problem of "my teacher did not use English to run the class" as their main barrier to learn how to communicate in English. Why their English teachers did not use English as the main language of their classrooms? One explanation that can be put forward is that the students speak Farsi at home and many of them do not know the meanings of simple English words and phrases, and it can be difficult for teachers to communicate with them in English.

Another argument for why the teachers do not use English to run their classes or why did not adopt communicative approach is that teachers assume their responsibility to transmit knowledge whether in English or Farsi. In our school culture the focus is on the transmission of knowledge and the classes are expected to be teacher centered.

The question of teacher confidence is relevant to the argument of why teachers do not use English as the main language of the classroom. The adoption of a communicative approach holds substantial implications for the knowledge and skills of teachers. Medyges (1986, p. 112), for example, comments on the heavy linguistic demands made by communicative language teaching on non-native teachers whose energy is 'inevitably used up in the constant struggle with their own language deficiencies, leaving only small fraction for attending to their problems.'

Large classes are enormous problem to adopt communicative language teaching. The large classes made it hard for teachers to make use of group work, especially in the classrooms with fixed and immovable desks and chairs. Additionally, due to the over-crowded classes, it is almost impossible to give individualized attention to each learner. Moreover, disciplinary issues dominate large classes. The teachers are concerned much about the classroom management problems that result from over-crowded classrooms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication strategies</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeal for help</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Circumlocution&quot;</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>1.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Non-linguistics signals&quot;</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Still another reason why teachers didn’t use English to communicate with their students is that these teachers may encounter resistance from some grammar-oriented students, parents and the educational policy. The present researcher can remember all those bad days in high schools due to students and the school principals' resistance to his use of English as the main language of the classroom. However, there are some students who enjoy seeing their teacher use new words, idioms, grammatical structures, or whatever. These students are more likely to be interested and to interact than if the teacher just gives them the translation or use Farsi as main language in the classroom.

Teachers have heavily-loaded English teaching program. Teachers are concerned that they to cover too many language items, i.e. essentially grammar points, in a limited period of time. This being so, they essentially have to skip activities that focus on productive language skills such as speaking and writing so that they can cover the necessary grammar points in a timely fashion. Finishing all the grammar points on time is vital in that students are tested only on grammar in nationwide standardized tests that they are supposed to take at the end of each school year.

The problem also can be attributed to the testing system in Iran. English questions on standardized tests are principally testing grammatical and vocabulary knowledge of students. There is also a number of reading comprehension and sentence-level translation questions, too. Yet, speaking, listening, or writing skills are not assessed in those multiple-choice tests.

As mentioned earlier, another purpose of the study was to determine the most frequently taught communication strategy in high schools. Table 3 shows that students perceived “appeal for help” strategy as the most frequently taught communication strategy. Teachers taught this strategy more than any other strategy because they might find it easier to teach or transfer this type of strategy and they find it more difficult to teach other communication skill. In addition, these teachers might think that students might find circumlocution so difficult to use because employing this strategy put cognitive pressure on the students. Students should possess a good proficiency to utilize this strategy to their best. Among these strategies, non-linguistic signals were found to be the least frequently taught strategies. This find may be related to psychological and social barriers of employing body language in the classrooms. Teachers might be afraid that their gestures, postures and body movements might be ridiculed and copied by some nosy parkers outside their classrooms. This can also be related to teachers' culture and context. Brown (2007, p. 238) states that people differ tremendously in employing their non-verbal or body language. In some cultures, non-verbal communication is used more than other cultures.

12. Conclusion

What the Iranian students said about communicative teachers and non-communicative activities in their English classroom is informative for teachers concerned with what students are likely to
reject as ineffective practice to meet their communicative needs. The students in this study see all teachers' activities emphasizing formal linguistic competence more than those emphasizing the real use of language. They also did not view teachers to be competent to improve their communication skills.

The results of the study do show a tendency that most of the students favor communicative and blame non-communicative activities in their English classroom. All the subjects are aware of the fact that the current teaching methods in high schools do not satisfy their modern needs. The only way out is to adopt communicative activities in English learning.

All in all, students' perceptions about their teachers to improve their communication skills were negative. It is necessary that teachers teach communication skills by showing their students that actions speak louder than words. They have to devote time to present lectures or to converse with students. They have to sense your communication ability and hear your accent and pronunciation. This can motivate the students and provide them with the needed input. They also need to integrate technology in their classroom. There are many learning technologies available for communication skills training. These include CD-ROMs, websites and DVDs.

Teachers should ask students open-ended questions that require full explanations to answer. This can help break the cycle in students who like to constantly give yes and no answers. Teachers need to read stories to their young students to improve their listening skills. People enjoy hearing stories. Using stories in the English language classroom is an old technique but at the same time very useful in communicative approach methodology. We call it a miracle for several reasons: Firstly, it is a way of entertainment. That is why all students are encouraged to take part in activities assigned by teachers. Secondly, we can have a lot of pair-works and group-works which are absolutely necessary for teaching and learning English. Students don’t feel shy when they talk to each other. Thirdly, storytelling helps the students a lot with their listening and speaking skills. Storytelling can be a receptive skill and can also be changed into a productive one.

References


Wilkins, D. A. (1972). The linguistics and situational content of the common core in a unit/credit system. MS, Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Appendix A: Interview questions

In order to categorize the students into two groups: students who were able to communicate and use the language for the purpose of communication and those who were not able to communicate and use their English for the purpose of communication, at the start point, simulated IELTS interviews (May, P., 2004, pp. 36-38) were administered.

Introductory questions

What is your full name?
What do people usually call you?
Where were you born?
Where are you from?

Part 1
1. What kind of town is it?
2. What's the most interesting area?
3. What's kind of jobs do people do?
4. Do you think it's a good place to live?
5. Do you have any hobbies or interests?
6. How did you first become interested in that?
7. What other things like that would you like to do?
8. What kind of transport do you use regularly?
9. How do people in your country travel on long journeys?
10. How has transport there changed over the last twenty-five years?

Part Two

Describe someone you know, or somebody famous, who has achieved great success.

You should say:

Who they are and what they do
Where they from: their background
How they became successful
And explain why you admire this person

Part Three
1. How does present-day society measure the success of an individual?
2. How can ensure that more people achieve their aim in life?
3. How would you rather be successful in your job or in your social life?
4. Which is more important in sport: winning or taking part?
5. What makes some sports people take drugs to improve their performance?
6. Why are some countries more successful than others in events such as Olympics?
7. How do competitive relationships between people differ from cooperative relationships?
8. In what ways has society become more competitive in the last twenty years?

Appendix B

Communicative-oriented teacher's questionnaire
Date: ________
Name: ___________________________________________

This questionnaire is private and confidential. The information gathered from individual questionnaire, will be analyzed for research purposes only.

• Remember—there are no correct or incorrect answers.
• Please read each statement and circle the number that applies to you.

Part A
5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3= neutral, 2=disagree, 1=strongly disagree

1. My teachers used English as the main classroom language. 5 4 3 2 1
2. My teachers used to focus their teaching on learners needs. 5 4 3 2 1
3. They gave much more time to practice English than to explanation 5 4 3 2 1
4. Instructions and directions are done more in Farsi than English 5 4 3 2 1
   Feedbacks (such as "that's very good") are given more in Farsi rather than English. 5 4 3 2 1
   Enquiries (such as "Have you seen Reza lately") are done in Farsi rather than English. 5 4 3 2 1
5. My teachers required the students to act out and personalize all the dialogues in the textbook. 5 4 3 2 1

Part B
5=always, 4=usually, 3=sometimes, 2=rarely, 1=never

8. My teachers used to describe or exemplify the words or phrases that we couldn't understand (Circumlocution strategy) 5 4 3 2 1
9. My teachers used to advise and remind the students to ask for help to overcome their language problems while
10. My teachers used to utilize mimes, gestures, facial expressions to get their meaning across and they always reminded us to utilize these strategies. (Non-linguistic signals)
An Analysis of Linguistic Competence in Writing Texts by Teachers in Palangka Raya

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Abstract: This article is intended to describe the linguistic competence in writing narrative text by junior high school English teachers in Palangka Raya, Central Kalimantan (CK), of the Republic of Indonesia.

The handwrite-narrative texts of Cinderella were collected as data from four English teachers at for private junior high schools in Palangka Raya. The analysis was done by applying Genre-Based Approach of Functional-Systemic Linguistics in order to describe the language used.

The results showed that the teacher texts were mostly constructed in simple sentences, with the average clause density of 1.6 each sentence. The types of processes were dominated by material, relational, and mental processes which were supported by temporal circumstances. Topical and textual theme indicated that the texts were organized as a narration. Although there were some mistakes in using the rules of tenses, overgeneralization, missing some parts of clause elements, the texts still fulfilled the minimal criteria of a narrative text. The majority had the basic generic structure levels consisting of: orientation \& complication \& resolution.

Keywords: linguistic competence, Genre-based Approach, text.

1. Introduction

A professional teacher of language should have at least four competences: linguistics, pedagogy, sociolinguistics and strategy. Dealing with linguistic competence, a teacher has many tasks. Zaharova (2011) mentions linguistic competence covers the areas of lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic. Therefore, pedagogy competence of English teachers can be achieved when the teacher has mastered the curriculum/ syllabus of the English language.

In Indonesia, the curriculum of English Language applies Genre-Based Approach (hereafter called GBA). This approach focuses on language use within different genre/ type of texts for all skills of language: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The GBA cannot be
separated from what is called a Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach. This approach states that every text within a language – written or spoken – has social or situational and cultural context. The social or situational context deals with register and the cultural context deals with that of genre. Take an example of narrative text which has the social function to entertain the reader or audience and this text culturally has its own generic structure levels of generic analysis.

Realizing the phenomena of the English curriculum in Indonesia, started from the 2004 English curriculum to the newest curriculum of 2013, the GBA which is adopted from SFL, has become the obligation for English teachers to master many kinds of discourses. It is designed according to government regulation in the sense that the curriculum has to be competence-based and at the end of instructional subject, learners are expected to be able to communicate in English as one of their life skills. They are expected to be able to handle written texts, not only for pursuing further studies but also for learning independently in order to be independent members of the community.

However, there are still many English teachers who do not possess the basic criteria to be professional teachers. This condition can be seen from the pre-test for professional English teachers of junior high school (SMP) and senior high school (SMA) levels in comprehending texts of GBA. The Education Assurance Quality Institution of CK reported that out of 81 junior high school English teachers, 19 (23.5%) of them did not pass the test (the similar test is not held for this year, 2013). The results of pre-test for professional English teacher were shown in the following table.

### Table 1: The Results of Pre-test for Professional Teacher

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Regency</th>
<th>SMP</th>
<th></th>
<th>SMA</th>
<th></th>
<th>Vocational Schools</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>Fail</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>Fail</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kapuas</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>South Barito</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>North Barito</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>East Kotawaringin</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>West Kotawaringin</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pulang Pisau</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Gunung Mas</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The reason why English is still difficult to be taught and learnt in CK is that this language is classified as a foreign language and no native speakers are within schools, or even at the universities. Comparing to Malaysia (Gill, et al., 2012: 772), English is widespread used for written newspapers and for the medium of teaching.

Based on that fact, this article is intended to describe the linguistic competence toward GBA of junior high school English teachers in Palangka Raya, CK with the concerning question: how is the English language used by the English teachers in writing the narrative text of Cinderella?

2. Concept and Theory

Most of the handbooks and worksheets used for the students of SMP are dominated by texts. Generally, texts can be divided based on the physical structures of the texts and its functions. From the physical structures, texts can be divided into three types: narration, description and exposition (Vivian in Ngabut, 2000:1). Narrative texts are those which are organized according to *time order or chronological order*, while descriptive texts follow *spatial order* and exposition follows *logical order*. This means that the paragraphs are arranged in such a way that the reader can understand the writer's thinking. On the other hand, the types of writing can also be categorized based on the function, which can be classified into two genres; story and factual. The story genres include narrative, news story, exemplum, anecdote, and recount, whereas the factual genres include procedure, explanation, report, exposition, and discussion.
The texts for students of SMP and SMA, which apply to the GBA, usually consist of three elements: social functions, language features, and generic structures. These are presented into four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, the GBA is used in the curriculum and syllabus of primary and secondary school levels (SMP and SMA) since 2004.

The use of the GBA as one of the alternatives for teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in Indonesia has some considerations:

- Education policy (ELT curriculum) has undergone several changes from Communicative Approach to GBA (for English Language Curriculum of 2004, commonly known as Competence-based Curriculum) as it is expected to develop communicative competence in both spoken and written English language.
- GBA stresses teaching and learning English in types of texts can connect speech or writing with meanings: interpersonal, ideational, and textual (Depdiknas, 2003: 58). So, it can be said that any (meaningful) speech, event or communication, in the discourse area can produce texts. A discourse is what people say, write, listen to or read and are considered as the language use based on context of situation and culture.
- The focus on the whole texts implies that there are higher levels of order and patterning in language than just in sentence-grammar at the level of discourse organization and meta-patterning of grammatical language (Eggins, 2004)

Moreover, there are some advantages of GBA in TEFL:

- teachers and students understand different types of written texts,
- teaching and learning focuses on the understanding and production of selected genres of text,
- it starts with the whole text as the unit in focus rather than the sentences,
- Genre represents a stage or goal-oriented social process: genres are referred to as social processes because members of culture interact to achieve them,
- GBA propose the framework of teaching: building knowledge of the field (BKoF), modeling of text (MoT), joint negotiation of text (JNoT), and independent construction of text (ICoT), in spoken and written cycles or curriculum cycle (Depdiknas 2004).

From these advantages, the national curriculum adopts the approach which is derived from SFL, developed by British Linguist Michael Halliday (1994), in the 1960s and 1970s. Halliday’s object of study is actual living language in its context of use. His model describes a language as a system or a set of structures that people use to make meanings, in particular social and cultural contexts. Since the 1970s his theory has been elaborated and developed by many linguists working throughout the world, including in Indonesia.

The curriculum of 2004 was designed according to the government regulation in the sense that the curriculum has to be competence-based with the goal being that learners will be able to communicate in English as one of their life skills. They are expected to interact written texts not only for pursuing further studies, but also for learning independently in order to be self
sufficient member of the community. To translate these ideas into an English curriculum, we need to have a clear idea about what language competence is. The definition of language competence needs to be defined by examining the relevant theories.

The term ‘competence’ has been used throughout international literature since Chomsky adopted it in 1965 (in Spada and Lightbown, 2010). Since then, this notion has been used by different authors, some of which use the original sense as meant by Chomsky and others use it in a different sense according to their research or writing purposes. That is probably why the word ‘competence’ has been widely used and ‘abused’. Therefore, when people use the term, it is important that the definition is provided so the readers know exactly whether it is competence in Chomskyan sense (Psycholinguistic tradition) or in a pedagogical sense (socio-cultural). This is mainly concerned with tacit knowledge, ‘ready state’, or ‘attained state’ and not with how that state is attained. Since pedagogy is about how to attain a particular state of language ability, a model of competence that is pedagogically motivated the used as the basis of developing the 2004 curriculum. That model was the one developed by Celce-Murcia (2001: 1), which stated “the main competence in language education is discourse competence”. It means that when someone is communicating both written and spoken language, he/ she automatically involves discourse. Drawing on previous communicative competence models developed for language learning purposes, Celce-Murcia’s model arrived with highly explicit and specific details covering what language learners need to attain if they want to develop communicative competence. Celce-Murcia’s model suggests that the ultimate competence is communicative competence (CC) or discourse competence. To attain this competence, learners need the supporting competences including linguistic, action, socio-cultural, and strategic. The details presented on the lists of ‘micro’ competencies assist users to see what they need to develop when they want to develop learners’ communicative competence. However, the most important, and probably the most challenging part, is how all those details contribute to the development of communicative competence or discourse competence.

The types of text (genres) developed for the 2004 English curriculum include transactional conversations (to get something done), interpersonal conversations (to establish and maintain social relations), short functional texts (announcements, greeting cards, etc), monologues and essays of varying genres. In other words, these are the communicative competence to be developed. Along with the competence, the literacy levels are also determined based on the government regulation that senior high school graduates are supposed to be ready for handling the kinds of text they face at university level. In other words, they are supposed to be able to access accumulative knowledge typically obtained at higher learning situations. For this reason, the text types determined for SMA level include: descriptive, report, news item, narrative, discussion, explanation, exposition, and review. The genres for SMP level include: procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, and report.
In accordance with the types of texts taught both at SMP and SMA level, this research is focused in discussing the narrative text. Since narrative text is one of the genres that has complete characteristics including social functions to entertain, specific language features and generic structure levels that make it a comparable tool for assessing English.

3. **Method and Procedures**

The data collected for the research consisted narrative texts from Cinderella written by four English teachers of four private schools in Palangka Raya. These four teachers have the qualifications of *Sarjana* degree (graduate degree) and have five years work experience in teaching English for SMP level.

The analysis data was divided into three elements of texts, language features, social functions and the generic structures. The data collection used the following procedures:

1. ask the teachers whether they knew narrative text Cinderella,
2. ask the teachers to handwrite the text or retell the story,
3. collect the texts written by the teachers,
4. analyze the text which contains elements (language features, social function and the generic structure) underlying the analysis according to Eggins (2004): lexico-grammar (mood, transitivity and theme) and discourse-semantics (field, mode and tenor).

4. **Results of the Data Analysis**

From the four teachers’ handwriting, the lexico-grammar analysis and discourse-semantics of texts can be described as the following.

4.1. **The Description of Lexico-Grammar Analysis**

The lexico-grammar analysis was conducted through the analysis of mood, transitivity and theme.

4.1.1. **Mood Analysis**

Mood analysis was conducted by looking at the density of clauses and sentences, the mood of each clauses, the modality, and types of adjunct. The results are described as the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The total number of clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The total number of sentences</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The density of clause and sentence</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The density of clauses is the average number of clauses per sentence in a text. According to the results in the above table, the narrative texts written by the SMP teachers were categorized as low with the average number of clauses, laid between 1.94 and 1.5. It means that the texts were constructed by simple sentences and since the density of clauses was low, it indicated that the text structures fulfilled the characteristics of written text (Eggins 1994:61). However, there is a different perception that long sentence means long utterance. It could be related to the capability to produce long sentences.

The second result analysis was the types of mood (forms of situation found in each clause). The analysis was based on a clause having one complete meaning.

Table 3: Mood within the Narrative Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood (in the level of clause only)</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full declarative</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliptical declarative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full polar (yes-no polar)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliptical polar</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full informational question</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliptical information question</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete sentence</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amount of clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Types of mood clauses in the four texts are mostly full declarative. The use of declarative clauses is mostly structured: Subject + Predicate (+Object+ Adverb). Besides that, elliptical declaratives are also found in the texts that is the dependent clauses. However, there are some clauses that are elliptically structured but are considered as incomplete sentences, such as in clause 31 of Text 2: “The king asked his bodyguard to look at every house... had girl for tried glass slippers.” In this case, the problem is the capability of the writer to construct a complete sentence.

Furthermore, the third mood analysis is modality of the texts. Modality considers the level of certainty, obligation, or intensity. It can be classified into two categories: modalization and modulation. The two categories are quite similar: modalization relates to the aspect of interpersonal meanings and the relationship with positive and negative possibilities habitual, whereas modulation relates to intensity and obligatory that usually in imperative forms (Tantra, 2003: 21-22). Modalization and modulation will show the authorities of the participants in a text.

The modalization can only be found in Texts 1, 2 and 4 (from handwrite of original text, with no revision) as follows:
Text 1
Clause 07: Her father will marry with the woman (will = modalization)
Clause 10: I will be able to have a step-mother and step sisters (modalization)
Clause 15: She might not to have a friend anymore (negation modalization)
Clause 25: You must home before late at night (modalization)

Text 2
Clause 13: Magic would loosed at 12 p.m. (modalization)
Clause 24: Cinderella must go (modalization).
Clause 25: But magic would loosed (modalization)

Text 4
Clause 09: But Cinderella was not permitted to go to this party (modalization)
Clause 23: Everything would be as the first (modalization)

Table 4: Modality of the Narrative Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modalization</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Modality</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the explanation, it is evident that Text 1 uses higher modalization than the other texts. It explained the way the writer creates less authoritative, more suggestive tenor, by balancing the power of inequality inherent in the modulations as in Texts 2 and 4. Whereas, in Text 3 there is no modality used by the writer which means there is no power of participants in the text.

The description of modality is also supported by the types of adjuncts as a part of lexicogrammar analysis. The types of adjuncts in the narrative texts are presented in the following table:

Table 5: Types of Adjuncts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Adjunct</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Circumstantial</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Adjunct</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table shows that the total number of adjuncts in Text 1, 2, 3 and 4 are more than the total number of clauses. It can be interpreted that the writers provide circumstances as the modifier of clauses in order to explain the texts clearly.

Related to the density of clauses and sentences (in table 2) and types of adjuncts, it can be said that the texts fulfill the criteria of written language; even though the function of narrative text is orally communicated.

4.1.2. Transitivity Analysis

The explanation in lexico-grammar is also supported by types of processes from each clause. The type of process itself is divided into three groups: one that shows the activity/ action (consists of material and behavioral processes), signification (mental and verbal processes), and being (relational and existential processes). In disclosing the ideational meaning, the type of process in clauses or sentences will be cleared by the circumstances that give information of: (1) how long, (2) where/ when, (3) how, and with whom an event happened (Tantra, 2003: 19). The transitivity analysis includes two main points: the type of process and circumstances. Therefore, this analysis is based on the language syntax. The analysis of the process types used in narrative texts is presented as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Process</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Processes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The description explains: Text 1 is dominated by material and relational processes; Text 2 by material, mental and relational processes; Text 3 by relational and material process; and Text 4 by material, verbal and relational processes. Based on the explanation that all texts are dominated by material, mental and relational processes, it can be said that the texts have fulfilled the criteria of narrative text.

Moreover, the four texts are also supported by circumstances, which are presented as follows:
Table 7: Types of Circumstances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matter</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accompaniment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Circumstances</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, the circumstances of the four texts stress the situations of an event by using location of time and space. This fact is similar to the concept of narrative text that focuses on time order.

4.1.3. Theme Analysis

The last analysis of lexico-grammar is the theme of each clause that can be described as follows:

Table 8: Themes of the Clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Circumstantial as Theme</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textual Theme</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Theme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topical Theme</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent clause as theme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of Theme</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of Clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the data, it is known that the four texts are dominated by topical and textual themes. The use of topical themes indicates that the first constituent of the clauses are transitivity roles, such as actors, carriers, and sensors; whereas textual themes indicate simple narrative, such as the use of and or then.

4.2. Description of Discourse-Semantics Analysis

The discourse-semantics analysis in this study was derived from the three meanings namely ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. These three meanings have action to
disclose tenor, field and mode to the text. The analysis of these three meanings of the four narrative texts is based on the analysis of lexico-grammar that can be explained as the following:

4.2.1. Ideational Meaning Analysis

Ideational meaning analysis was conducted through transitivity analysis: the processes, participants and circumstances.

a. Processes

Based on the texts written by the teachers, they were dominated by material, relational and mental processes, which fulfilled the criteria of narrative texts.

However, some mistakes in the form of verbs used in the text were found. It is known that in narratives the verb should be in past tense form and there were some of the clauses that used the present form of verb. Besides, there were also errors in applying past tense forms of regular verbs and nominal sentences that did not have ‘the verb’ or ‘to be’.

(Text 1: clause 7) that her father will marry with the woman (future tense)
(Text 2: clause 4) At home Cinderella always to do homework (present tense)
(Text 3: clause 2). Her name is Cinderella (present tense)
(Text 4: clause 2) She life with her stepmother and two stepsister (noun)
(Text 4: clause 3) They very bad (no existing verb)

b. Participants

Based on the analysis of participant of Texts 1, 2, 3 and 4, it can be explained that all the participants are Cinderella, her father, Cinderella’s step mother and her two step sisters, the Prince, a fairy godmother and a coachman. The use of participants was dominated by carriers and actors. It means that the writer used the relational and material types of processes. Therefore, it can be said that the four narrative texts used the same main participants, namely Cinderella.

c. Circumstances

The circumstances commonly used in narrative texts are temporal circumstances. It is in line with Texts 1, 2, 3, and 4 which used the temporal circumstances: Once upon time, One day, One night, and, and then.

4.2.2. Interpersonal Meaning Analysis

The interpersonal meaning is derived from the analysis of mood. Based on the analysis, the clauses found in Texts 1, 2, 3, 4 are mostly full declarative, in which the clauses have the structure: Subject + Predicate (+ Object + Complement). The use of full-declarative clauses has a correlation to the characteristics written communication. In this case, narrative texts should be spoken language but the writer prepared the text in a written form.

4.2.3. Textual Meaning Analysis

Based on the analysis of themes, textual meaning is the way and the choice of how a writer organized the text. Texts 1 to 4 were mostly focused on ‘actors’ and ‘circumstances’ as a theme. It is relevant to the narrative in which the use of personal pronouns, such as Cinderella,
her step mother, or the Prince and also the use of temporal circumstances, such as Once upon a time, One day, and until the end. Besides, it also can be seen the use of textual theme: and.

4.3. The Description of Register of Text Engineering Written by the Teachers

The analysis of mood, transitivity and themes of all clauses in lexico-grammar are in order to have field, tenor and mode of the text. The analysis then used to reveal the context of situation, which considers as the register of the text. The following is the description of register:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Register variable</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field</td>
<td>Narrative of Cinderella</td>
<td>Narrative of Cinderella</td>
<td>Narrative of Cinderella</td>
<td>Narrative of Cinderella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>Written mode</td>
<td>Written mode</td>
<td>Written mode</td>
<td>Written Mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenor</td>
<td>- Cinderella/Step Mother and step sisters</td>
<td>- Cinderella/Step mother and sisters</td>
<td>- Cinderella/Step mother and sisters</td>
<td>- Cinderella/Step mother and sisters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Cinderella/a fairy</td>
<td>- Cinderella/a fairy god mother</td>
<td>- Cinderella’s step mother/ Cinderella</td>
<td>- A fairy/Cinderella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The Prince/ Cinderella</td>
<td>- The Prince/ Cinderella</td>
<td>- The Prince/ Cinderella</td>
<td>- The Prince/ Cinderella</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of register described in the table above shows that the field and the mode of four texts are the same and the tenor generally involves the same participants. The main participant is of course, Cinderella. It means that the four texts have been written in the same situational context.

4.4. Genre Analysis of Narrative Texts

The analysis of genre in the four texts is done through the analysis of generic structure of the text. The criteria of generic or schematic structure for narrative text include three components: Orientation, Complication, and Resolution. The analysis of generic structure of Text 1 is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 10: the Description of Generic Structure of Text 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
her father will marry with the woman who had two children. Cinderella’s mother and two of her step sisters were very cruel with Cinderella. She was ordered by them to do all the house work every day and she might not to have a friend anymore.

One night in the other palace of the kingdom there lived the handsome who wanted to find a friend for his wife as a queen. The prince invited all the girls to come to his party. Cinderella wanted to come to his party.

Resolution

Suddenly come to her room a fairy. She helped Cinderella to prepare for coming to the party. A coachman ready to bring Cinderella and a fairy said to her “You must go home before late at night”

Complication

When Cinderella was dancing with the prince, she forgot the time was over. She quickly went home and her shoes left in front of the palace.

Resolution

Tomorrow morning the prince with armies walked around the village to find which girl had the shoe. Until the end, the prince found the own of the shoe and he brought Cinderella to the palace and they lived happy there.

(The text is a teacher handwrite, with no revision)

It can be said that the generic structure levels (indicated by a symbol ^) of Text 1 is: Orientation^ Complication^ Resolution^ Complication^ Resolution. Texts 2, 3, and 4 also have similar generic structure. However, Text 2 is modified by the use of major and minor complications: Orientation^ Complication^ Resolution^ Complication^ Resolution; Text 3: Orientation^ Complication^ Resolution; Text 4: Orientation^ Complication^ Resolution^ Complication^ Resolution. The four generic structures of the texts have fulfilled the criteria of narrative text.

Therefore, there were some problems in the resolution of the narrative text Cinderella. It was not clear enough in Texts 2, 3 and 4. However, in Text 1, the resolution had been stated clearly, “Cinderella lived happily”.

5. Conclusion and Implication

From the analysis of lexico-grammar, discourse semantics, and generic structure of four narrative texts written by four junior high school teachers in Palangka Raya, it can be concluded that the teachers’ linguistic competence toward GBA has fulfilled the minimum criteria.

a. All the texts have fulfilled the basic criteria of narrative text.
b. The analysis of lexico-grammar illustrated that the teachers were able to write an original spoken text in the form of written one, even though there were some grammatical errors, such as in the use of simple past tense for narrative text, the incorrect choice of verb and noun (live and life), and the omission of verbs in nominal clauses and sentences.

c. In discourse-semantic analysis, all texts showed the same characteristics of the participants, based on the fact that the text had the same topic.

d. The generic structure levels of all texts also demonstrated that they fulfilled three basic levels of narrative text: Orientation \( \land \) Complication \( \land \) Resolution. Therefore, three of the texts did not provide a clear description of their resolution as the ending of the texts.

Based on the explanations, some implications might be proposed either for the teachers or the government (National Education Ministry).

a. A teacher, as a model in a classroom, should be able to demonstrate linguistic competence as it is the basic requirement in language teaching and learning processes. When a teacher can only show the minimum quality, it will affect the students’ achievements.

b. Government/ the Ministry of Education and Culture, as the decision maker for educational process, should facilitate trainings or the likes to improve continually the quality of teachers. It has already started in the Training for Professional Teacher ‘Pendidikan dan Latihan Profesi Guru’ (PLPG); however, it does not provide enough time for the participants/ teachers to learn linguistics. From 90 JP (Jam Pelajaran ‘a certain time for a lesson’), only 32 JP (35% of the total time) is for language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), in which the teachers are able to discuss language teaching and learning as well as linguistics. This is why teachers should be involved in other trainings so they are able to improve self-quality in teaching language.

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A Comparative Study of Interchange 1 and English Book 1 of Iranian High Schools

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Abstract: Textbooks play a pivotal role in language classrooms and educational systems all over the world. The purpose of the present study was to evaluate and compare two English textbooks, Interchange 1 (Richards et al., 2005) and English Book 1 of Iranian high schools (Birjandy et al., 2011) in order to illustrate their probable similarities and differences in terms of content, vocabulary, grammar, reading exercises and activities, pronunciation practice, physical makeup, and language functions. For this purpose, the weaknesses and strengths of these English textbooks are explained using eight criteria which have been drawn from various checklists. Since these two English textbooks are compared and contrasted according to these specific criteria, data collection are exploratory involving qualitative data which were analyzed interpretively. Although each one of these books has its own merits and demerits, overall the findings revealed that English book 1, in comparison with Interchange 1, is more grammar-based and does not satisfy Iranian students’ needs in the real world, moreover it is not compatible with the principles of communicative language teaching. It is argued that the writers of this book had better modify it by employing more communicative tasks to satisfy Iranian students’ needs and wants.

Keywords: Criteria, Comparison, Contrast, checklist, textbook

Introduction

Textbooks are one of the crucial components of the language teaching programs, furthermore they are one of the factors that may encourage or discourage learners depending on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks give students a kind of consistency. By using textbooks, learners can go forward step by step and find their ways, and on the other hand they are a kind of plan for teachers and help them manage their time in order to enhance learning in the classroom. There has been considerable controversy about the role of EFL textbooks in teaching and learning foreign languages all over the world. In Iran many researchers have conducted studies on textbook evaluation in the contexts of high schools and guidance schools to find out why teachers and students are not satisfied with their EFL textbooks. Where is the problem? It depends on many factors, one is textbooks. It seems that Iranian EFL textbooks are not designed according to the learners’ needs or interests.
This study serves as a guide for the students in order to realize their weaknesses in each part of their textbooks by considering the similarities and differences among different books. This study will also help teachers have a deeper understanding of textbooks and to overcome the problems by careful planning and time management. It will also be of benefit to the educationalists and textbook developers and will help them have a better view about designing textbooks.

**Review of the Related Literature**

**Teaching materials**

Material development is a recent phenomenon; it concerns both theoretical and practical undertakings. As a field of study it involves principles and procedures for designing, implementing, and evaluating language teaching materials, and as an undertaking it entails the production and evaluation of language teaching materials. These two aspects of materials development are related to each other by the development and use of classroom materials and theoretical studies, and they both inform and are informed by these procedures (Tomlinson, 1998). According to Richards (2001), language teaching classes all over the world take place by the extensive use of materials, that may take the form of printed, nonprinted or both together. They include:

- Printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers,
- Nonprinted materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos, or computer-based materials
- Materials that include both print and nonprint materials are self-access materials and materials on the internet;

In addition, there are some materials that are not designed for the instructional use, like magazines, newspapers, and TV materials.

**Authentic versus created materials**

When the role of materials and their efficiency in language curriculum came into account, the argument over the use of authentic versus created materials emerged. As Richards (2001, p. 252) suggests, “Authentic materials refer to the use in teaching of texts, photographs, video selections, and other teaching resources that were not specially prepared for pedagogical purposes. Created materials refer to textbook and other specially developed instructional resources.” Authentic materials are useful for native speakers; they are not used for their language instruction, but they help speakers of the language to share information or ideas. Authentic materials cause learners to encounter the real-world language use. Non-authentic materials are those that are designed for language instruction. They are simplified form of authentic texts, i.e. scripted texts, (Tomlinson, 2003).

There is an argument that using authentic materials may cause some difficulties for teachers as these materials contain difficult structures and they would be a burden on the shoulders of teachers especially in lower proficiency levels. However it can also be argued that ready-made materials may decrease the teachers’ responsibility and by using these materials, teachers instead of being creative and planning the teaching, may act poorly; in addition they may influence the
learners in a similar way (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Therefore using a combination of created and authentic materials in many language programs is preferred.

**Textbooks**

Textbooks are an important element in language teaching curriculums. They are necessary for both teachers and learners as they give them confidence. According to Brown (2001, p. 136), “The most obvious and most common form of material support for language instruction comes through textbooks.” Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p. 232) defined the role of textbooks in educational system as “a vehicle for teacher and learner training, as a support and relief, as providing as complete a picture as possible of what the change will look like and as a psychological support they give to teachers.” It can be argued that although there are role plays, conversations, discussions, and chalkboard work, none of them fulfills the role of textbooks which are unified instructional materials, moreover as supporting materials they play a very important role in the classroom (Brown, 2001).

**An introduction to evaluation**

There have been many definitions of *evaluation* some of which will be mentioned here. Probably the most frequently given definition is by Trochim (2006) who states that “Evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of some object.” There is another definition that emphasizes acquiring and assessing information rather than worth or merit which states that “Evaluation is the systematic acquisition and assessment of information to provide useful feedback about some object” (ibid.). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 97), textbook evaluation is basically a straightforward, analytical matching process; matching “needs” to available solutions.

**Types of evaluation in language teaching**

There are three types of evaluation which are acknowledged by most of the researchers. They include: formative evaluation, summative evaluation, and illuminative evaluation.

**Formative evaluation**

A formative evaluation sometimes referred to as internal evaluation is a method for judging the worth of a program while the program activities are formed in progress. This part of the evaluation focuses on the process. It permits the designers, learners, and instructors to monitor how well the instructional goals and objectives are being met. Its main purpose is to catch deficiencies so that proper learning can take place which allows the learners to master the required skills and knowledge.

**Summative evaluation**

A summative evaluation is another broad category of evaluation types. As the name shows, it is a method of judging the worth of a program at the end of the program activities. It is sometimes referred to as external evaluation. Scriven (1967) argued that “All assessments can be summative (i.e. have the potential to serve a summative function), but only some have the additional capability of serving formative functions.”
Illuminative evaluation

The illuminative evaluation is mostly concerned with studying the ongoing process of education. In general, the techniques used in this method are more subjective, and often involve personal value judgments of the results. The arguments in favor of this type of approach are that the variables in educational developments cannot be readily identified or controlled, and that inputs and outputs can be varied, complex, and difficult to specify with certainty, and often virtually impossible to measure. In such cases, the evaluator explores the perceptions, opinions, and attitudes of the staff and students, using a variety of methods (Richards, 2001).

Evaluation checklists

Among the various instruments used to collect data, questionnaires, surveys, interviews, and testing can be mentioned. The model or methodology used to gather data should be specified using a step-by-step procedure. It should be carefully designed and executed to ensure the data is accurate and valid. One of the procedures to collect data is checklist. Checklists are one of the common methods to evaluate English language teaching materials. A checklist is an instrument that provides the evaluator with a list of features of successful learning-teaching materials. A checklist is an instrument that provides the evaluator with a list of features of successful learning-teaching materials. As Tomlinson (2003) suggests, checklists are categorized separately into quantitative, qualitative, or outline format. Quantitative checklists are those that utilize rating scales with or without accompanying questions. Qualitative checklists are those that use close/open-ended questions without rating scales and outline format checklists are those without any rating scale and questions of any kind.

Characteristics of checklists

According to Mukundan and Nimechi (2012), in developing a checklist several points have to be considered including: validity, reliability, and practicality. A checklist must be reliable; it means that all the items on it should be clearly understood by each person using it. A checklist must be valid, which means, its developers must be aware of the relevant theories. A checklist is likely to be valid if it is based on a well-thought-out, well-researched system of knowledge that is directly relevant to what is being evaluated. A checklist also must be practical, which means, it should be in such a way that its users can use it, being economical can also assist to improve its practicality. A checklist is likely to be practical if it is not too long, if it is easy to use, and if it is easy to interpret its results.

Research on textbook evaluation in Iran

In Iran several projects have been carried out to evaluate textbooks (e.g., Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Golpour, 2012; Hashemi & Rahimpour, 2011; Jahangard, 2008). For example, Jahangard (2008) evaluated four EFL textbooks which had been prescribed to be used in Iranian high schools by retrospective or post-use procedure. He elaborated merits and demerits of the textbooks according to a checklist. In the results section of his study, he mentioned that the ultimate goals of the curriculum were not clarified and final objectives were not clearly specified. Another example is Hashemi and Rahimpour’s (2011) study, which is the evaluation of three English language textbooks of Iranian high schools. At the end she declared that English language textbooks that are taught at Iranian high schools do not meet teachers’ expectations.
Method

Design and procedure
In this study two English textbooks, *Interchange 1* and *English Book 1*, were compared and contrasted according to some specific criteria derived from various evaluation checklists, so data collection were exploratory involving qualitative data which were analyzed interpretively. Before conducting the study various checklists by different researchers were collected and analyzed to determine the specific criteria relevant to the study. Next, the selected criteria were included in the checklist for the present study and these two English textbooks were evaluated with the selected criteria. Finally the results of their evaluations were compared and contrasted to reveal their similarities and differences and to ascertain their merits and demerits for Iranian EFL learners.

Research question
What are the similarities and differences of the two English language textbooks, *Interchange 1* and *English Book 1* of Iranian high schools, in terms of content, vocabulary, grammar, reading, language functions, pronunciation practice, exercises and activities, and physical makeup?

Materials
The materials used for the evaluation purpose in this study were the textbooks *Interchange 1* (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005), and *English Book 1* (Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi, & Mahmoudi, 2011). *Interchange 1* consists of 16 units divided into different sections, and each section has its own purpose and the organization of *English Book 1* is in the form of nine lessons in which each lesson consists of nine sections.

Instruments
The two English language textbooks, *Interchange 1* and *English Book 1* which are respectively utilized in the private institutes and Iranian high schools, were evaluated based on an evaluation checklist which is a combination of different criteria used in various evaluation checklists by different researchers (e.g., Cunningworth, 1995; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991). The checklist used in this study consisted of eight sections with each section separately including some categories for examining the books in detail. The criteria used in the checklist were: 1- Content, 2- Vocabulary, 3.Grammar, 4- Reading, 5- Language Functions, 6- Pronunciation Practice, 7- Exercises and Activities, and 8- Physical makeup (see Appendix A).

Findings
The checklist used in this study had eight categories and 16 subcategories. The following is a review of the findings:

Regarding the first category, content, the objectives in *Interchange 1* are introduced in detail but in *English Book 1* they are very short and brief, moreover in *English Book 1* there is inconsistency between objectives and content in terms of vocabulary. Regarding the second category, vocabulary, there are a large number of new vocabulary items in *English Book 1*,
approximately 50 to 60 items; however in Interchange 1 the number of new vocabulary items does not exceed 12.

In terms of the third category, grammar, the clarifications and examples of grammatical points in English Book 1 are not enough and they are ambiguous in some parts of the book but the number of activities accompanying the structural points are satisfactory. However, a shortage in terms of pair or group work in these exercises is obvious. Grammatical points in Interchange 1 are introduced by some examples in which all of the subject pronouns: (I, you, we, he, she, it, they) are considered and this satisfies the learners’ needs. This logical manner of introduction is taken into account in both of these English textbooks except in the lessons eight and nine of English Book 1. Regarding the fourth category, reading, the results revealed that the topics in both of the English textbooks are interesting but in English Book 1 they are not up to date and they are mostly stories which aim to present more new vocabulary items and grammatical points, that is, they are not designed according to the learners’ needs and there are not any tasks for students to share their opinions.

Regarding the fifth category, language functions, it was argued that, all parts of the units in Interchange 1 are designed to introduce different language functions, however, in English Book 1 they are introduced in part F through one or two examples and they seem to be insufficient. Furthermore, there are not any exercises related to them except in lessons six and four of English Book 1. One of the demerits of English Book 1 is that speaking which is a skill to enhance learners’ communicative ability is embedded in the grammar part (part D), to further practice grammatical structures instead of speaking.

The sixth category is “pronunciation practice”, which is introduced in both of the textbooks appropriately and step by step. It is beneficial for the students that the phonetic symbols are considered in English Book 1. The difference is that in English Book 1 the individual words are mostly considered but in Interchange 1 the whole sentences are the main concern. One of the demerits of English Book 1 is that there is not any listening part accompanying the pronunciation points and it is left to the teachers and this may cause problems for learners’ pronunciation in the future because teachers at high schools are not native speakers of English.

The seventh category is “exercises and activities”. The number of activities in both of the textbooks is acceptable but the progress check activities in English Book 1 are in a way that there are only two exercise sections for reviewing from which one is at the beginning of the book and the other is at the end of the book whereas in Interchange 1 there is one progress check activity after every two units. It is obvious that the exercises and activities in Interchange 1 are designed for communication and they enhance fluency but in English Book 1 the exercises are designed for practicing grammatical points and to enhance accuracy. These exercises and activities mostly include: substitutions, repetitions, and completions but the exercises in Interchange 1 include role plays, pair work, and group work.

“Physical make-up” is the eighth category. The evaluation revealed that Interchange 1 contains more pictures and illustrations which are colorful and real and its papers’ quality is more acceptable in comparison with English Book 1. The pictures in English Book 1 are insufficient
and colorless and they are not real. Moreover it was argued that *English Book 1* is biased and this is clear from the names and the style of clothing in its pictures. This is a demerit for this book because as Golpour (2012) contends the culture and language are not only inseparable but also complementary to each other.

**Discussion**

The main purpose of the present study was to provide practical guidelines for Iranian EFL students and Iranian teachers regarding *English book 1*, by providing a clear picture of the weaknesses and strengths of this book, so in what follows the results of the comparison of this book with *Interchange 1* are discussed, and mainly its shortcomings are highlighted.

Considering the findings of the study, as Jahangard (2008) mentioned, it can be concluded that in comparison with *Interchange 1*, in *English book 1* there is a lack of concordance between the numbers of new words introduced in the new words section and the reading comprehension section and also there is a poor contextualization of the words. However there is a glossary both at the end of each lesson and at the end of the book and also the phonetic representation of words are included in it. But the final objectives are not specified in this book and what the students should achieve at the end of the course is not clear.

Regarding “grammar”, as Hashemi and Rahimpour (2011) contends, it can be argued that although in *English book 1* grammar is to some extent acceptable but the emphasis on drilling exercises is one of the problems of this textbook and it contradicts the basic principles of communicative language teaching.

In terms of “reading”, it can be argued that the passages in *English book 1* are long and they may tire the learners; therefore, it seems that the texts would have been more interesting and understandable if they had been related to the learners’ background knowledge. In this regard, *Interchange 1*, in using authentic texts and having good topics, is invaluable.

In terms of “language functions”, as Dahmardeh (2009) contends, it seems that activities in *English book 1* are different kinds of drilling exercises and are not designed to emphasize oral proficiency and their main focus is on accuracy.

“Pronunciation practice” is the other criterion which as Azizfar et al. (2010) contend, is nearly neglected in this textbook and includes only a few explanations related to suffixes.

Regarding “exercises and activities”, it seems that the majority of the drills in the *English book 1* are mechanical and they do not present a sufficient number of meaningful and communicative drills. Moreover, the exercises and drills in this textbook are too controlled and they do not develop learners’ communicative ability. However in the internationally developed ELT textbooks, like *Interchange 1*, there are many activities for pair and group work and role-playing. Plenty of communicative tasks are seen in these books such as opinion sharing and the focus on fluency is obvious in these textbooks.
The last criterion is “physical makeup”. As Golpour (2012) contends, it is clear that the cover of the English book 1 is poorly bonded, and the pictures used in the lessons do not attract the students and there is not enough space for writing the answers to the exercises. It seems that it would be much better if colorful pictures of real people and real environments were used in this book.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The present study by specifying the similarities and differences between two English textbooks, Interchange 1 and English Book 1, may help educationalists and material developers improve the textbooks and solve the problems and the shortcomings of the textbooks. Furthermore, it may also help the teachers diagnose the problems of the students in different parts of the books by considering the differences and similarities between these two textbooks.

**Conclusion**

The present study compared two English language textbooks, Interchange 1 and English Book 1, in terms of content, vocabulary, grammar, reading, language functions, pronunciation practice, exercises and activities, and physical make up. The study revealed that the Iranian high school textbook (English Book 1) has some weaknesses in some of the above mentioned categories. The study also showed that this book emphasizes grammar and accuracy rather than fluency. In addition its passages are not authentic which means that they are not designed according to the learners’ actual needs in the real world. It can be argued that the writers of this book had better modify it by employing more communicative tasks to satisfy Iranian students’ needs.

The present study has also some limitations that should be taken into account. The first limitation is that, the present study compared only one of the Iranian English textbooks with one of the books of Interchange series. The second limitation of the study is that it was not accompanied by an interview and the teachers’ opinions were not considered.

Future research can deal with the other aspects and areas of textbook evaluation which were not included in this study. For example, all the books in Interchange series can be studied separately or in comparison with other Iranian English textbooks. Also a micro evaluation can be done in terms of separate parts of the books such as listening parts, reading parts, etc. Finally different kinds of interviews can be developed for both teachers and students to consider their opinions in the evaluation of the textbooks.

**References**


## Appendix A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Content</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the objectives spelt out?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Is the material clearly organized?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Vocabulary</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the new vocabulary items presented appropriately and in various ways?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are the new vocabulary items repeated in subsequent lessons for reinforcement?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Grammar</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the grammatical rules presented appropriately and in a logical manner?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are there enough exercises and activities related to the grammatical points?</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Reading</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the reading texts interesting for the students?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are there enough exercises and activities accompanying the reading texts?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Language functions</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>a) Are the language functions presented appropriately?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are the language functions accompanied by different kinds of exercises?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Pronunciation practice</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the pronunciation points presented in an appropriate way?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are there enough exercises accompanying each point of pronunciation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Exercises and activities</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the exercises clearly and appropriately presented?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Do the textbooks contain review sections and exercises throughout the lessons?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8. Physical make-up</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Are the textbooks appropriate in terms of appearance and paper’s quality?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Are there enough and colorful illustrations in the textbooks?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigating the ESL Students’ Use of Metacognitive Reading Strategy on Their Reading Comprehension

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Abstract: Metacognitive awareness is known as one of the efficient ability that students can use in their reading tasks to overcome their comprehension problem. This study was planned to investigate the Indian ESL college students’ use of metacognitive reading strategies in their reading comprehension task. In this purpose, the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) questionnaire was employed to evaluate the students’ application of metacognitive reading strategies and the kinds of metacognitive reading strategies which they mostly prefer. After collecting the data, correlation statistical analysis was used to survey if there is any significant correlation between use of Metacognitive reading strategy and reading achievement. The outcomes show, ESL students of this study sometimes use metacognitive reading strategy while facing reading tasks. In addition, the participants considerably were aware and used Problem-solving strategies (M= 3.21) in comparison to Global reading strategies (M=2.89) which was used at the least. The findings supported the significant correlation between use of Metacognitive reading strategy and reading comprehension (Sig= 0.008). That means, learners will achieve better reading comprehension by using and getting aware of metacognitive reading strategies.

Keywords: Metacognitive reading strategy, ESL, Reading comprehension

Introduction:

Among all of the four language skills, reading is the most prominent proficiency that the language learners have to achieve, because while a person intends to learn a language he should deals with different materials such as books, magazines, newspaper and texts to get familiar with the structure and concept of different combinations of words in the target language. As there is a fact that declares for being a good writer first you have to be a good reader. However, Reading is considered to be one of the essential skills for learners as it is an important gateway for gaining and learning more knowledge. Bernhardt (2000) believed that reading is considered as one of the main important of language learning. Reading contains several actions like understanding the main idea, recognizing the main and important information, comprehending and learning, evaluating the passage in the academic circumstance.
Readers’ awareness, controlling, managing and regulating of these strategies are known as metacognitive knowledge or awareness (Anderson 2002). Metacognitive awareness is recognized as the main element for an effective reading. Those learners, who benefit from this ability, considerably have better reading performance and use more strategies effectively while facing reading task and can employ the strategies which are taught in their reading comprehension (Carrell 1989). New developments in the domain of reading comprehension have triggered an escalating emphasis on the function of metacognitive knowledge of one’s cognitive and motivational techniques while facing reading task (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Pressley, 2000). Generally metacognitive structure can describes the reading process more precisely as it is dependent to some ability which is more than cognitive. Larkin, (2009) believed that teaching metacognition knowledge has a great effect on children reading.

There are various definitions of metacognition; John Flavell (1979) described the metacognition as “knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena”. Based on Hartman, (1998) metacognition is fundamental since it has impacts on execution of learning, critical thinking and basic considering. Metacognitive learning focuses upon the techniques used and the assignments we went up against. (Garner, 1987). Consistent with Niemi (2002) and Shimamura (2000), metacognition is viewed as the information of one's cognitive methods the efficient utilization of this awareness to self-regulate these cognitive techniques. Metacognition had turned into a well known term in surveys on reading in light of the fact that it shows how readers arranged, observed, and emend their comprehension (Jacob & Paris, 1987).

Metacognitive procedures made learners to ponder their own particular thinking as they take part in academic learning tasks (Cubukcu, 2008) and running and regulating their cognitive technique handling for successful execution (Phakiti, 2003). Metacognition was totally recognized to be a higher request educated task that included an individual's ability to assess and control his learning. Subsequently, it had turned into a critical idea in theories of cognitive advancement and academic psychology (Jacobs & Paris, 1987).

Readers’ metacognitive information envelops learning of and control over their own particular thinking and content preparing (Walczyk 2000). Metacognition in this manner includes consciousness of one's cognitive methodologies and the regulation of one's cognitive techniques. Moreover, metacognition incorporates surveying the necessities of the problem, making an answer arrangement, selecting a suitable solution way, checking advancement towards the objective, and adjusting the result when essential (Mayer & Wittrock 1996). Metacognitive information in this way eludes to the conscious cognition control of cognitive action, which may be sorted into two segments to be specific, knowledge about cognition and its regulation.

learning consists of strategies which are conscious cognitive design, deliberately chosen and formulated by a learner to execute particular activities or procedures as all in recognizable strategies to encourage the obtaining, space, recovery, and utilization of data, with its usage
being planned to impact comprehension and learning (Philip 2005). Metacognitive reading methods make motivated learners as students foresee, build conclusions, and inquiry the content. Boulware-Gooden et al. (2007) found that different metacognitive strategies that concentrated on vocabulary obtaining, particularly expanded third-grade learner comprehension throughout reading.

Wilson and Smetana (2011) upheld utilizing Questioning as Thinking (QAT), that moved scholars far from discovering the reply "right there" to learners replying questions past the content which needed enacting earlier knowledge. By addressing and monitoring comprehension, learners in grades 4 through 12 enhanced their perception through the QAT approach.

Metacognition, the capacity to reflect upon one's learning and control one's reasoning (Flavell, 1979), is thought to help learners in recognizing significant parts of a task and accordingly impacts their capability to settle on strategic decisions. Metacognition is viewed as a fundamental part of learners' capability to screen their execution and adequately control their learning in crosswise over disciplinary ranges and learning in circumstances (Azevedo & Whiterspoon, 2009). Recent theories meanings of metacognition (e.g. Dunlosky & Metcalfe, 2009; Serra & Metcalfe, 2009) concur on the qualification between two parts: 1) metacognitive awareness of cognition, or metacognitive knowledge, alluding to learners' consciousness of their learning, of the undertaking, and their thinking/learning methods; and 2) metacognitive regulation, alluding to how learners use metacognitive mindfulness to screen and control their own particular thinking and learning.

In spite of various studies about the impact of using metacognitive strategies on reading comprehension, metacognitive reading strategy contains of different subcategories and the kinds of metacognitive reading strategies which students use more than others are still remained as a question. One of the main purposes of this study is to fill this gap which exists in the literature review of this title. In addition, there are scarce surveys about the using of metacognitive strategies on second language learners in India. So this study intends to find the relationship between the using of metacognitive reading strategies and second language learners’ reading comprehension. In another words, this study also tries to figure out whether the students who use more metacognitive reading strategies in their reading get better result or not.

The mentioned points lead to make the following questions of this study:

1. How often do ESL students of this study use metacognitive reading strategy in their reading comprehension task?

2. Which kinds of metacognitive reading strategies do ESL students’ mostly use in their reading comprehension task?
3. Is there any significant correlation between the ESL students’ use of metacognitive reading strategy and their English reading comprehension achievement?

Methods

Participants:

The participants in this study are volunteer students who are selected from two English classes which contain 90 students totally. The students were the first year students of a college in Mysore city, India. After giving Oxford placement test, 43 students were picked up as homogenized students. The level of the students was recognized as Intermediate level. The average age of the students was 20 years old. The mother tongue of all of the participants was Kannada language which is a local language of Karnataka state in India.

Instruments:

In this study two instruments were employed to answer the questions of this survey. First of all, the students were given an IELTS reading comprehension test which contained 40 questions and they had 60 minutes to go through it. After giving them around one hour break again they came back to class and they were given metacognitive reading strategies inventory test. The questionnaire which was used to determine the L2 learners’ metacognitive awareness is known as The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), this questionnaire is developed by Mokhtari and Sheory (2002) and includes 30 questions. This instrument reliability and validity has been already confirmed in various studies. The SORS scale has 3 main subcategories which includes: Global reading strategies (13 items), Problem solving strategies (8 items), and Support reading strategies (9 items).

Data collection:

This study was done in JSS College, in Mysore city, India. 43 students voluntarily participated in this study and also the purpose of this study was explained for them clearly. They went through IELTS reading comprehension test for 60 minutes and then after a break the Metacognitive questionnaire (SORS) was given to them with unlimited time. This questionnaire consists of 30 questions which the answers were designed according to five points Lickert scale that stats from 1 which means “never do this” to 5 which means “I always do this”. Regarding to analyzing the achieved data, SPSS 18 software was used to calculate the statistical procedures. Moreover, descriptive analyzes were applied to discuss about the use of metacognitive reading strategy.

Result and Discussion:

To achieve the result of this study, the data was analyzed descriptively and statistically. The descriptive statistics was used to determine the kinds of metacognitive reading strategies and also its subcategories which ESL students mostly use in their reading task. As it is obvious from the
Table 1, descriptive analysis shows how much students benefit from the metacognitive reading strategies in their reading task, and also which kinds of strategies they mostly use. By considering the table 1, it can be realized that, all the students used metacognitive reading strategies sometimes, as the mean score of total metacognitive reading strategies is 3.01 (Lickert scale started from always to never in 5 score). It seems that in Global reading strategies ESL students mostly use “predicting or guessing strategy” as this strategy has the highest mean (3.86) among other Global reading strategies. In addition, among Problem solving reading strategies, “Stay focus on task” (mean=4.20) and “guessing meaning of unknown words” (mean=4.16) strategies are more fashion and utilizable by ESL students in this study. Regarding to Supportive strategies, students mostly use “Underlying information in text” strategy (mean=3.90) to comprehend the reading text better. By calculating the mean score of the three main Metacognitive reading strategies (Global, Problem solving and Supportive) and comparing them together, it can be found that Problem Solving reading strategy was used in higher level than other two strategies as it’s mean score is M=3.21 which is higher than Global reading strategy which is M=2.89 and Supportive strategy which achieved 2.95 in its mean.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of ESL students’ use of Metacognitive reading strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Reading strategies</th>
<th>Problem solving strategies</th>
<th>Supportive strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting purpose</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using prior knowledge</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previewing text</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking text context</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skimming notes</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining what to read</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using text feature</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using context clues</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using typographical aids</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critically evaluating</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resolving conflicting info</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicting or guessing</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirming prediction</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total mean of all strategies</strong></td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Correlation analysis was applied to answer the third question of this study which intended to find the relationship between using the Metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension achievement. As it’s shown in table 2, there is a significant correlation (0.008) between reading comprehension achievement and Metacognitive reading strategy. So, it means that, in this study the ESL students’ use of Metacognitive reading strategy led them to a better comprehension of their reading task. In addition, according to the findings of correlation analysis in table 2, there is a significant correlation between students’ Reading comprehension and metacognitive reading strategy subscales, as the correlation between Reading comprehension and Global strategy is 0.002, Problem solving is 0.004 and for Supportive strategy it is 0.040. However, the findings of table 2 brought to the light that, the subscale strategies of metacognitive reading have significant correlation with each other too. As it is obvious in table 2, correlation between Reading comprehension and two metacognitive subscales, Global and Problem solving, is significant at the level of 0.01, and it support the high relationship between ESL students reading comprehension achievement and their use of Metacognitive reading strategy.

Table 2: Correlation among variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reading score</th>
<th>Metacognitive total score</th>
<th>Global total score</th>
<th>Problem total score</th>
<th>Supportive total score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.401**</td>
<td>.466**</td>
<td>.433</td>
<td>.314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive total score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.927**</td>
<td>.887**</td>
<td>.932</td>
<td>.932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global total score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.466**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.787**</td>
<td>.842**</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>N</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem total score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
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<td>.787**</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>N</td>
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<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive total score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.932**</td>
<td>.842**</td>
<td>.787**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.314**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In aspect of investigating the ratio of variance in Reading comprehension which is explainable by Metacognitive reading strategy, the outcome shows a significant correlation at the level of 0.01(sig=0.008). The linear regression analysis of the variables reveals that 27.7% using of Metacognitive reading strategies and it’s subcategories can predict the reading comprehension achievement(table 3).
Table 3: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.527&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.491</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Supportive total score, Problem total score, Global total score, Metacognitive total score

Also, the finding of table 4, emphasis on the significant correlation between all the metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension as the significant level is 0.013.

Table 4: ANOVA<sup>b</sup>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>3.530</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.882</td>
<td>3.649</td>
<td>.013&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>9.190</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12.719</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Supportive total score, Problem total score, Global total score, Metacognitive total score
<sup>b</sup> Dependent Variable: Score Main

**Conclusion:**

This study was intended to figure out Indian ESL college students’ metacognitive awareness of reading methods connected throughout educational reading. The outcomes demonstrated that they sometimes utilized metacognitive reading strategy (M=3.01). In this way, it could be say that the members in this study were almost attentive to these strategies and they utilized them sometimes. The outcomes showing dominating utilization of problem-solving strategies in this survey was in the line with Mokhtari and Reichard (2004) that critical thinking or problem-solving methods were basically utilized by ESL readers since these techniques were basic for comprehension. Especially, the strategies like "Predicting or guessing text meaning", "Stay focus on reading", "Guessing meaning of unknown words" and "Underlining information in text" were some of the methods that the learners wanted to utilize when they experienced any understanding issues throughout reading task.

The outcomes of this study lead the conclusion that Indian ESL students at college level sometimes implement reading strategies in reading tasks. Especially, Problem-solving strategies were favored most frequently to overcome reading troubles, emulated by Supportive reading methods to characterize the setting for reading. In addition, Global reading strategies were used by participants at the least level.

Particularly, “stay focus on task”(PROB) and “guessing meaning of unknown words”(PROB) were realized as two prominent strategies that the learners used more than other strategies, in
addition, “skimming to note text characteristics” (GLOB) and “reading aloud” (SUPP) were recognized as the least used strategies. Hence, it could be concluded that despite the fact that the learners in this study were interested to utilize reading strategies frequently (sometimes) and hence they were "almost" familiar with these techniques, as far as strategy sorts, they supported problem-solving strategies and supportive reading ones.

According to the results of the present study, there was a significant relationship between using metacognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension among ESL college learners. Research indicates that metacognitive reading strategy awareness promotes both performance and understanding of one’s reading comprehension. Correlation between ESL students reading comprehension and the Metacognitive reading strategy is significant at the level of 0.01 that means these variables closely dependent to each other. In other words, whatever the students’ metacognitive awareness is higher, their reading comprehension performance is better and they have significant correlation to each other.

As scholars led studies about the metacognitive reading strategy awareness, they realized that metacognitive reading methodology is one of the principle significant variables to enhance learner’s reading comprehension. It could be presumed that colleges or universities require to seriously enhance students' metacognitive reading strategies or make them self-evaluated and self-regulated learners.

References:


Practical Game: Implementing Practical Game on Iranian Early EFL Learners

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Abstract: Does using practical game have positive effects on Iranian early EFL learners? The current study examined the learning of EFL learners while using practical games. Students from 4 to 6 years old were assigned to two groups: one group used practical game and the other group used traditional method to learn English (ten students in each group). To have homogenized groups (to control moderate variable “intelligence”), Raven’s colored progressive test (IQ test) was run. Students of both group completed the achievement test and the results represented that practical game’s participants outperformed at both vocabulary learning and the sentence making. Students of game group made correct sentences while traditional group have difficulty with this part of achievement test.

Key words: practical game, vocabulary learning, early EFL learners

1. Introduction

Vocabulary knowledge affects a student’s ability to participate fully in both social and academic classroom routines. (Blachowicz & Watts-Taffe, 2005, p.6) “Vocabulary is an essential means of interchanging ideas and of acquiring new experiences. Man’s growth in ideas has always been accompanied by a corresponding expansion of his vocabulary.” (Gray 1939, p.1, as cited in Iheanacho, 1997)

While many researchers accept the importance of vocabulary acquisition in language learning, their ideas about how vocabulary should be learned have varied widely. Yanqing Sun and Qi Dong (2004) focused on the importance of vocabulary learning through using context. Some scholars (Cornillie, 2012, Jan, 2011, Demirbilek, 2010) believe that even there are so many studies have been done on different kinds of method to learning vocabulary but still teaching methods need more research on how to improve second language learners’ vocabulary size.

Nowadays so many researchers (Aghlara, 2011, Iheanacho, 1997, Yanqing & Dong, 2004, Tozcu & Coady, 2004) work on teaching vocabulary through using different methods that are more interesting for learners especially at early ages. Language game is one of the most interesting methods that teachers use in their classrooms.

Game is a form of life. It has its own rules and leads to extend individuals’ mental and motor activity capacities. It holds the attention of participants all the time. Because of these, teaching through games develops into a new method during this decade. Children learn best through
discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn in a playful and relaxed context. Language learning can be linked with natural activities such as play, since young children can learn languages as naturally as they learn to run, jump and play (Baker, 2000, as cited in Griva, Semoglou, & Geladari, 2010).

Games are activities that prepare the child for life. Owing to games, the child develops his/her motor skills and averts tensions by consuming his/her excess energy (Seker & Sahin, 2012, p. 1680). Children in the 2- to 5-year-old age group get their motivation and develop motor skills from self-play behaviors (Griva, Semoglou, & Geladari, 2010, p. 3700).

Moreover, teaching children is different from others. They are energetic with little patience to stay at classroom. Therefore, it is necessary to find an appropriate method for this age. Ages ‘between’ 5 to 8 can be considered as a sensitive and critical period for the acquisition of basic skills in a second language as well as for the development of perceptual-motor skills (Griva, Semoglou, & Geladari, 2010). Thus, this study investigates the impact of implementing game on early EFL vocabulary achievement and using it at sentence level.

2. Literature Review

During the past thirty years, theory and practice in language learning and language teaching have been changed in some ways:

- Individual learners and the individuality of learning
- Listening and reading as nonpassive and very complex receptive processes
- Listening comprehension’s being recognized as fundamental skill
- Real language used for real communication as viable classroom model (Celce Murcia, 2001).

In a specific study toward children, Hashemi and Azizinezhad (2011) in a study worked on teaching English to children. They believed that teaching English to children is not an easy job. They announced some characteristics of children like they are curious of asking questions; they believe in what is said and the real world to express and comprehend meaning/message; they have distinct opinions about what they like and what they dislike; they are open to what happens in the classroom and begin asking a teacher’s decision; and they can cooperate with each other and learn from others.

On the other hand, they state characteristics of language teachers who teach to children:

- must be energetic and patient.
- must love children.
- must pay attention to individual differences.
- must encourage, encourage, and encourage.
must let children see the beautiful and useful aspects of the language.
must let them love you as the language teacher and the new language as well.
must know the techniques of teaching.
must respect children as human.
must start teaching to children as soon as possible.

Hashemi and Azizinezhad at the end of their analytical study just mentioned one sentence “Remember: We Learn Teaching By Teaching.” (p. 2087)

“Those who educate children well are more to be honored than parents, for these only gave life, those the art of living well.” (Aristotle) The question is that by which method, which syllabus, and so many other questions. Stec (2011) searched to answer at least one of these questions. She believed, “For understanding the theory and practice of early language education, teachers should know the characteristic features and needs of children as language learners.” (p. 1123)

Thom and Sandhofer (2009) puts it, “Young children have been called ‘word-learning wizards’ due to their impressive ability to map novel words to their intended referents on the basis of minimal exposure” (p.466). In a study, they found that “vocabulary size is related to rapid word learning and extension within particular domains” (p. 471).

Game language is the other method that is the subject of some research studies toward language learning. It can be claimed that the history of gaming goes back to the beginning of the history of human being. (Demirbilek, Ylmaz, & Tamer, 2010) Games are indispensible part of education all the time and the concept of educational game has come into use in education world today. The value of educational games has been increasing in language education since they help to make language education entertaining. (Donmus, 2010)

Children learn best through discovery and experimentation and being motivated to learn in a playful and relaxed context. Language learning can be linked with natural activities such as play, since young children can learn languages as naturally as they learn to run, jump and play (Baker, 2000, as cited in Griva, Semoglou, & Geladari, 2010). Children learn by playing and having fun. Playing provides the opportunity to make mistakes without getting harmed. In this way, people learn by their experiences obtained from mistakes. (Cankaya, & Kuzu, 2010)

As game-based learning is focused on achieving the particular objectives of given educational content through game play, players’ attempts to solve problems are maintained throughout the learning session. Learning strategies and gaming strategies adopted to implement
problem-solving strategies in game-based learning may be the primary factor behind the high achievements in both learning and gaming. (Kim, Park, & Baek, 2009)

Games can fall into various categories such as ‘role play’ games, ‘physical’ games, ‘sorting’, ‘ordering’, or ‘arranging puzzles’, ‘labeling’ games, competitive and cooperative ones. (Griva, & et. al., 2010) Considering the benefits of educational games, games are programmed in different educational fields. Second language education is one of these fields. According to Seker & Sahin (2012), game teaching has three stages: introducing the game, implementing the game, evaluation of the game.

Kebritchi (2008, as cited in Donmus, 2010) states the positive effects of game according to his study as follows:

- The game motivates students because it has an alternative role in education. It offers students a learning environment apart from pen and paper.
- Desire to pass levels in games increases attention and learning.
- Game removes the lesson phobia in students’ minds.
- Concepts used in the games can be remembered longer.

Moon (2005) investigated both a teacher’s beliefs about the role of play and that teacher’s use of play in literacy learning serving children from diverse language backgrounds and “the result supported that each teacher may have a unique understanding or practical notion of play in literacy learning, and it may strongly affect his/her classroom practices” (p.vii).

Furthermore, Liu and Chu (2010) worked on the effect of game on learning. In this study, scholars investigated how ubiquitous (using different learning tactics) games influenced English learning achievement and motivation through a context-aware ubiquitous learning environment. They found that incorporating ubiquitous games into the English learning process could achieve a better learning outcomes and motivation than using non-gaming method. They further revealed a positive relationship between learning outcomes and motivation.

In teaching vocabulary by applying language game, there are some controversies. For example, Gale (2011) in his study found that although serious games can produce increases in learning, it does so at a lower rate than other instructional techniques.

In the other study that had been done by Seker and Sahin (2012) showed that “When the new Social Studies Curriculum is examined, it can be observed that the new curriculum has a structure that is student centered, based on activities, and based on using teaching strategies, methods, and techniques utilized in contemporary education-teaching activities.” (p.1683)
3. Research Questions
1. Is there any significant difference between the vocabulary learning of the group using practical games in classroom and the group applying traditional method?
2. Is there any significant difference between the vocabulary learning of the group using practical games in classroom and the group applying traditional method at the sentence level?

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants:
Twenty-six children enrolled to study English in Sokhan institution. They were between 4 to 6 years old. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two groups: game and control. Only individuals who were not familiar with English were allowed to participate in this study. So four students who knew words like hello, water, cat, apple, banana, mom and dad, home were removed from study. To have two groups in the same size, two other children were removed randomly.

The sample in each group consisted of ten participants (five girls and five boys). All of them were Iranian and Persian is the only language that they knew. Consent forms were given to students’ parents who read, signed, and returned it. The heads of institution gave approval for their students’ participation in the study, too.

4.2. Settings
The game’s class was full of child-size furniture, books, and chairs. There were so many colorful pictures on the wall. They were children’s painting, vocabularies’ pictures, and some children’s handicrafts. On the one corner of class, there was a cabinet with glassy doors. It was full of crayons, pictures, dolls, books, papers, flashcards, and CDs. (see Appendix A)

The control class was in medium size with one picture of anatomy of body on the wall. There were two closed windows that their pink curtain were pulled across to cover them. There was a big whiteboard and teacher’s table. Children had children-size chairs. (see Appendix B)

4.3. Materials

4.3.1. Raven’s Colored Progressive Matrices
Colored Progressive Matrices is designed for younger children. This test contains sets A and B from the standard matrices, with a further set of 12 items inserted between the two, as set Ab. Most items are presented on a colored background to make the test visually stimulating for participants. However the very last few items in set B are presented as black-on-white; in this way, if a subject exceeds the tester's expectations, transition to sets C, D, and E of the standard matrices is eased. This test was used for homogenizing two groups and control the moderating variable that is intelligence level of children.
### 4.3.2. My First English Adventure’ book

The pupil’s book consists of six lessons and each lesson has four main vocabularies. The scope and sequences of book were as follows:

**Table 4.1. The scope and sequences of My First English Adventure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Songs, Chants, and Teacher Talk</th>
<th>Classroom English and Kinesthetic Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>blue, red, yellow (brown, green, orange)</td>
<td>Hello/good-bye/ I’m(Mickey)/Look</td>
<td>This is Mickey/ Let’s(sing/play/dance)/ Show me (blue)/ Touch(yellow)/ Stand up/ Sit down/ Circle/ Open your book/ Close your book</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>baby, dad, mom, (family, grandma, grandpa)</td>
<td>I see (mom)/ my (mom)</td>
<td>It’s (my mom).</td>
<td>Turn around/ Go. Stop/ Come here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>My house, bedroom, bathroom, living room</td>
<td>Where is it?</td>
<td>Let’s dance/ sing and do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>arms, head, legs, (body, face, hair)</td>
<td>my (head)</td>
<td>Who’s this?/ My arms are blue/ I can touch (my head)/ your (head)/ One, two, three</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>apple, banana, biscuit(bread, cupcake, milk)</td>
<td>It’s (red)/ Yes. No/ (two) (bananas)</td>
<td>Give me (the apple), please/ What color?/ for me, for you/ four</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>Bird, rabbit, butterfly, fish</td>
<td>I see (a bird)/ Look.</td>
<td>What do you see? /Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six</td>
<td>ball, teddy bear, train, drum, toys</td>
<td>It’s (a teddy bear).</td>
<td>up, down/ big, small</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.3.3. Achievement Test

The test was made of twenty questions. It was an oral test and children one by one answered to questions. The test was made of two parts: knowing vocabulary and using them in the sentence. In order to concern validity, the test was based on content of materials that covered in the classroom so it had content validity. Teachers agreed on it and two experts
approved it. Therefore, the test was valid. To be reliable, the test was piloted in a group with the same number of students in that specific age. Test retest was used for reliability of this test.

4.4. Data Collection Procedures
Before collecting data, permission was obtained from children’s parents. Students’ participation was voluntary and there was no penalty to refuse participating. If at any time a person wishes to stop participating, he or she was free to do so. The collected data was confidential.

A day before treatment, students participate in IQ test. The test was consisted of two parts; the first part was an interview about students’ name, age, gender and some questions in English to recognize if they were familiar with English words. In this stage, four students who know English words were eliminated from the study. To have two groups with the same number of students, two other students were randomly removed. Then Raven’s colorful test was administered and an expert in psychology administered and analyzed the results of pre-test. Then the final data was analyzed by using SPSS. Based on the data in the below table the sig. was .956 therefore both were homogenous. Then the treatment was began.

Table 4.2. Results of IQ test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Game group’s class was held on Saturdays, Mondays, and Wednesdays from 17 to 18 o’clock. In this group, the teacher used *My First English Adventure* and different songs and plays. It should be mentioned that the songs were different from computer programs. Teacher applied different games: role-play, play in yard, handicraft, painting, and singing song. She used different instruments like crayons, painting colors, pictures, gum, scissors, colorful papers, mp3 systems, whiteboard, picture cards, stickers, and voice CDs.

A song in *Hello* began each section. Then teacher repeat what she taught in the last session. To do this, she played with picture cards. At first, she asked cards name from
children, then she arranged them on the board. She picked up one of them when children closed their eyes, then they opened their eyes and guessed which one was removed. If they answered correctly, they gave a sticker (mostly they were free to choose their desired sticker). The play was continued until all of children learned well and gave sticker.

At the second part of the class time, she taught the new lesson, e.g. *mum* and *dad* expression was taught first by role-playing, then picture cards, and finally teacher and children sang song based on new expressions. During teaching, students were free to express their ideas and changed their places in the classroom. Teacher listened to their ideas and answered their questions.

Some of the words were function verbs like *Jump, Turn around, and Hop*. To teach this kind of vocabularies, she brought children to the yard and asked them to jump, turn around or hop. To learn more, they played a game named *ley ley* (this game was consisted of eight houses that players have to go through each house in hop, jump or turn). Teacher played with them in groups or pair groups.

Pantomime was the other game. It was a kind of role-playing that teacher was the actress in the class. When vocabularies were acquired, children played it in pairs. Teacher whispered one vocabulary into one of student’s ear, she/he showed it using pantomime and the other student tried to guess it. In another game, the teacher lined the children and whispered one word to the first children. Each student whispered that word to the next one, then the last children find the picture of that word and other children named that picture.

Before the final part of the class, children had snack time. Then class’s time was devoted to the review of new lesson.

Control group’s class was held in Sundays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays on 18 to 19 o’clock. *My First English Adventure* was used. Control group’s class consisted of two parts. The first part, like other two groups, focused on reviewing prior lesson. In this part, teacher showed picture cards to children and asked questions in Persian. They should name the picture and if they forgot it, teacher named it (both in Persian and English). Then they repeat it several times.

In this class, children were not allowed to change their place or speak. They had to do tasks that teacher has already prepared. Between two parts, they had snack time in the classroom. They sat on their chair and ate and at the same time, the teacher asked questions from students that had problem and asked them to repeat again. Therefore, the first part referred to repeating the previous lessons.

The second part was begun by teacher’s explanation about new expressions. E.g. colors: the teacher asked the children to name colors in Persian then she named them in English.
Children repeat them several times, then new color was introduced. It should be mentioned that some vocabularies like jump that is based on motor activity was taught in the classroom.

Control class was not equipped with voice systems. Teacher used a recorder just in review sections and mostly she sang song by heart. The other point that should be mentioned was the specific parts of book. *My First English Adventure* had specific place for painting at the end of each lesson or some page to stick pictures. Students had done it before at home. Teacher just assigned them. Activity book was an important part which students should do it themselves at home.

Finally, the posttest that was consisted of two parts was held. The test was began by using vocabularies into sentences then ended with vocabulary knowledge. The test was reliable by pilot studied in test re-test (r = .876) and valid based on content of teaching and two experts confirmed it.

5. Results

In order to answer the first question, the mean of students in both groups was analyzed and then independent sample t-test was used based on SPSS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1. Descriptive Analysis of Using Vocabularies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group Statistics</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contro l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.2. The Outcome of Independent Sample t-test of Using Vocabularies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent Samples Test</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be inferred from table 5.2 the sig.(2-tailed) was .005. It shows game is significantly different from traditional method in teaching vocabularies. In the other words,
there was significant difference between control and game group in the knowledge of vocabularies.

The second part of achievement test, refers to using words in sentences. Therefore, table 5.3 shows the descriptive statistics of the post-test and table 5.4 depicts independent sample t-test.

Table 5.3. Descriptive Statistics of the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>type</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>game</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.7000</td>
<td>.67495</td>
<td>.21344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>control</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.4000</td>
<td>1.42984</td>
<td>.45216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since table 5.3 confirms that, there is a significant difference between means of both groups. Table 5.4 shows that significance result is .000, that is below 0.05, therefore, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean of game group with control group.

6. Discussions

The result showed that using language games has significant effect on vocabulary retention of the elementary EFL learners. Therefore, the first null hypothesis stating that, “using activity game has no significant effect on vocabulary retention of the elementary EFL learners”, cannot be confirmed. It can be claimed that using activity game language has a positive effect on students’ learning.

This result is in contrast with different studies like Turgut and Irgin (2009) that shows the effectiveness of games on the young learners’ vocabulary learning and another study by Connolly, Stansfield, and Hainey (2011) in the other study stated that games-based learning has made progressively significant contributions in helping to promote enhanced learning experiences within education. Virvou and Katsionis (2008) believed, “game was indeed usable and likeable but there was scope for usability and likeability improvement so that the educational...
benefits may be maximized for all categories of students” (p. 154). This scope and likeability to improve learning can be made clearer by answering the next question.

At sentence level, the results of independent sample t-test (table 5. 4) illustrated that activity game helped students to improve their learning second language at sentence level.

Game language method helps students to employ words at correct format of sentences. They play not only at word level but also at sentence level. They make use of vocabularies at sentence level when they sang song, role-play, play at yard before and after the classroom. Students’ parents of game group said that their child speak English with their toys or teach their toys in English. They learned role-play in the class and applied it outside of the classroom.

7. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of implementing practical games on early EFL vocabulary learning. This study compared the differences in students’ scores following an instructional session. The results illustrate that Game language’s influence is more obvious at sentence level where students that benefit game use more correct sentence in compare with students in the other group.

Blunt (2009) sought to determine a Return on Learning (ROL) measure when teaching using serious games. He conducted an empirical study using three university level business courses and found that, although serious games did not always increase student’s learning, “at least in some circumstances, the application of serious games significantly increases learning” (Blunt, 2009, as cited in Gale, 2011). In line with Blunt’s study, this study found that game language increased students learning at sentence level.

Furthermore, this study is pursuant with Gale’s study that did not find any instances of where serious games improved student learning. This study suggests that at vocabulary level, language game cannot improve learning when compared to traditional instructional method.

References


Appendix A: Game’s Setting
Appendix B: Control’s Setting
Controlled Extensive Reading and Vocabulary Knowledge: Let’s Move Towards Autonomous Learning in EFL Contexts

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Abstract: The present study aimed to investigate whether controlled extensive reading could be as effective as intensive reading in expanding vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, 70 learners were selected based on convenience sampling. The administration of the proficiency test enabled the researchers to select 60 homogeneous students. Subsequently, the two groups were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. The experimental group learned vocabulary with the aid of extensive reading and subsequent in-class activities; while the control group learned vocabulary through intensive reading in the classroom context. A word list before the treatment ensured the researchers that the target words were unfamiliar for the learners. After the treatment, a vocabulary posttest was administered to check vocabulary knowledge of the participants. Moreover, a questionnaire (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2001) was administered to compare students’ motivation in the groups. Finally, a MANOVA was run to analyze the data. The results led to the conclusion that controlled extensive reading had a statistically significant impact on EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge and motivation.

Key Words: extensive reading, intensive reading, vocabulary learning, in-class activities, autonomous learning

Introduction

Autonomy in language learning adds a meaningful dimension to the complicated process of learning since it gives students the opportunity to feel responsible towards their own learning and to become more active during the learning process. The concept of learner autonomy first made its appearance in the field of language teaching with Holec (as cited in Benson, 2001) who defined learner autonomy as “the ability to take the responsibility for one’s own learning including setting the goals, selecting the appropriate methods and techniques, and deciding upon one’s degree of success in learning” (Holec, 1981, p.3). The present study focused on extensive reading as an autonomous activity and intensive reading as a teacher-centered activity and aimed
to compare learners’ vocabulary knowledge on the two types of reading techniques on the basis of the assumption that vocabulary plays an active role in developing learners’ language proficiency and enhances achievement in EFL contexts. However, to make vocabulary learning more fruitful, learners’ needs and interests should be taken into consideration. When vocabulary items are derived from content learning materials, learners are better equipped to deal with them; as “the context facilitates active engagement of the learners in learning tasks and helps them feel vocabulary learning is effective” (Hedge 1985, p. 77).

Classroom-based, teacher-directed language learning has been important in language teaching and learning for decades; however, the notion of autonomous learning is also not new to language teachers. The role of researchers and educators is to look for fruitful learning strategies and teaching techniques which help learners become motivated and self-determined enough to take control of their own learning. Giving the opportunity to learners to free themselves from traditional classes and find the opportunity to decide upon the strategies they adopt for language learning seems to be a necessity in increasing learner motivation. In learner-centered autonomous situations, students are more sophisticated and equipped; thus teachers “who want to empower students to make decisions and resolve their own problems will give students opportunities to think, act, and take responsibility” (Charles, 1999, p. 221). Autonomous language learning techniques aids learners to develop their personal learning strategies and become more interested in the act of learning.

In this study, extensive reading, as compared to intensive reading, was used as a technique to examine the development of vocabulary learning and capacity for autonomous learning. The learners were given the opportunity to select the reading materials which, in turn, was assumed to enhance their motivation and help them set their learning objectives. To sum up, this study intended to examine whether extensive reading could promote autonomous vocabulary learning in the Iranian foreign language learning situation.

**Review of Literature**

Extensive reading or reading for pleasure outside the classroom or as Hill and Holden (1990, p. 91) called it, “free voluntary reading” helps learners become better readers and have more advanced vocabulary since it serves a source of comprehensible input and occurs in a low anxiety situation as students never feel pressured while reading outside the classroom. Hedge (1985) focused on the importance of extensive reading, arguing that “this kind of individual and self-directed process of learning leads students to independence in learning, which is a crucial factor in success” (p. 77). If students are prepared for reading and are given the chance to interact with a text, as Hedge argued, they can learn to read for general meaning without frequent stops to look words up in a dictionary. In fact, by extensive reading, learners can develop the ability to catch the meanings of unknown words and phrases from clues of the context. In fact, students who spend some time reading for pleasure outside the classroom can
learn by being actively involved in language, and can increase their comprehension of the texts as well as vocabulary knowledge.

Several studies in the literature suggested effectiveness of incidental vocabulary learning. Nation (2001, p. 394) maintained that children learn a large amount of their L1 vocabulary incidentally rather than intentionally. In their study, Pitts, White, and Krashen (1989) showed that reading novels for meaning by ESL learners can affect their vocabulary knowledge. The findings of Bensoussan and Laufer (2001) from a similar study showed that learners perform better in incidental vocabulary than intentional vocabulary learning. In a similar study conducted by Ahmad (2011) the distinction between intentional and incidental vocabulary learning and their effects on Saudi ESL learners’ ability was explored. In another study Webb (2005) approved that frequency of exposure to unknown words in different contexts enhances learners’ vocabulary knowledge. Yet, the National Reading Panel (2000) found that vocabulary can be learned both indirectly and directly, and that dependence on only one instructional method does not lead to optimal vocabulary growth.

Nonetheless, extensive reading as an autonomous technique provides learners with the chance to meet words in their context of use (Thornbury, 2002). Also, it increases sight vocabulary (Coady, 1997; Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nation & Coady, 1988), and could result in substantial vocabulary learning, which seems difficult to achieve with explicit teaching during the limited time that foreign language learners spend in the language classroom. Moreover, this technique helps EFL learners to find settings outside school where the target language is used like the Internet. In fact, for EFL learners it is critical to take advantage of as many chances as they can to learn and use the target language.

The main objective of the present study was to examine whether learning autonomously through extensive reading could foster vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. Also, the study intended to investigate the impact of autonomous vocabulary learning on the participants’ motivation. Consequently the following research questions were put forward:

RQ1. To what extent can extensive reading followed by in-class activities as compared to intensive reading be beneficial in promoting Iranian EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge?

RQ2. Which of the reading types (extensive or intensive) can enhance Iranian EFL learners’ motivation and vocabulary knowledge?
Methodology

Participants

A group of 15 year old students in two classes were selected to participate in this study. The participants were 60 secondary level high school girls living in Ardebil, Iran. The two classes, with 30 students in each, were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. The classes met once a week and lasted 90 minutes during a six-month treatment. Both classes were taught by the same teacher.

Instrumentation

The first instrument used in this study was a general proficiency multiple choice test consisting of 25 vocabulary items, 50 reading items, and 25 grammar items was developed by the researchers in order to check the homogeneity of the participants. This test was piloted with a group similar to the sample population of the study. Subsequently, item analysis was carried out and items with IFs between 0.25 and 0.70 and ID5 above 0.20 were included in the test. After discarding the mal-functioning items, the number of items was reduced to 50. In order to check the content validity of the test, two experienced teachers reviewed the test and confirmed the content validity of the test. The reliability of the test estimated through Cronbach’s alpha showed a relatively high reliability index (r = 0.79). Afterwards, the test was administered to a group of learners and 60 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the study.

The next instrument was a vocabulary list, the items of which were selected from the story books the students were going to read during the treatment. The participants were asked to write the Persian (students’ native language) meanings of the words. After checking the answers, it was clarified that 85% of the words were unfamiliar for the students.

The third instrument was a questionnaire adopted from Cohen and Dörnyei (2001) and translated into Persian to examine learners’ motivation, attitude toward language learning, and learning styles (see Appendix for English version). It had 36 five-point Likert type questions each followed by alternatives: Never (0), Rarely (1), Sometimes (2), Often (3) and Always (4) and was used after the treatment to measure participants’ motivation level and specify their learning styles. The internal consistency of the questionnaire calculated through Cronbach’s alpha (r = 0.74) indicated an acceptable internal consistency.

The last instrument was a 50-item test administered to determine participants’ vocabulary knowledge after the treatment. The test contained 25 vocabulary tests in multiple-choice format and five reading cloze passages in random ratio format. The words were mostly selected from among the words that the participants had learned from the story books. The content validity of
the test was approved by two experienced teachers and its reliability estimated through Cronbach’s alpha \( (r = 0.75) \) showed an acceptable reliability index.

**Materials**

Seven story books were cooperatively selected by the students and the teacher as the reading materials which included: *The missing Monkey* (Crowther, 2005), *Sunny’s Adventure* (Crowther, 2005), *Nine Stories About People* (Howe, 1986), *Peter and His Book* (Howe, 1983), *Season* (Mcllvain, 2001), *The Sandcastle Competition* (Penny, 2009), and *Annie and the Map* (Toyama, 2001).

**Procedure**

**Pretest**

After administration of the general proficiency test which aimed to examine the participants’ homogeneity, the vocabulary list was given to learners to ensure that the target words were not known by the learners prior to the treatment.

**Treatment**

**Experimental Group**

The participants in the experimental group selected one of the seven story books for extensive reading and kept a portfolio which contained the products of several activities related to their reading task. These activities included finding and highlighting the new words in storybooks, writing every word’s meaning in Persian by using a dictionary, and writing a sentence for every newly learned word. Also, students were asked to keep a diary journal about their reading progress for each book (how many pages they read, how much time they spent on reading, their problems during reading, and the like). Each session, students compared their new words and sentences with those of other classmates. When reading a book was completed, each learner was asked to briefly talk about the story and present a summary of the events. At the end of the course, each student had a 300 word list in her portfolio. The teacher was responsible for introducing the topic of the stories, helping learners to complete the required activities, and answering questions. A very useful activity was helping the students make flash cards for the new words, show it to their classmates, and ask their meaning.

**Control Group**

In this group, the same story books were used as the reading materials. However, reading activity was limited to the classroom; that is, the learners experienced intensive reading for the improvement of their vocabulary knowledge. Learners started with a ten-minute silent reading. Then the teacher divided the class into five groups each group consisting of six students who
read together and checked the meaning of the new words from a dictionary. Similar to the control group, students in this group highlighted the new words and wrote their meanings. The new words were then written on the board and defined to make sure that all students had clearly understood them. Then, students wrote a sentence for every new word and spoke about the topic of stories. After reading a story book was completed (each book took about three to four sessions), students took a reading comprehension and vocabulary test based on the content of the book. The students in this group also kept a portfolio which contained the newly learned words.

**Posttest**

After one semester, the vocabulary posttest was administered to both groups to examine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the vocabulary knowledge of the groups. The test, as mentioned earlier, contained most of the words participants acquired during the study.

**Questionnaire**

As stated earlier, a questionnaire was administered to both groups after the treatment to check students’ degree of willingness to acquire new words, the level of their motivation in vocabulary learning, and their preferences in language learning styles.

**Findings**

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the general proficiency test administered at the onset of the study. The results of skewness analysis obtained by dividing the statistic of skewness by the standard error revealed that the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of scores (with the skewness ratios both falling between the acceptable range of ±1.96; 1.37 for the experimental group and -0.77 for the control group). The comparison of the mean scores showed no significant difference before the treatment, t(58) = 0.0927, sig > 0.05.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness Statistics</th>
<th>Std.Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20.66</td>
<td>63.74</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.83</td>
<td>34.83</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>-.401</td>
<td>.309</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 2**

**Independent Samples t-Test, Proficiency Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s test for</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
After the treatment, an independent samples t-test was performed to compare the mean scores of the two groups on the vocabulary test. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for the two groups. As Table 4 indicates, the comparison of the mean values of the two groups on the posttest was statistically significant $t(58) = 2.23$, sig. $0.03 < 0.05$ (two-tailed) and thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Table: 3**

Descriptive Statistics, Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>skewness</th>
<th>skewness Statistics</th>
<th>skewness Std.Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>28.2000</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.42165</td>
<td>1.53758</td>
<td>-.106</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>23.7000</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.15903</td>
<td>1.30705</td>
<td>-.722</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table: 4**

Independent Samples t-Test, Posttest

In order to be able to answer the second research question of the study, the researchers had to compare the control and experimental groups’ mean scores on the vocabulary posttest and the questionnaire. For this purpose, a test of Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run. Table 5 shows the within-subjects factors which include the dependent variables; that is, the learners’ vocabulary learning and degree of their preferences and motivation.
Table: 5

Within-Subject Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, the between-subjects factors are shown in Table 6.

Table: 6

Between-Subjects Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groups 1.00</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 illustrates the descriptive statistics:

Table: 7

Descriptive Statistics of Groups, Questionnaire (Appendix)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>16.2000</td>
<td>2.32527</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>15.6333</td>
<td>3.10154</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15.9167</td>
<td>2.73268</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>13.0000</td>
<td>6.43803</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>12.9000</td>
<td>4.32594</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12.9500</td>
<td>5.43817</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>17.8000</td>
<td>2.69610</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>14.7667</td>
<td>3.58813</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16.2833</td>
<td>3.49863</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>15.5667</td>
<td>3.16972</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>14.3333</td>
<td>3.18762</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14.9500</td>
<td>3.21240</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>19.1667</td>
<td>2.69205</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>16.7000</td>
<td>3.04166</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17.9333</td>
<td>3.10749</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>16.3000</td>
<td>3.23931</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>18.0667</td>
<td>2.76597</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17.1833</td>
<td>3.11634</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factors A, B, C, D, E, and F in Table 7 are related to parts 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 in the questionnaire respectively (See Appendix).

As Table 7 shows, all factors in the experimental group had a higher mean as compared to the control group. The experimental group showed a higher mean in Factor E (integrative motivation); however, in Factor E (instrumental motivation) the control group had higher mean as compared to the experimental group. Both groups had a low mean in Factor B.

The results of multivariate tests, presented in Table 8 indicated that there was a change in the participants’ vocabulary knowledge and a difference in the motivation level for reading (extensive/intensive).

### Table: 8
**Multivariate Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Pillai’s Trace</td>
<td>.688</td>
<td>23.840a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>23.840a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace</td>
<td>2.207</td>
<td>23.840a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy’s Largest Root</td>
<td>2.207</td>
<td>23.840a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 Groups</td>
<td>Pillai’s Trace</td>
<td>.455</td>
<td>9.001a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>9.001a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling’s Trace</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>9.001a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roy’s Largest Root</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>9.001a</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 8, the value for Wilks’ Lambda for extensive reading is $F= 9.001, p<0.01$; it could thus be concluded that within subject factors had significant effect on the degree of intercept of the two groups meaning that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the effects of factors (A, B, C, D).

### Table: 9
**Tests of Within & Between Subjects Effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum Of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 Sphericity Assumed</td>
<td>931.681</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>186.336</td>
<td>18.252</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenhouse-Geiser</td>
<td>931.681</td>
<td>2.888</td>
<td>322.577</td>
<td>18.252</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huynh-Feldt</td>
<td>931.681</td>
<td>3.108</td>
<td>299.756</td>
<td>18.252</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-Bound</td>
<td>931.681</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>931.681</td>
<td>18.252</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 Group Sphericity Assumed</td>
<td>224.547</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44.909</td>
<td>4.399</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenhouse-Geiser</td>
<td>224.547</td>
<td>2.888</td>
<td>77.745</td>
<td>4.399</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huynh-Feldt</td>
<td>224.547</td>
<td>3.108</td>
<td>72.245</td>
<td>4.399</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-bound</td>
<td>224.547</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>224.547</td>
<td>4.399</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of interaction between groups and factors \([F=2.88, p=0.00<0.05]\) shows that there was a significant difference between the effects of factors and observed difference resulted from the treatment.

**Table: 10**

**Tests of Between Subjects Effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum Of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>90662.136</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>90662.136</td>
<td>3770.291</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>79.336</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>79.336</td>
<td>3.299</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1394.694</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>24.046</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, Table 10 specifies that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups; \(F=3.299; p<0.05\) shows that there is a statistically significant effect for extensive reading. This suggests that there was a change in the vocabulary knowledge and degree of participants` motivation after the treatment. The effect size using Eta squared was .054 which means that extensive reading by itself accounted for 5.4% of the overall variance.

![Profile Plots for Mean Comparisons of the Groups](image-url)
As Figure 4.2 displays, there was no significant difference between the means of the two groups in the pretest scores; however, the mean of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group in the posttest.

**Conclusion**

Positive answer to the first research question provides further evidence for the benefits of extensive reading in promoting high school students’ autonomous vocabulary learning. However, the small effect size for the impact of extensive reading underscores the various factors which were involved inside and outside the classroom during the treatment. Extensive reading, as implied by its name, is an individual activity highly under a person’s control; individual characteristics, time spent on the reading material, strategies used, and motivation of the reader are only a few factors to mention that can affect the process of reading. Nevertheless, presence of such factors should not prevent teachers from implementing it in their classrooms as it could help learners move towards autonomy. However, what this study attempted to show is that teachers’ control over extensive reading can make it a useful technique for improving learners’ vocabulary knowledge. The responsibility of teachers is to devise tasks and activities which could assist them in providing such control. The participants of the study seemed to be motivated for reading the story books and the classroom activities seemed to have a supportive role in boosting learners’ plea for learning new vocabulary. Also, the learners appeared to develop positive attitude toward their English language course. The finding of the present study affirms Murphy (2008) who stated that “a growing body of research indicates that when students are working on goals they themselves have set, they are more motivated and efficient, and achieve more than they do when they are working on goals that have been set by the teacher” (p.104). Additionally, the results of the present study show that learner autonomy plays an important role in developing and enhancing learners’ vocabulary knowledge. Putting the responsibility of learning on the students’ shoulders helps them “understand the idea that their own efforts are crucial for their improvement in language learning” (Grolnick, 1991, p.3).

The positive answer to the second research question is in line with Cotterall’s (1995) study who showed that learners’ motivation had vital influence on developing autonomous learning though his work was done in a course-based program for advanced learners. The present study, also, is in line with Elley (1991) who focused on the role of extensive reading and found it a useful activity for the improvement of reading proficiency and developing positive attitude toward language learning. The fact that the participants were free to do the reading task on their own pace and learn new words to act successfully in the in-class tasks and activities was the motor of their initiation.

By and large, in this study, controlled extensive reading provided the opportunity for the participants to read and learn new words. As Nation (2001, p. 155) argued, “the use of reading and other input sources may be the only practical options for out of class language development for
some learners”; especially when we are dealing with EFL contexts in which learners do not have adequate exposure to language.

Suggestions and Recommendations

This study aimed at examining whether extensive reading as an autonomous technique followed by teacher’s in-class control could enhance learners’ vocabulary knowledge. It was an attempt to empirically show that providing opportunities for extensive reading can fasten the trend of the vocabulary learning and can increase learners’ motivation in language learning. The fundamental role of extensive reading in vocabulary learning as a teaching strategy was more noticeable when students in the experimental group worked on the classroom tasks. Their teacher’s help gave them the incentive to follow their individual reading. The findings of the present study suggests teachers, practitioners, and curriculum developers to consider extensive reading as a useful task for EFL learners, design the required materials, and develop useful in-class tasks for providing partial control over students’ individual tasks. In order to foster autonomous learning, it is necessary to follow students’ learning process step by step.

References


Language Learning, 4, 375-411.


Appendix

Learning Style Survey (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2001)

Read each sentence carefully.
For each item, circle your immediate response:

• 0 = Never          • 1 = Rarely             • 2 = Sometimes       • 3 = Often       • 4 = Always

Part 1: How I Use My Physical Senses

I remember something better if I write it down.       0 1 2 3 4

I understand lectures better when they write on the board.0 1 2 3 4

Charts, diagrams and maps help me understand what someone says.  0 1 2 3 4

Visual- Total …

I remember things better if I discuss them with someone. 0 1 2 3 4

I prefer to learn by listening to a lecture rather than reading. 0 1 2 3 4

I like to listen to music when I study. 0 1 2 3 4

Auditory- Total …

I need frequent breaks when I work or study.0 1 2 3 4

If I have a choice between sitting and standing, I’d rather stand.0 1 2 3 4

I think well when I move around (for example, pacing or tapping my feet)0 1 2 3 4

Tactile- Total …

Part 2: How I Expose Myself to Learning Situations

I learn better when I work or study with others than by myself.       0 1 2 3 4

I meet new people easily by jumping into the conversation.             0 1 2 3 4

It is easy for me to approach strangers.0 1 2 3 4

Extroverted- Total …

I am energized by the inner world (what I’m thinking inside).        0 1 2 3 4

I prefer individual or one-on-one games and activities.                   0 1 2 3 4

When I am in a large group, I tend to keep silent and just listen.      0 1 2 3 4

Introverted- Total

I have a creative imagination.                                                           0 1 2 3 4

I add many original ideas during class discussions.                          0 1 2 3 4

I am open-minded to new suggestions from my peers.                                0 1 2 3 4

Random-Intuitive- Total …-

I read instruction manuals before using the device.                           0 1 2 3 4

I trust concrete facts instead of new, untested ideas.                         0 1 2 3 4

I prefer things presented in a step-by-step way.                              0 1 2 3 4

Part 3: How I Handle Possibilities

Introverted- Total

I have a creative imagination.                                                           0 1 2 3 4

I add many original ideas during class discussions.                          0 1 2 3 4

I am open-minded to new suggestions from my peers.                                0 1 2 3 4

Random-Intuitive- Total …-

I read instruction manuals before using the device.                           0 1 2 3 4

I trust concrete facts instead of new, untested ideas.                         0 1 2 3 4

I prefer things presented in a step-by-step way.                              0 1 2 3 4

Part 4: How I Approach Tasks

My notes and my school materials are carefully organized.            0 1 2 3 4

I write lists of everything I need to do each day.                       0 1 2 3 4

I enjoy a sense of structure in the classroom.                      0 1 2 3 4

Closure-Oriented- Total …

I gather lots of information, and then I make last-minute decisions.0 1 2 3 4

I prefer fun or open activities rather than structured activities.         0 1 2 3 4
My schedule is flexible for changes.

In this part please read the items and select the one which best describes your idea.
SD=strongly disagree
D= disagree
N= not decided
A= agree
SA= strongly agree

Part 5: Integrative Motivation
Items: I study English words…
Q1: to be more at ease with other people who speak English
Q2: to meet and converse with more and varied people
Q3: to better understand and appreciate English art and literature
Q4: to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups
Q5: to know the life of the English-speaking nations
Q6: to understand English pop music

Part 6: Instrumental Motivation
I study English because…
Q13: I'll need it for my future career.
Q14: it will make me a more knowledgeable person.
Q15: it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
Q16: other people will respect me more if I know English.
Q17: I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet.
Q18: I will learn more about what’s happening in the world.
STRATEGY OF COURTESY FOR COMMISSIVE SPEECH ACT AT THE PROPOSING CEREMONY IN LAMPUNG KOMERING

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Abstract: A politeness strategy is a skill used to make polite conversation so the hearer feels appreciated, both in formal and informal conversation. In this study, researchers will discuss a formal conversation; especially in the event of propose in Lampung Komering. This study is about politeness strategies used by speakers in commissive illocutionary speech acts. The primary data in this study is the video of the proposing ceremony in Lampung Komering, and the secondary data is the archive for proposing in Lampung Komering. This study describes what kind of politeness strategies used by speakers. The method used in this study is qualitative method with the descriptive concept. This study uses qualitative methods so that the data obtained is not stated in the form of numbers or statistics, but in the form of qualitative expressed in words. Descriptive concept is not considering the truth or falsity of the data obtained. The result of the study shows two politeness strategies using direct strategy and indirect strategy, while other data use negative politeness strategy and solidarity strategy.

Key term: politeness strategy, commissive illocutionary

Introduction

Indonesia is a country with its rich culture. Culture has a close connection with language. Language and culture support each other, cannot be apart. One of the languages owned by Indonesia is Lampung language. Lampung language is the language existing in Lampung province and still used by Lampung ethnic. Lampung language only has a range of formal and informal just like other languages. The formal Variety is officially used in formal occasions such as traditional ceremony. One of the traditional ceremonies is the proposing ceremony. As a ceremony, it must use the language as a means of delivering something. The speeches can be analyzed from the side of politeness strategy.

The previous study that has been done about Lampung dialects as can be seen in the book written by Sanusi (1999: 5), and the book by Sabarudin (2012: 126). The previous experts who conduct the study of Lampung language are Walker, Vander Tuuk, and Van Royen. They stated that Lampung language consists of two dialects, Api dialect (A) and Nyow dialect (O). The difference found in both dialects is the phoneme used in each word. Dialect A is more likely to use the phoneme /a/ and the phoneme /o/ or diphthong /ou/ used by the people of dialect O.
The description above shows that there are only two Lampung dialects, so that one group of languages in Lampung is not recognized as Lampung dialect. This group is Lampung Komering. However the researchers from The Office of Lampung Language re-examined Lampung dialects. Study was conducted in the form of mapping Lampung dialects. Lampung dialects obtained by mapping language that are later declared to have four dialects Abung, Pesisir, Pubian, and Komering. The latest mapping of Lampung dialects makes Komering dialect admitted into Lampung dialect.

Review of Literature

Speech Act

Speech act is a branch of linguistics that studies language from the aspect of actual usage. Speech act theory (speech act) began in Austin lecture at Harvard University in 1955. Then those lectures were collected and published in 1962 in the form of a book entitled *How To Do Things with Words* (Schriffin, 1994: 64 and Nadar, 2009: 11).

In his book *How To Do Things with Words*, Austin distinguishes three types of action: (1) Locutionary speech act (an act of saying something). (2) Illocutionary speech act (an act of doing something saying something). (3) Perlocutionary speech act. The three division of the language act by Austin is also supported by his student John R. Searle. In his book *Speech Act: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language* (1969: 24) says that there are three types of actions in a talk, they are speech act, proportional act and illocutionary act. Rahardi (2005: 35) explains that there are three types of speech act, those are locutionary speech act (an act of saying something, illocutionary speech acts (act containing meaning) and perlocutionary (expected impact of the speech).

Locution act

Locution act is a speech act with words, phrases, and sentences, according to the meaning contained by words, phrases, and sentences themselves. The locutionary speech act can be expressed by the phrase (an act of saying something). This speech act is only the form of speech to express something. This locution act does not concern about the speech being delivered by the speakers (Rahardi, 2009: 17, 2005: 35 and Nadar, 2009:14). In the same opinion with Rahardi, Yule (2006: 83) states that an illocutionary act is a basic speech act producing a meaningful linguistic expression.

Illocutionary act

Illocutionary act is an act to do something with the specific intention and function in the real speaking activity. An illocutionary act can be expressed by expression (*an act of doing something saying something*) (Rahardi, 2009 : 17 and 2005 : 35).

Slightly different from the statement by Rahardi, Nadar (2009 : 14) stating that illocutionary act is what the speaker wants to achieve at the time of saying something and can be said as a stating
expression, promising, apologizing, threatening, forecasting, ordering, asking, and etc. Illocutionary act can be regarded as the most important act in the study of speech act comprehension.

Illocutionary speech act is divided into five sections according to the division of illocutionary acts as quoted by Schiffrin Searle (2007 : 75) and Leech (164-165), those are assertive, directive, commissive, expressive and declarative.

a. Assertive
Assertive is a speech act in which the speaker is attached to the truth of the proposition expressed, for example, stating, expressing opinions, reporting. These illocutions tend to be neutral from the side of courtesy.

b. Directive
Illocutionary directive is aimed at producing an effect in the form of the action taken by the hearer, such as ordering, asking, requesting, recommending, and giving advice.

c. Commissive
Commissive is illocutionary act in which the speaker slightly gets into a future action, such as promising, offering, and vowing. This Illocutionary type tends to be fun and less competitive, because it does not refer to the speaker interests but the interests of the hearer.

d. Expressive
Expressive illocution serves to reveal the psychology ( mental ) of the speaker from the implied condition.

e. Declarative
Declarative illocution is used to ensure compatibility between the content of proposition and reality, such as baptizing, firing, giving the name, sentencing, and lifting.

Yule (2006 : 95 ) summarizes the five illocutionary acts along with their characteristics in a table. It can be seen in Table 2.1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Speech Act</th>
<th>Direction of Adjustment</th>
<th>P = Speaker X = Situation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Declarative</td>
<td>We change the world</td>
<td>P causes X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representative / Assertive</td>
<td>We are adjusted to the world</td>
<td>P believes X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>We are adjusted the world</td>
<td>P feels X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>World is adjusted to the word</td>
<td>P wants X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commissive</td>
<td>World is adjusted to the word</td>
<td>P means X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 Five Common functions of speech acts (following Searle, 1979)
Perlocution Act

Perlocution act is a speech act that effects or impacts inflicted by the speaker to the hearer, so that the hearer performs an action based on the content of speech. Perlocutionary speech act can be seen from some of the verbs used. Some verbs used are persuade, deceive, push, annoy, frighten, delight, relief, embarrass, attract attention, and so on. Perlocutionary speech act can produce an effect or power of speech to the hearer and make a sense of worry, fear, anxiety, sadness, delight, despair, disappointment, and so on.

Politeness Strategy

Politeness strategy is a way to make the speech better. Polite speech would certainly make the hearer feel valued and respected. To make more polite speech, here are some strategies that can be used.

Positive Politeness Strategy

Positive politeness strategy directs speakers to appeal the general purpose and even friendship. The speech delivered tries to avoid a rejection from the hearer by preceding it with a preamble. Brown and Levinson (as cited by Nadar, 2009: 420) impose limitation on positive politeness as follows:

Positive politeness is essentially directed towards positive face of the hearer, which is considered a positive image owned by the hearer. A positive politeness approaches incised impression on partner face that on certain things, speaker also has the same desire with the partner whom he is talking to.

In relating to negative politeness, Brown and Levinson offer the following strategies:
1. Giving special attention to the hearer.
2. Exaggerating an interest, approval, and sympathy for the hearer.
3. Increasing the sense of interest to the hearer.
4. Using markers that indicate the identity or similarity of the group.
5. Finding and using the agreement with the hearer.
6. Avoiding conflict.
7. Raising perception of a number of similarities.
8. Making jokes.
9. Making the perception that the speaker understands what the hearer wishes.
10. Making offers and promises.
11. Demonstrating a sense of optimism.
12. Attempting to engage in a together activity.
14. Offering a reciprocal action.
15. Giving a sympathy.
( Nadar, 2009: 43-47 )
Negative Politeness Strategy

Negative politeness strategy is used in the form of the questions that contain an auxiliary verb regarding to feelings. The use of this strategy also results the expressions of apolog. Negative politeness strategy can sometimes also be seen from an extended speech. Negative politeness is also specifically expressed in the questions as the question that seems to ask for permission.

Like positive politeness, Brown and Levinson also provide some strategies on negative politeness.
1. Expressing indirectly by convention.
2. Using questions with specific particle form.
3. Do not be too optimistic.
4. Reducing the threat to the hearer face.
5. Giving respect.
6. Using an apology.
7. Do not mention the interests of the speaker and hearer.
8. Stating the face threatening act as a public social provision.
10. Stating clearly if the speaker has kindness to the hearer or not.

Off Record

To express a desire, a person does not always express his desire verbally. The wishes can be expressed with “ cues “ called indirect action or speech. The success of these cues must also respect the customs that occur in the community.

Bald On Record

Bald on record strategy is the opposite of Off Record strategy. In this strategy, the speaker express his intention directly. These directed speech forms are certainly a direct speech without further ado.

The forms of Bald on Record may be followed by statements such as silahkan and maukah Anda serving to smoothen the speech. This strategy is often used in imperative speech, but not all imperative speeches use this strategy. This is because the direct command of speech typically occurs among friends. However in emergency situations, this strategy can be used without the need to see who the partner is.In a society, this strategy can be associated with events when speaker has an authority over the hearer. In another sense, this strategy is related to social distance scale.

Solidarity Strategy

This strategy may be a strategy that applies the principles in the overall group or may be just as a depressing choice used by a speaker as an individual in a particular incident. Such strategy
would involve the information about a person linguistically, the use of nickname, dialect possessed even a rough terms (which are not meaning rude to the speaker and the hearer). This strategy is often characterized by the inclusive terms as kita and marilah kita.

**Respect Strategy**

Respect strategy can be a specific strategy of a group as a whole or just as an option that is used in a particular incident. It is not regarding to someone, as if there is not anything combined and may include expressions that do not refer to the hearer or reader directly. Strategies described can be seen in Yule (2006: 109-115).

In line with the opinions expressed by Yule, Rahardi (2005: 118-125) describes imperative politeness speeches. However the politeness type described by Rahardi can also be used on illocutionary acts. Types of politeness that can be used are a short length of speech, order of speech, intonation of speech, and cues of kinesics, and the use of marker expression of politeness. All four will be explained further.

1. **Short Length of Speech**

In Indonesian culture, long or short speeches affect a politeness. Purpose delivered directly is considered rude.

2. **Order of Speech**

For expressing the purpose of his speech considered more polite, someone will sometimes change the order of his speech into increasingly assertive, hard and even rough.

3. **Speech Intonation and Kinesis Cues**

Sound waves in the speech may be caused by the speech that is temporary extended, suspended or dismissed too long. All depends on the background context. Beside intonation, politeness can also be seen from kinesics cues. Kinesics cues can be gestures, such as hand gestures, posture, facial expressions, and so on.

4. **Use of Expression of Signing Politeness**

In linguistic, politeness speeches appear largely determined by whether or not the expressions of politeness signs. Some of the signs of politeness speech are the form of permohonan (tolong/mohon), persilakan (silakan), harapan (harap), kesediaan (sudi).

**Method of the study**

This study uses qualitative method so that the data obtained are not stated in the form of numbers or statistics, but in the form of qualitative expressed in words. Qualitative study is to describe the meaning of data or phenomena that can be captured by researchers with the demonstrated evidence. Sudaryanto (1992:62) describes the concept of the method into three types, descriptive, comparative, and structural. In this study, the writers use a descriptive concept. The
writers use descriptive concept because the study conducted does not consider the truth or falsity of speeches used by speakers.

Sudaryanto (1993: 133-135) states that data collection techniques are divided into basic and advanced techniques. There is only one basic technique (called as a method) referring to the hearing method, but there are some other advanced techniques. Advanced techniques of the hearing methods refer to techniques such as free-involved technique and a recording technique. Furthermore, Mahsun (2012:93) writes that in the techniques of free-involved-technique, researchers only role as observers. In this technique, researchers were unable to contribute to bring up the data. Researchers just listen the dialogues occur. The recording technique can be performed when the hearing technique of free-involved speech done.

In this study the hearing technique of free-involved speech is used to listen to speech in a proposing video that is also used as data source. The recording technique is done by recording the record transcript and reflective notes that have been prepared. Recording can be done immediately when the first and the second technique are being done or can be done afterwards (Sudaryanto, 1993: 135).

**Discussion**

Just as has been explained before that the commissive speech act is an illocutionary act that is bound to act in the future. Then politeness strategy is a way of the speaker to make his speech polite and appreciated. In this regard, the following is a discussion of politeness strategies of illocutionary speech act at a proposing ceremony in Lampung Komering.

**Data 1**

*Oleh karena sina, dapok tilajuko api sai haga pirotok baliau pohngun sina pun dapok bucerita munih sanga patoh rua di kabiyan sa. Kintu wat nihan sai haga ticawako waktu sikan persilahkan pun!*

In Data 1 courtesy strategy used by speaker is a direct strategy. Purpose to be disclosed is directly delivered by the speaker. Data 1 shows that the speaker invite the partner to deliver back what purpose of his coming. A word *persilahkan* in data 1 explains that the word is a commissive illocutionary pointer. In addition, the word *persilahkan* in data 1 shows the expression of politeness marker used by the speaker. Another politeness marker used by the speaker is the speaker uses hand gestures, that it shows that the speaker invites the partner. Signs appearing can give a description that the speech used by the speaker uses politeness strategy so that the intention that the speaker conveys make the partner feel valued and respected.

**Data 2**

*Sina da pun, tunggu pai sanggobok*

Phrase *tunggulah sebentar* in data 2 is a commissive illocutionary sign. It shows that the speaker will return to deliver the results obtained. Data 2 is equal to data 1 in using a direct strategy (
bald on record). This can be seen in his very short speech. The very short speech is surely the characteristic of the speech delivered directly. The phrase *tunggulah sebentar* is a speaker request on the partner to wait a moment. Asking expression is one of the politeness signs as expressed by Rahardi. Another politeness sign that can be seen is the intonation. Intonation used by the speaker is a modest intonation. By using the modest intonation, the speaker makes his speech intention more polite.

**Data 3**


The strategy used in data 3 is a solidarity strategy. This can be seen from the word *kita* used. The word *kita* is a marker of politeness that the speaker and the hearer feel more familiar. With a sense of solidarity possessed, it will not certainly make impolite speech. Existing solidarity makes hearer feel more appreciated. In the data, it appears that the speaker uses to positive face to express his intention in order to be more polite.

**Data 4**

*Rogoh cakak kok muni, konalan radu saka, pocak mak tambon lagi, haga nyampai paraja, tiyan rua bujanji ga tunggal ibu bapak, kok radu tukor ali, disaksiko panganca, makda wat mundur lagi, amon cak tika-tika;*

Data 4 uses off record strategy with an extended speech. As has been stated previously that the longer the speech is the more the indirect speech. Indirect strategy used by the speaker of data 4 is closely related to Indonesian culture that tends to lengthen the speech to deliver a speech intent. The extended speech has a more politeness value essence. Therefore the purpose of the speaker in data 4 expecting his propose accepted is conveyed indirectly. The expression is conveyed by saying (*tiyan rua bujanji*) that his child had promised to marry.

**Data 5**

*Ngalangkah lambat-lambat, ya nyambat dalih hurmat “Kiay haga tidipa? Mak ya salah rang raya, amon kira mak bantah, cuba pai laju singgah”*

Politeness strategy used in the data 5 is a negative politeness strategy. This negative politeness strategy can be seen from the question (*Kiay haga tidipa?*). The speaker asks where the partner is going to go. The question form is the characteristics to look at the courtesy used by the speaker. The speaker’s intention is actually to invite the partner to stop at his house. In order to be more polite speech, the speaker uses the extended speech. Besides, another politeness sign that can be seen in data 5 is *cuba pai* meaning *sudilah kiranya*. The word *sudilah* is also a politeness marker commonly used in order to appear more polite speech.

**Conclusion**

Based on the result of the study on politeness strategy of commissive speech act in the proposing ceremony of Lampung Komering found two politeness strategies using direct strategy, a data using
an indirect strategy, a data using negative politeness strategy and a data using solidarity strategy. Data 1 uses a direct strategy. Direct strategy contained in data 1 is assisted with politeness sign *persilalan* and kinesics politeness sign, hand gesture. Data 2 uses the direct strategy. In data 2, directly politeness strategy used is assisted with short length and intonation of the sound. Data 3 uses indirect strategy with the extended speech. Data 4 uses the solidarity strategy with the politeness sign *kita*. Data 5 uses negative politeness strategy in the form of questions and words of politeness signs.

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THE EFFECT OF TASK REPETITION ON IMPROVING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ ACCURACY AND COMPLEXITY IN WRITING PROFICIENCY

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Abstract: Considering that accuracy and complexity are assumed to be intrinsic qualities of performance in all kinds of tasks, the present study aimed at investigating the effects of task repetition as one type of planning on accuracy and complexity in the written production of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). About 40 female Iranian intermediate level EFL learners were randomly selected and divided into two groups (control and experimental). The experimental group received treatment for four sessions where the researchers explicitly focused their attention on the accuracy and complexity loads of their writings by repeating the writing task. The researchers made the participants in the experimental group conscious of where they could use accurate and complex sentences to increase the loads of accuracy and complexity in their writings. However, the control group did not have their writings repeated or checked for cases of accuracy and complexity. The results of immediate post-test showed that task repetition affected positively the accuracy and complexity of the participants’ writings in the experimental group. Also, task repetition left its long-term effect one month after the treatment ended. The pedagogical implication is that task repetition is an effective way to improve the learner’s writing skills in terms of accuracy and complexity.

Key terms: Accuracy; Complexity, Task repetition, Long-term effect, Writing skills

Introduction

Ability to write effectively is a main drive to learn a foreign language for many language learners. Skehan (1996) suggests that this general goal is concerned with improving three main areas or dimensions of performance: accuracy, complexity, and fluency. Skehan (1996, p. 46) defines accuracy as concerned with “a learner’s capacity to handle whatever level of interlanguage complexity she has currently attained”. Therefore, if learners attempt to produce language more accurately, they place their focal attention on form rather than content. According to McLaughlin and Heredia (1996), learners need to control their writings for linguistic elements that they have already acquired. Therefore, controlled processing is preferred over automatic processing. They also point out that since automatic processes develop out of controlled processes, accuracy is considered to be essential for the way language develops and becomes automatic.
Review of Literature

However, according to Skehan (1996, p. 46), complexity is considered to be “the stage and elaboration of the underlying interlanguage system”. But fluency is concerned with “the learner’s capacity to mobilize an interlanguage system to communicate meaning in real time” (Skehan, ibid). According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), when learners are producing more fluent language they are prioritizing meaning over form. To improve accuracy, fluency, and complexity, task repetition is viewed to be an effective strategy. According to Ellis (2005, 2008), task repetition is crucially a type of planning. Bygate and Samuda (2005, p. 43) suggest that task repetition is the “repetition of the same or slightly altered task- whether the whole tasks, or parts of a task”.

Bygate (2001) puts forward the theoretical support for the hypothesis that task repetition can help language performance. He (2001, p. 29) believes that this ensues from the fact that “part of the job of conceptualization, formulation, and articulation done at the first time is stored in the learners’ memory and could be used for second time”. Also, another supporting argument comes from Ellis (2008) where he believes that task repetition provides opportunity for the learner to have much more processing time to attend to both form and content of the message. Consequently, as Ellis (2003) suggests, this will increase the quantity of the output, the quality of fluency, and complexity. Here, attention and the role that task repetition can have on language acquisition is highlighted. Attention has been the central focus of research in cognitive psychology (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan, 2003). For example, Skehan (2003) considers attention as a system which is limited in capacity and once learners fasten their attention on one aspect of the language production, some other aspects are possibly to suffer. This is the basis for his idea that a learner’s language production should be divided into fluency, accuracy, and complexity and that each of these should be treated separately. Elsewhere, Skehan (1998) argued that allocation of focal attention to each of these language elements would result in various consequences for learning. For instance, fastening the focal attention on accuracy allows learners to produce slower and less complex speech, but enables them to speak with more confidence. However, complete obsession with complexity encourages learners to produce novel structures of language features, of course, with the risk of making mistakes. Finally, dedicating focal attention on fluency leaves less attention to accuracy and complexity (see also, Skehan & Foster, 1997). This idea finds support in Shiffrin and Schneider’s (1977) Controlled and Automatic processing where they consider that the amount of attention devoted to a task and the degree of practice with the material in the task are the two important elements involved in decreasing the amount of attempt in performing a cognitive task. They introduced a model in order to account for these results in which different tasks required various degrees of processing. Using controlled and automatic as two modes of processing, they stated that automatic processing occurs where a task needs little attention and processing energy. However, controlled processing occurs as a result of a task involving intense focus of attention and a large number of mental operations to process.

Anderson’s (1983) Adaptive Control of Thought (generally called, ACT*, pronounced “act-star”) is another refined model that has been put forward in a detailed account of human cognition. According to Bygate and Samuda (2005, p. 45), task repetition has two phases:
A first enactment of a task, in which learners are likely to organize the cognitive content, scope out the likely useful lexi-co-grammar, and process it in real time, generating an experientially derived multi-level schema to support subsequent linguistic work; followed by a second enactment, during which the speaker can build on the previous one.

There is plethora of research (Ellis, 1987; Crookes, 1989; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Bygate, 1996, 1999; Gass et.al, 1999; Bygate, 2001; Lynch & MacLean, 2000, 2001) which supports the idea that task repetition influences positively the accuracy, fluency, and complexity of the language used by the learner. For example, Skehan and Foster (1997) found that planning can raise the fluency, complexity, and accuracy with which tasks are performed. They also showed that detailed planning increased complexity and undetailed planning affected accuracy positively. Bygate (1999) suggests that task repetition could help develop the process of integration. A study by Gass et.al (1999) revealed that task repetition affected positively the linguistic output of L2 Learners of Spanish. They also indicated that task repetition impacts on the inclusive proficiency, incomplete accuracy, and lexical complexity. Lynch and MacLean (2000, 2001) reached the conclusion that task repetition not only affected positively the accuracy but also had positive effects on fluency in language production.

Yuan and Ellis’s (2003) comparison of the effects of pre-task and on-line planning on learners’ accuracy, complexity, and fluency in performing a narrative task revealed that careful on-line planners who were allowed to take more time for task competition produced both more accurate and complex languages. According to Willis (2004), the pre-task phase provides some options for learners. For example, some can be performed with the class or some others can be played on a video or cassette player. This will help students feel more secure if teachers or others show them how to do the task.

In an Iranian context, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2010) indicated that the opportunity to engage simultaneously in careful online planning and task repetition enhanced accuracy significantly in oral production. Wang (2009), and Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian, and Wang (2012) showed that developing greater accuracy entails rehearsal through strategic planning and repetition and monitoring through on-line planning and using post-tasks. To the knowledge of the researchers no study has ever reported the effects of task repetition on the accuracy and complexity of Iranian EFL learners in their written production. Therefore, the present study was motivated to examine whether task repetition as an effective strategy (also supported in the literature) improves the learners’ accuracy and complexity in a private language institute in Tabriz, Iran, and if so, whether this technique leaves its effects in the long term (one month after the end of the treatment) on the learners’ accuracy and complexity.

The Study

Research design and procedures
The study included two groups: the participants were randomly selected and divided into two groups (experimental and control) based on their performances on a proficiency test. Then, they were given a pre-test which involved the participants to write on a certain topic. Next to insure the reliability of the scores of the learners, the researchers invited a colleague (who was an EFL teacher) to score the papers both during the pre-test and post-test phases.
The reliability estimates were high and ranged from 76% to 99%. When the researchers finished checking the papers for accuracy and complexity, they handed back the papers of the participants in the experimental group to check their cases of inaccurate and incomplexe sentences. Then, they explicitly focused the attention of the participants in the experimental group on accuracy and complexity loads of their writings by repeating the writing task. It took five sessions for the researchers to repeat the task and practice this by all the participants one by one. The rationale for the use of task repetition technique, as Gass et al (1999), Bygate (2001), and Lynch and MacLean (2000, 2001) indicated, is that, it intensifies learners’ fluency and complexity and has positive effects on the learners’ incomplete accuracy. By the same token, Levi (1988, pp. 76-77) argues that we know things through working with them, through experiences “marked by love and by hatred, by silent, furious battles, enthusiasm and weariness, victory and defeat, resulting in more and more reined knowledge”. However, the participants in the control group were not given back the writing assignments and they just followed the regular patterns of their classroom activities. When the researchers finished repeating the task for the participants in the experimental group, they gave an immediate post-test to both groups (experimental and control) to see whether the task repetition improved the writings of the participants in the experimental group in terms of accuracy and complexity. One month later, a delayed post-test was given to both of the groups (experimental and control) to examine whether the repetition of the writing task left its effect in the long term.

Participants of the study

First, about 40 participants ranging in age from 16 to 26 comprised the main participants of the study. It is necessary to note that the participants were of the intermediate level of proficiency. Due to the unavailability of male participants, only female participants were included in the study, and the researchers investigated whether task repetition improves the Iranian female EFL learners’ accuracy and complexity in their writing skill.

Research instruments

The following books were employed in the present paper:

Nelson’s Proficiency Test and Steps to Understanding (Hill, 1980).

In order to make sure that the participants were of the same proficiency level, they were given a proficiency test. This test consisted of three sections: A) a grammar test which had fifteen items; B) a vocabulary test which had fifteen items, and finally C) a 15-item reading comprehension test consisting of three passages with accompanying items. In fact, it was a test which had grammar and vocabulary sections from the Nelson’s Test (1976) and reading comprehension test from Steps to Understanding.

Pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test

After the researchers were assured that the participants were at the same proficiency level, they were first given a pre-test and two weeks later an immediate post-test. To examine whether the task repetition had any effects on the participants’ writing in the long term the researchers
administered a delayed post-test to them. Both pre-test and the post-tests were about the same topic, namely “describe a person which is important in your personal life”. Maximum effort was made to choose a topic with which the participants had enough familiarity and that appealed to their interest. Bygate (1991) argued that when the learner is familiar with a task, planning the message will be an easy job. Also to paraphrase Bygate (2001) and Ellis (2003), if learners know what they talk or write about, they have much more processing time for expressing their opinions.

Data analysis

The Independent-Samples t-test was employed as an appropriate statistical formula to reveal any differences between the two groups (experimental and control). Basing their framework on Errasti (2003), Larsen-freeman (2006), and Storch and Wigglesworth (2009), the researchers measured the accuracy of writing of the participants by dividing the total number of error-free T-units by the total number of T-units. Spelling errors were tolerated as far as the meanings of words were preserved. Once counted, they were not taken into account if they were repeated on later occurrences. Errors of capitalization, prepositions, punctuation and errors of lexical choices were not counted unless they hindered comprehension. Likewise, complexity was measured by calculating the percentage of dependent clauses to total number of clauses. To do this, the researchers first counted the total number of dependent and independent clauses and then divided the total number of dependent clauses by the total number of clauses (both dependent and independent) for each text.

Results and Discussion

The results of the Independent Samples T-Test in the pre-test did not show any significant differences in the accuracy and complexity loads of the participants’ writings since the probability value marked as Sig was more than 0.05, as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Independent samples test to compare the accuracy and complexity of experimental and control groups in the pre-test (Italic=statistically significant difference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>complexity</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8417</td>
<td>0.4226</td>
<td>0.0793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8365</td>
<td>0.4420</td>
<td>0.0745</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: 1= Experimental Group  2= Control Group

In fact, all this, once again, shows that the participants in the two groups (experimental and control) were homogeneous in terms of their English proficiency to write accurate and complex sentences. Once we were made sure that the two groups were approximately equal (see Table 4.1) more specifically in terms of the use of accurate and complex sentences, we were safe to address the following research questions.
Research questions:

RQ1. Does task repetition have any effect on the intermediate level Iranian EFL learners’ accuracy in writing in the immediate post-test?

As explained above, no significant differences were observed between the control and experimental groups in terms of producing accurate and complex sentences in their writings. However, the participants in the two groups demonstrated different performances regarding accuracy and complexity loads of their writings in the immediate post-test. As shown in Table 4.2., the experimental group had a higher mean value and performed better than the control group (Sig. was less than 0.05). Thus, it is concluded that task repetition has significant effects on the intermediate level Iranian EFL learners’ accuracy in their written production.

Table 4.2 Independent samples test to compare the accuracy and complexity of experimental and control groups in the immediate post-test (Italic=statistically significant difference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>complexity</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.93430</td>
<td>0.6561</td>
<td>0.04670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8649</td>
<td>0.4334</td>
<td>0.0766</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: 1= Experimental  Group 2= Control Group

RQ2. Does task repetition have any effect on the intermediate level Iranian EFL learners’ complexity in writing in the immediate post-test?

Like the accuracy result, the experimental group had a higher mean value and outperformed the control group regarding the complexity in the immediate post-test for the reason that the probability value marked as Sig was less than 0.05 (see Table 4.2). Therefore, we conclude that task repetition has significant effect on the intermediate level Iranian EFL learners’ complexity in their written production.

The results support Gass et al’s (1999), Bygate (1996, 2001), Skehan and Foster, (1997), Lynch and MacLean (2000, 2001), and Bygate and Samuda’s studies (2005) who found that task repetition affected significantly fluency and complexity of the learners’ performances. Also, task repetition has effect on the inclusive proficiency, incomplete accuracy, and lexical complexity. It is also in line with the argument that task repetition had positive impacts on accuracy.

It lent support to Ahmadian and Tavakoli’s (2010) study who revealed that the opportunity to engage simultaneously in careful online planning and task repetition enhanced accuracy and complexity significantly in oral production.

The present study also corroborated Wang (2009), Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian, and Wang (2012) that developing greater accuracy entails rehearsal through strategic planning and repetition, and monitoring through on-line planning and using post-tasks.
RQ3. What is the effect of task repetition on the Iranian EFL intermediate level learners’ accuracy and complexity (taken together) in writing?

Research question number three was formulated to see whether the two groups differed in the use of both complex and accurate sentences when the accuracy and complexity loads of their writings are put together. The result revealed that the experimental group had a higher mean value and outperformed the control group (Sig. was less than 0.05) when their writings were considered in terms of both accuracy and complexity loads (see Table 4.3). Therefore, it can be concluded that task repetition has significant effects on intermediate level Iranian EFL learners’ accuracy and complexity in writing.

Table 4.3 Independent samples test to compare both the accuracy and complexity of experimental and control groups in the immediate post-test (*Italic* = statistically significant difference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.5904</td>
<td>0.1066</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.2983</td>
<td>0.0886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: 1= Experimental Group    2= Control Group

This finding corroborated those of Ellis (1987), Crookes (1989), and Skehan and Foster (1997) who revealed that planning (one type of which is task repetition) leads to greater complexity and accuracy. Also, the results support Ahmadian and Tavakoli’s (2010) study which showed that the opportunity to engage simultaneously in careful online planning and task repetition improve both accuracy and complexity significantly in oral production.

**Reports on the Delayed post-test**

We also intended to examine whether task repetition affected the participants’ writings one month after the treatment sessions ended. As shown in Table 4.4, with reference to the accuracy, on the one hand, the experimental group had a higher mean value and performed better than the control group. On the other hand, task repetition did leave its positive effect despite the passage of time on the writings of the participants in the experimental group since the mean values of the experimental group remained approximately the same (compare Tables 4.2 and 4.4)

Table 4.4 Independent samples test to compare the accuracy and complexity of experimental and control groups in the delayed post-test (*Italic* = statistically significant difference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>complexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.9282</td>
<td>0.0284</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.6442</td>
<td>0.0284</td>
<td>0.1553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The same result was obtained with regard to the complexity loads of the participants in the experimental and control groups. As shown in Table 4.4, the experimental group outperformed the control group. A closer look at Table 4.4 shows that the experimental group had a higher mean value and performed better than the control group (Sig. is less than 0.05). Also since the mean values of the experimental group remained approximately the same in the immediate and delayed post-test we conclude, here, that the task repetition had its effects on the participants’ use of complex sentences in their writings one month after the treatment sessions ended (compare Tables 4.2 and 4.4). This could be explained by referring to Shiffrin and Schneider’s (1977) two types of controlled and automatic processing. They believe that once a skill is practiced and automatized, it is established in long-term memory and becomes an internalized part of one’s learning. As a result, it will be easy for the learner to retrieve information from the memory for later use. Here, in this study, since we repeated the task, it helped the participants automatize and establish the information and also helped them in the retention of the material.

Suggestions for Future Research

As mentioned previously, the purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of task repetition on the Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ writings in terms of accuracy and complexity. The results of both immediate and delayed post-tests revealed that task repetition as one kind of planning improved the learners’ writings. However, it opened up new research avenues for further research projects. The present research chose only female English language learners as the participants of the study. First, the researchers suggest that a future study may choose both male and female learners to see whether gender influences the performances of the participants after they receive task repetition treatment. It is necessary to note that the participants of the present study were of the intermediate level of proficiency. Second, a future study is needed to examine the effects of task repetition on the learners across different levels of proficiency and, which as a result, should reveal how learners at different levels of proficiency respond to task repetition treatment. Finally, to reach more generalizable results, it is recommended the future research may add fluency to accuracy and complexity which were investigated in the current study to give us a better picture of how task repetition could affect them altogether.

Conclusion

Doughty (2003) argues that a task allows learners to integrate form and meaning, raises their metalinguistic awareness, and increases their noticing capacity which, as a result, enhances successful intake processing and ultimately leads to language development. One way by means of which this can be carried out is the repetition of the task. The importance of task repetition which is an effective strategy to help the learner develop his or her interlanguage has been brought to attention of the teachers and language learning and teaching program developers in recent years.

The current study was another attempt to investigate the effects of task repetition on accuracy, and complexity of EFL learners’ written production in an EFL context in Iran. The results
Corroborated the importance of task repetition technique in improving the learners’ written performances where it helped the learners not only produce accurate sentences but also complex ones. The implication is that task repetition as one type of task planning (Ellis, 2005, 2008) can be one of the effective techniques to improve the students’ writing. Therefore, it is suggested that language teachers simply design task conditions in a way to include task repetition technique in order to allow the learners to automatize and establish the language being learned. However, according to Wang (2009), Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian, and Wang (2012) developing greater accuracy and complexity entails rehearsal through strategic planning and repetition, and monitoring through on-line planning and using post-tasks.

We conclude the current study by suggesting that the task repetition of the type employed in this study might be a useful pedagogic procedure and that the same technique could help different learners develop different areas of their interlanguage.

References


USE OF AN E-BOOK: ENHANCING READING PERFORMANCE WITH EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to investigate the grammatical changes in reading performance over time. In this e-book-based study, 13 high school students were given twelve weeks of instruction and provided with online e-book reading materials. To assess students’ grammatical changes in reading performance over time, an online book report was employed, and post-reading activities were conducted in class which included group discussion, short report-writing, or re-telling. The result showed that grammatical changes in reading performance have been identified in that students were able to write in more detail about their thoughts and to fully express the summary, plot and the story as well as to describe the books’ characters, places and events successfully. This study proves that an e-book reading or teaching English with an e-book can be of benefit to EFL learners.

Key Words: e-book, reading comprehension, curriculum, EFL context, reading course

Introduction

We are living in the world of ‘ubiquitous’, which makes it possible to share information through the medium of a network. A survey in 2008 by the National Internet Development Agency (NIDA, 2008) reports that presently, all aspects of Korean society are dictated by the Internet, with 70% (31 million) of the nation’s total population using the Internet and 12 million households connected via broadband Internet. With this development of information technology and the wide spread of the Internet, the volume of digital information has been increasing. According to recent research, more than 93% of new information produced is being created in digital format (Johnson & Christie, 2009). Due to this increasing volume of digital contents, there is a growing interest in an electronic book. Gates, et al (1996) predicted in their book, ‘The Road Ahead’ that by the end of the decade, a significant percentage of documents, even in offices, would not be fully printable on paper. The use of an e-book can be regarded as more efficient than paper-based books from the various perspectives such as storage, transfer, delivery, and accessibility (Gibbons, 2001; Grudzien & Casey, 2008; Rossman, 2005).

Therefore, it can be no longer such a big surprise to see people reading e-books through PDA (personal digital assistant) or via mobile phones even in the running subway. And with diverse functions of multimedia and hypertext links, an e-book enables readers to view video clips, listen
to sound and narrations, or jump to the Web simply by selecting a link (Diez, et al, 2009; Gielen, 2011; Hodges et al, 2010; Landoni & Gillian, 2007).

Taking this into account, this paper is designed to investigate Korean EFL high school students’ responses, who are learning English as a foreign language. Based on the previous research on the reading effect using the Internet stories (Beame, 2005; Damton, 2007; Hawkins, 2000), and in an attempt to study how EFL learners read on the Web, this study explores an effect of an e-book reading in a Web-based project. The primary purpose of this study is to ascertain whether there are any grammatical changes in reading performance over time.

**The Role of E-Book in Education**

Recently, as the tremendous growth on the ICT (information communication technology) fields has held up with the Internet, the new terminology in reading comes into being; that is ‘e-book’ or ‘eBook’ (electronic book), beyond the whole concept of traditional printed books so that it adds a few remarkable concepts as well as the existing definitions of traditional counterpart.

**E-Book**

Cambridge advanced learner’s dictionary 3rd edition (2008) defines an e-book as, “a book that is published in electronic form, for example, on the Internet or on a disk, and not printed on paper, and an e-book reader or player is a small electronic device with a screen which allows people to read an electronic book, perform searches, add notes.” In other words, an e-book is a digital format text file which displays on an e-book reader, device or computer.

The term, ‘e-book’, also may include such concepts as a text in digital form; a book converted into digital form; digital reading material; a book in a computer file format; or an electronic file of words and images to be displayed on a computer screen (Binder, 2008; Sangani, 2009). Besides, an e-book is immediately read on a computer over a network, or viewed on a desktop, notebook and dedicated portable devices after downloading, read on all types of computers, or formatted for display on an e-book reader (Rao, 2001). In summary, the definition of an e-book is simply to be considered as follows:

1) it is published and downloaded through the Internet.
2) it is viewed on the screens of diversified portable electronic devices (e.g. smartphone (PDA, P2P, Blackberry, Palm OS, Tablet PCs and etc.), as well as desktops or laptops with digital contents downloaded from the Internet.
3) it is instantly purchased with no shipping costs and no waiting.

**E-Book Reader**

In order to use an e-book, electronic devices must follow which are called ‘e-book readers, viewers or players’. A device used to display e-books includes powerful electronic features that offer a reading experience beyond that of a traditional book (Larson, 2010). Readers can turn pages and change the text orientation just by clicking or pushing a button. And by simply touching the screen, it is possible to enlarge the text size, bookmark pages, highlight passages, make notes, and search for key words and hyperlink to other parts of the book.
Methodology

Participants

The study was conducted at a public secondary school in Eastern Kangwon, South Korea, with focus on students of learning English as a foreign language. The participants were total 8 eleventh graders, all 18 years old, and one English instructor, 30 years old who was a native speaker of Korean. The experiment using e-books was conducted in after school English program for 12 weeks.

Instrument

Online book report was chosen in order to figure out the change of students’ writing performance because it was truly an expression of the reader’s opinion of the story, or of specific aspects of the book. It has been reported by many researchers that writing a book report helps students to practice giving their opinion about different aspects of a book, such as the author’s use of description or dialogue. Moreover, with a book report, it was possible to figure out how many books they read during the whole research process, and how many levels they moved into.

Research Process

For their first encounter with e-books, students were told to take a look at some stories from the ‘Story Time for me’ (http://storytimeforme.com). In the next class, they discussed the stories they liked focusing on a story’s message and interesting aspects. Then, they discussed how to write online book report. Afterwards, they were directed to check out class website to upload their writing work individually at home. In case they had any questions, they were encouraged to turn to their instructor or the researcher for help. The students preferred to use flash-based animated e-books because it provided them with animation, sound, music and graphic.

Data Analysis

A teaching schedule was kept following the action plan and students’ attitudes were carefully observed with the online book report. The result of reading performance over time has also been examined and students’ works including writing activities such as a re-telling in class were qualitatively examined and assessed to measure how much they had improved throughout the research sessions.

Findings

Online book report contained a factual summary of the book along with each student’s reaction to the book. Book report made it clear that they have read the entire book, including basic information about the book (title, author, etc.), summary, and reader’s reaction. To see grammatical changes in reading performance over time, as reading an e-book, participants thought about what they wanted to include in a book report and uploaded it. They were given an online sample book report and wrote their own one after each class. Consequently, students showed an improvement in a spontaneous writing format which included capitalization, punctuation, spelling, vocabulary, syntax, and grammar. Next table 1 is a sample
writing of one participant, ‘Won-Pyeong’ (pseudonym) and it was written during the first week of this study.

Table: 1

A Sample Writing by Won-Pyeong (1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title : Goldilock and the three bears</th>
<th>Date :</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The main character is Goldilock and father bear, mother bear and baby bear. There was a girl named Goldilock. She go a walk and saw a house. So she go inside and saw three plate of soup. So she ate biggest thing it's too hot. She ate middle thing but it’s too cold. At last she ate [ ] smallest thing that's just right. So she ate that all. And saw three chairs but two of them are too big. The last thing is small so that chair is break. And soon she saw three beds. Two of them is too hard and soft. So she slept at the smallest thing. Soon three bears are come they are very angry. When she was awake she ran away and never come back.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown above, a student had grammatical problems in writing, at first, which centered on mainly verb (agreement, tense consistency and weak construction). Most of the sentences were also composed of just a few words and had sentence problems which included fragments, comma faults, parallelism, and punctuation for clarity. While the first writing work needed many corrections, most students have shown improvement on sentence construction over time. On table 2, it demonstrates the enhancement of writing, acceptable usage in grammar, diction (choice of words), sentence construction, and punctuation. With continued reading and writing over time, students gained confidence in writing and could express and organize their thoughts.
Table: 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Sample Writing by Won-Pyeong (2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Title</strong>: The paper crane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Date</strong>:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Student Name</strong>:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Title is the paper crane'.

There *are some character* in this story.

The main character is a man, a man’s son, his grandpa and the paper crane.

I read this book because the paper crane in the first picture was bigger *then a man’s son’s head*. It looked so funny. In the story, a man had a restaurant.

A man worked from morning until night, and he was happy.

but *soon* people did not come to his restaurant.

So he was sad.

Some day a grandpa came and made the paper crane.

A man’s son began playing with *that paper crane*.

*Some* days later, many people came to a man’s restaurant.

Because people liked to listen to the flute very much.

A man feels very happy.

More days later, grandpa came and played the flute.

Then the paper crane flew away and disappeared.

Finally, he became so sad and cried. His restaurant had no people any more.

As shown in sample writing, most of the students have significantly absorbed the grammatical changes in writing, and they showed changes on oral presentation and group work, as well. Here are major changes of students with an e-book reading over period.

Firstly, regarding the title and beginning of the report, students presented the title page, but lacked much of the required information. But gradually, not only is the title page present, but it also contains the title, author, students’ names, and appropriate graphics, as well.

Secondly, when they described main characters, there was incomplete or inadequate description of the main characters, but later they could represent adequate descriptions and character sketches of the main characters, even including a few comparisons among the characters.

Thirdly, their first brief summary lacked an incomplete plot summary and an incomplete or inaccurate story board, since each student had no idea what to write and how to depict the story.
In the end, however, they successfully could complete the plot summary including the story board and highlighting major events.

Fourth, when addressing the originality of the story, they presented merely a basic summary of the plot in which there was no evidence of new, personal thought, inventiveness, or insight. On the contrary, at the end, the researcher was able to figure out that the book report showed significant evidence of originality and inventiveness and students demonstrated a basic understanding of the content and extended beyond just that to offer new insights and understanding of the book.

Fifth, oral presentation was another interesting attempt conducted simultaneously with writing a book report. Students were encouraged to make an oral presentation at class. At first, almost of the students had little eye contact, poor voice projection, tone, and style, since they were not accustomed to making a speech in front of an audience. But it was remarkably surprising to see how much their attitudes of presentation had changed at the end. They presented with adequate eye contact, voice projection, a pleasing tone, and an engaging style.

Finally, students were required to have a team/group work, since it was a good opportunity either to compare or contrast the same book each of them had read. Although they were expected to have a lively discussion, the first result showed poor teamwork and some misbehavior, and sometimes a book report was late for deadlines and project requirements. Nonetheless, as classes made steady progress, they proved to have excellent teamwork and good behavior, and worked together to meet all deadlines and project requirements.

To sum up, the students’ awareness of an e-book reading enhanced their reading ability and with increased vocabulary power, they were able to write online book reports in more detail. In addition, not only the ability of speaking was remarkably elevated, but confidence and also the interest in English learning was increased. Table 3 below shows the summary of the changes which students had during the study.

Table: 3
Changes in Reading Performance over Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>at the initial stage</th>
<th>at the last stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title Page</td>
<td>- lacks much of the required information</td>
<td>- title, author, students' names and appropriate graphics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Characters</td>
<td>- incomplete or inadequate description of main characters</td>
<td>- adequate descriptions and character sketches of main characters including a few comparisons among characters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

It is generally concluded that the development of good reading habits and skills can improve students’ ability to write. Through online book report and post reading activities on the class, the result demonstrated that students were able to write in more detail about their thoughts and fully express the summary, plot and of the story as well as describe the books’ characters, places and events successfully. With increased vocabulary, writing online book report also helped students to practice giving their diverse opinions about different aspects of a book which they had read.

Acknowledgement

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References


Challenges of English Language Teaching in Rural Areas

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The main purpose of using language is to communicate one’s needs, necessities, feelings, thoughts and ideas to others (Banu, 2). The last decade or so has been marked by a new phenomenon called globalization. This has a profound impact on different domains of life such as social, political and economic. It has also experienced significant changes in the communication dynamics of the world. English language is the most crucial gear of this new communication euphoria. English has become the modern lingua franca, i.e. the language of communication among speakers of other languages. As such, English can help bridge communication barriers across cultures. English has opened up avenues for many areas such as means of communication, medicine, agro-business, science, technology, international businesses, trade, shipping, aviation, sports, research, books, diplomacy, and so on. Its quick wide spreading also arrived at small rural communities, where life goes around the school and the fields. It is in this limited space, distant from the great urban centers, that the English language is taught in rural areas.

Teaching of English in rural or difficult areas is definitely a challenge. It’s a challenge in the sense that all theoretical knowledge acquired as part of ELT training goes haywire in the classroom. A teacher has to evolve strategies at every step during his/her class. Before I deliberate on the remedial measures, let us take an overview of the grey areas as far as teaching of English in rural areas is concerned.

This paper is developed to demonstrate the main difficulties English teachers have to face when they have students from different and distant communities and who do not have any interests in learning a foreign language. Moreover, problems such as lack of adjusted material, the long distances that students must travel, and the fact that they almost live isolated and with a minimum contact with the imposed language, certainly frustrate the teachers’ expectations towards English teaching. Apart from this there are other factors also which are equally important for lack of proficiency of English language both as a subject or language in rural areas as: lack of literature books, textbooks, movies, lack of visual contact of English, great number of students in the classrooms, parents value school but they over-protect their sons and daughters, lack of English material, long distances to arrive at school/college, lack of investments in rural education, different cultures living in the same rural community, lack of interests in learning English, higher teacher-student ratio, lack of effective teacher training, lack of quality teacher, unavailability of language skills learning tools are the most problematic factors towards
implementing English curriculum effectively in rural areas. English as a phobia, English treated as elite over other languages, English as an indicator of social status, taught like any other subject notional introduction of technology, incompetent teachers jingoism, substandard teaching material, non-availability of basic infrastructure hostile socio-cultural factors are also the drawbacks for teachers of English. According to Dudley-Evans and ST John (1998) the material chosen by teachers should have some motivational characteristics:

To stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging yet achievable; to offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners’ experience and knowledge; to encourage fun and creativity. The input must contain concepts and/or knowledge that are familiar but it must also offer something new, a reason to communicate, to get involved. The exploitation need to match how the input would be outside the learning situation and take account of language learning needs. The purpose and the connection to the learners’ reality need to be clear. (172)

To me any institution can play an important role in three key areas, namely: providing qualitative learner friendly infrastructure, recruitment of good English teachers: this is an inflammable issue. Look at the kind of teachers appointed by various State governments in rural areas. Considering their incompetence at using English or Will to use English, why should one expect miraculous results from them? Appointments are highly political and mere possession of degrees like Diploma in Education (D.Ed), Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) is sufficient to label somebody as an English teacher. Avenues for socio-cultural opportunities: in a rural school or college one hardly finds a chance to interact with the society/ community. The institutes should organize interactive activities to ensure participation of learners. Eye contact is maintained between the teacher and the student. Teaching is synchronized with the student’s mind. Immediate remedial action such as repeating the material already taught or altering the pace of teaching can be executed. Doubts on the part of the student are immediately cleared by the teacher. The teacher does not spend time grappling with technology. There should be rapport and bonding development between the teacher and the student through regular face to face interactions in class. The teacher acts as a role model for the student, thereby enhancing the learning process. Find out own material, access to radio-CD player, TV, DVD player, computer and photocopy machine, good relationship between students/teachers and teachers/students’ families, school support, Initial motivation to start learning English, Homogeneous classrooms (in terms of English knowledge) are also the requirement for this purpose.

Moreover, the almost in existing use of spoken English in the classroom is a factor that influences students’ learning. If they do not practice in the classroom, possibly they will not do it in their homes. The reason why teachers do not use English in the classroom varies from the difficulty students have to understand what is being said till the difficulty of communication and the shame in using English. These factors are explained by themselves, once there is no learning without knowledge and practice. A propitious environment in which English should be explored
and used a lot is in the classroom. When teachers are in the classroom they should speak English as much as possible, however this almost does not happen in rural areas. Moreover, the biggest problem to put in practice the lesson plans is not the students, but the lack and/or access to English related material. Teachers agree that the lack of material transforms the classes yet more difficult than they really are. When students get a copy of any kind of material, they have contact with the foreign language and they do their best to discover what is written in that piece of paper. However, when they do not get a copy, they must copy from the blackboard what is tiring, difficult and a boring activity. Teachers try to show the importance of copying in order to improve their writing, but this argument is weak and lost in itself. In fact, teachers note that what they really want is just wait for the right answers. For many of them, learning what is and how to use English becomes a play where there is no winner, but the teacher and the school. These positive or negative views on English are acceptable as English plays a different role for different people, what has already been investigated by Richards and Lockhart (1994):

*English represents different things to different people. For some it represents the language of English literature. For others it is the language of the English-speaking world. Some associate it with the language of colonialism. Other sees English simply as a mean of doing business and making money. People’ view of English, or of any other language, are influenced by contacts they have had with the language and its speakers. (32)*

Certainly, this is a big challenge teachers have to face in their English teaching, once they have to convince the students about the importance of learning English, moreover demonstrate the value teachers have in their field of actuation. As a professional, difficulties like these are common in the scholar universe, and teachers must be prepared to face them with serenity and calm, showing that the most important for students is to assimilate the subject as part of their curriculum and try to bring it to their routine, demonstrating its importance around the world. In spite of the great number of negative views on English by students in rural areas, it is comprehensible that students think like that. Their reality is centered on their own world, and their world is surrounded by farmers, harvesting machines, farm tractors, trucks, domestic animals, plantations, and the land, mainly the land. Everything they do is linked to the seasons, the sun, the rain and the final result: the products they produce and sell in order to live and keep their families. In this context, it is comprehensible why there is a kind of rejection of the English language, especially because of its imposition by the public school at the first hand. The hegemony of English transforms it in an indispensable subject in the school curriculum, what sometime does not reflect the students’ choice. Learning English is directly associated with students’ way of living (family background; pronunciation problems; considered useless and a waste of time; lack of interest in learning it; its compulsory nature). Students’ reality and students’ age influence directly upon the teachers’ methods and outcomes. Teachers and students have to walk and travel long distances to arrive at college or school. Once in the school or college, they are tired and lose their concentration. The four skills associated with their failures,
namely, reading (lack of literature; distance from the target language), writing (vocabulary problems; lack of practice), listening (lack of contact with the spoken language; insignificant related material), and speaking (small lexicon; memorized words just for tests), demonstrate the difficulties teachers have to face in order to get students attention and develop these skills.

Library access and available material (almost non-existent) create a barrier to English learning that teachers have to overcome by their own way. Over-protection – students have to work in their farm and their parents protect them instead of encouraging them to learn more – becomes dangerous for students, motivating them to study less than they are able to. Teachers should understand students’ viewpoints of learning English and they should try to overcome this situation showing the role English plays nowadays. Teachers should plan their classes according to students’ needs and ages. Teachers must know where their students come from and understand their specific situations. They should try to demonstrate the importance of English around the world (business, science, computing, technology, trade, shipping, etc.), but always respecting students’ background. Teachers should prepare good classes decreasing the level of anxiety of each different group. Teachers must perform more practical exercises and use English as much as possible. They should develop activities based on the four skills: reading (read aloud and texts for comprehension); writing (copy from the blackboard and write in the notebook); listening (play CDs with English dialogues and listening to music); and speaking (repetition exercises and act out small dialogues). Teachers should do general tests and provide activities evolving the whole group, especially in classes with a lot of students. Teachers may try to break down the over-protection by showing to the parents the importance of learning a foreign language.

Having known that 70% of India lives in villages, majority of the work force comes from rural areas. It becomes imperative that students of such areas are given equal opportunities to learn English. The urban rural divide in teaching of English has to be bridged. It is possible only if a committed and honest approach is adopted. Having said that a rural student is equally competent to learn English, an English teacher has to adopt innovative strategies in the classroom. One has to go for action research to find the solutions on the spot. A few measures like appointment of skilled and committed teachers of English at primary level, effective implementation of technological schemes like EDUSAT, soft skill classes should be there. But, zero tolerance on the quality of both human and infrastructural resources, provision of minimum technological aids like TV, LCD Projectors, Computers, Stereos, weekly film shows, facelift to the general ambience in schools and colleges, etc should be put in place to arrest the dwindling standards of teaching/ learning of English in rural areas. Some of the said measures may appear farfetched but will certainly help in better teaching and learning of English language in rural areas. Since English is the foreign language to the people of India, students of our country find it a complex task in their education. Considering the global needs, English was implemented as a compulsory subject since the independence at higher level. In this context, it is a matter of great
sorrow that right implementation of English curriculum is still far away. Especially in rural areas of India, English is yet the matter of fear for students. Urban students are comparatively adroit in English language because school teachers are skilled in English language teaching and they get support from parents and house tutors. But in rural areas, most of the parents are not educated and unable to spend money for private tutor. If schools teacher become qualified and conscious to teach students, it will be helpful for rural students to learn English effectively. To emancipate the fear of English language learning among the rural students and to achieve the curriculum goals and objectives, government and non-government organizations, whose are trying to improve English language skills of rural primary schools student, should take some short and long terms plan by considering existent condition of English language learning and the prevailing problems which are hindrances for implementing English curriculum. Recruiting high qualified and subject specialist teacher, providing adequate training for their professional development, increasing salary level so that they can respect their own jobs and proving sufficient materials for learning language skills could the solution of these problems. Here we would like to encourage other researchers to do a comparative research about urban and rural student’s competency in English language and find out the solutions to overcome the thwarts of English language learning.

Curriculum is the heart of education system which indicates the education aims, objectives and learning outcomes (Hasan, n.p). It helps teacher to conduct their teaching in classroom. To implement English language curriculum at primary and higher level, teachers’ knowledge about the aims, objectives of English curriculum is very essential (Rahman, n.p). But it is found that most of the teachers are not aware of the aims, objectives of English curriculum. When most of the teachers do not know the English curriculum aims and objectives, it is tough to achieve expected curriculum goal which is one of main hindrances for implementing curriculum.

As the people of a developing country, we cannot depend just on our mother tongue for communication since we are not self dependent at all. For this reason, learning English is indispensable for worldwide communication, as English is used mostly in international perspective. But keeping the problems alive it is next to impossible to cope with the demands of the present world. Therefore, it is expected that the authority will be concern to solve the existing problems.

Works Cited


Testing of Oral English Language in the Intensive English Program at the College of Languages (University of Aden)

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Abstract: To speak well in English is an integral part of language learning. This research used a questionnaire to find out the types of tasks a group of 20 EFL teachers in the intensive English program at the College of Languages (University of Aden) used to promote their students' speaking. This research also investigated which tasks they used to test their students' speaking, which features of spoken language they paid attention to most, whether they used rubrics when scoring students oral ability, and finally if these teachers had received training in assessing/testing speaking during their undergraduate program. Findings of this research indicated that teachers used communicative tasks to both teach and test their students' speaking. However, when testing students' oral language, teachers focused more on students' accuracy and based students speaking scores on personal observation. Finally, it was also found that teachers had not received any training in assessing speaking. This research recommended that there is a need for training these instructors in the use of scoring rubrics as well as in EFL assessment.

Key Terms: speaking, testing, rubrics, oral language, Faculty of Languages (Aden).

Introduction

The ability to speak well in English is widely recognized as an important skill. Richards (2008) states that learners often consider improvement in their spoken language proficiency as a measure of their success in language learning and the effectiveness of the English course (p. 19). Therefore, instruction and assessment of the oral language should have a central role in the foreign language classroom (Public Schools of North Carolina, 2001, p. 73). This could be a strong reason why the academic administration at the College of Languages at the University of Aden expects from the instructors teaching in its intensive English program to help students
improve their English speaking skill. The administration also requires the instructors to assign their students a numerical score which reflects the students' overall English speaking ability.

Although the spoken component forms a 10% of the overall 100% grade of students, it is still essential to know whether these instructors are clear as to what they are evaluating and if they have clear criteria to measure their students' oral language. The following research is meant to gain insight into the types of tasks these teachers use to promote students' speaking skill as well as the tasks they use to test their students' oral language. This research also focuses on finding out which areas teachers pay attention to most when evaluating their students' speaking, the scoring tools they use to measure their students' oral ability, and whether or not they had received training in evaluating oral production in their undergraduate program.

The results obtained from this study will shed light on the effectiveness of both teaching and testing of the oral language in the intensive English program at the College of Languages as well as provide insights into what needs to be improved in this area

Research Questions

1. Which tasks instructors use for instructional purposes?
2. Which tasks do they use for testing purposes?
3. Which features of speaking do they focus on when testing their students' speaking?
4. Do they use rubrics when evaluating their students' speaking?
5. Did these instructors receive any training in assessing/testing during their teacher education program?

Methodology

Context of the Study

The following research was conducted in the intensive English course program at the College of Languages (University of Aden). There are 6 levels of English courses offered in this program ranging from elementary to intermediate. Each level lasts for 6 weeks. The students enrolled in these courses come from different educational backgrounds--those who have recently completed their high schools and are preparing for college entrance exams of English, as well as those who are preparing for higher studies in different majors at the University of Aden--the latter is required by their respective programs to complete an English proficiency course.

1 Luoma (2008) defines tasks as "activities that people do, and in language learning contexts, tasks are usually defined in terms of language use" (p. 30).
2 Wiggins (2003) distinguishes testing as being part of the assessment process---more like a snapshot.
The English language course is an integrated course where the textbook *World View* is used. Instructors are required to focus on all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In-class evaluation is 50% which is based on: attendance, orals, writing, grammar quizzes, and spelling/vocabulary quizzes. The other 50% is based on a final exam that students are required to take at the end of each session. The passing score is 60%.

**Participants**

Twenty EFL teachers of English in the intensive course at the College of Languages took part in this study. The participants were selected using sample of convenience meaning that the questionnaire was given to all those teachers at the College who were available. All the participants in this study were graduates of the College of Education (University of Aden).

**Data Collection and Reporting**

A questionnaire with both close and open questions designed by the researcher was used for data collection. The questions aimed to identify the types of tasks teachers used to develop their students' speaking, the types of tasks teachers used to test their students' speaking, the areas they focused on in their evaluation as well as whether they used rubrics and whether or not they had received training in assessment/testing speaking during their teacher education.

To ensure credibility of the questionnaire, a second opinion was taken from instructors who have been in the field of English language teaching for more than 10 years. In addition, the questionnaire was piloted in another institute where intensive English language courses are taught. The ambiguities that came up during the piloting phase were fixed before giving out the questionnaire to the teachers at the College of Languages.

Responses obtained from the teachers were reported in both number and percentage.

**Background to the Study**

In the past, speaking was taught by mechanical drilling and rote learning of dialogues in students' textbooks. However, research in language acquisition during the late twentieth century "made us reconsider some long-standing beliefs about how people learn to speak" (Bailey, 2003, pp. 49 - 50). For example, the communicative language teaching approach emphasizes authentic interaction, student-centered learning, task based activities, and communication for real world, and meaningful purposes. Students have to use the language productively and receptively in unrehearsed contexts in which teachers could guide but not control the students (Brown, 2007, p. 242). Learners need to be provided with different opportunities to demonstrate their oral communicative abilities.
Equally important to teaching the oral skill is its assessment. Assessment acts as a link between classroom objectives and instruction; it also provides instructors with valuable information on the effectiveness of their teaching and the extent to which the objectives are being met. Therefore, when evaluating and scoring learners' oral language, teachers first may need to specify the level of language they are targeting and then decide to target one or more of the following criteria:

- pronunciation
- fluency
- vocabulary
- grammar
- discourse features (cohesion, sociolinguistics, appropriateness, etc)
- task (accomplishing the objective of the task)

(Brown, 2007)

Brown (2004) enumerates the various components of the speaking skill under two categories: microskills and macroskills. Microskills "refer to producing the smaller chunks of language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations, and phrasal units" (p. 142). On the other hand, macroskills "imply the speaker's focus on the larger elements: fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, nonverbal communication, and strategic options" (p. 142).

For scoring purposes, holistic and analytic rubrics may be used. It is difficult to say which one is better. A holistic rubric assesses performance across multiple criteria as an integrated whole. For instance, when holistically assessing a student’s performance the teacher assesses the extent to which the student meets the descriptions on the rubric and gives an overall score that reflects the range of that performance level. An analytic rubric separates levels of performance and assesses the speaker's performance for each criterion. Each element of a student's oral ability is scored separately, for example, a separate score is put on pronunciation, word choice, task completion, level of discourse, fluency, and grammar.

Hughes (2003) warns that the accurate measurement of oral ability is not an easy task and obtaining valid and reliable results needs time, effort, and training."Public Schools of North Carolina" sees that assessment of the oral language is the most problematic skill, and divides teachers' concerns into: 1) What to assess: form or content 2) How to assess: subjectivity vs. objectivity and 3) When to assess and how to manage assessment. Similarly, O'Malley and Pierce (1996) mention that there are at least three challenges that teachers face when assessing their students' speaking ability in the classroom: "making time, selecting assessment activities, and determining evaluation criteria" (p.58). In light of such concerns, there is a true need for investigating the teaching and testing of speaking as it helps improve the instructional quality of speaking.
Results and Discussion

(1) Which tasks instructors use for instructional purposes?

In response to question (1), pair/group discussions (100%) seemed to be the most common type of task used by all the teachers involved in this study. This was followed by role plays (95%), oral interviews (90%), and short individual presentations (70%) as shown in table 1. Tasks such as pictures descriptions, storytelling, retelling story or news event, debate, information gap activities were also used by teachers to promote their students' speaking but to a lesser extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task /Activity</th>
<th>(number)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pair and group discussions</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role plays</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oral interviews</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short individual presentations</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pictured descriptions</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>story telling</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retelling a story or news event</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>debate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information gap activities</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Task types used for instructional purposes

As apparent in table 1 teachers did provide their students with opportunities to use the language in different situations. Such as an approach seemed to be in consistence with the communicative language teaching.

(2) Which tasks do they use for test purposes?

In questions (2), the teachers were asked to mention the type of tasks they used for testing purposes. Results showed that (60%) of the teachers used short oral presentations, (40%) used oral interviews and (40%) used role plays. Other tasks such as picture descriptions, information gap activities, storytelling, debate, and retelling a story or news event were utilized by about half of the teachers involved in this study. (10%) of the teachers stated that they based their scoring on students' in-class participation as well (see table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task /Activity</th>
<th>(number)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>short oral presentations</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oral interviews</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
pair and group discussion  8  40  
role plays  7  35  
picture descriptions  3  15  
information gap activities  2  10  
story telling  2  10  
class participation  2  10  
Debate  2  10  
retelling a story or news event  1  5  

Table 2: Task Types used for scoring purposes

Results showed that students' speaking was tested through tasks similar to those teachers used for instructional purposes. It could be concluded that the type of tasks that teachers used to evaluate their students' speaking to a larger extent seemed to be a valid assessment, and reflected what the students were taught.

(3) Which areas of speaking do teachers focus on when assessing their students' speaking?

Pronunciation (73%), vocabulary (63%), and grammar (58%) appeared to be the three areas that the majority of the teachers stated that they focused on when evaluating their students' speaking. It seemed that teachers focused more on the microskills features of speaking; features such as fluency, discourse features, task accomplishment seemed to be of lesser importance for teachers when scoring students' speaking ability (table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Focus</th>
<th>(number)</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discourse features (cohesion, sociolinguistic appropriateness, etc)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>task (accomplishing the objective of the task)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Areas of focus when scoring speaking

This approach did not appear to be consistent with the communicative approach to language teaching which emphasizes meaning. "Public Schools of North Carolina" (2001) states that when assessing and grading students' oral language, the focus should be more on the message (what has been said) and its component. However, this does not mean that teachers
should not assess their students' accuracy (how it is said), it just means that priority should be given to whether the message is comprehensible---regardless of the few grammar mistakes in grammar, pronunciation, and word choice.

(4) Did teachers use rubrics to score their students' oral language?

About half of the teachers (50%) expressed that they were not aware of rubrics as scoring tools, (15%) said they did not use rubrics, and only (35%) said that they did (table 4). Most of the teachers stated that they based their students' scoring on their personal observation of students' performance. Observation can provide teachers with rich information on their students' progress, however, they lack the clearly spelled out criteria that rubrics normally have.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know what this is</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Rubrics

Using rubrics for scoring purposes can help students know their areas of strength and weakness. An analytic rubric, for example, with its clearly and separately spelled out criteria of the speaking skill has the advantage of providing students' with feedback about which features of their spoken language are strong and which need improvement. Hence, analytic rubrics not only serve the purpose of scoring but they can also diagnose a student's speaking ability.

(5) Did teachers involved in this study get any training in assessing students' speaking skill?

The majority (75%) said that they had not received any training during their undergraduate program at college related to assessing students' speaking ability (table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left unanswered</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Training or No Training?

In this light, there seems to be a need for the teacher training program at the College of Education (University of Aden) to incorporate in its curriculum assessment sessions to help the future-teachers develop better skills to assess and test their students' language skills in general and speaking skill in particular.
Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper investigated the type of tasks a group of EFL teachers at the College of Languages (University of Aden) used to teach and test their students' speaking skill. It also focused on finding out which features of the spoken language teachers focused on most, if they used any rubrics, and whether or not they had received training in EFL assessment during their undergraduate teacher training program at the College of Education (University of Aden). Findings of this research showed that teachers used communicative activities to promote their students' speaking and they also used similar activities to test their students' oral language. However, there are still areas that need to be improved to make the teaching and testing of speaking more effective.

The first and foremost recommendation that one can make is that teachers need to learn to pay more attention to the macroskills. The focus should be more on the meaning and message of oral communication and then on language accuracy as this approach is more consistent with the communicative language teaching. In addition, it is recommended that instructors should either be provided with rubrics which they can use to score their students' oral language or they can be trained to design their own rubrics. Rubrics, particularly the analytic rubric, can serve not only as a scoring tool but also as a learning tool for students and help them match their speaking goals against the clearly spelled out criteria on the rubrics. Preferably, rubrics should be given to students before any test so they can have a clear idea of the areas they will be evaluated on.

Finally, the benefits of assessment cannot be ignored: assessment guides teachers' instructional practices, provides teachers with information about their students' progress, and determines the extent to which learning goals are being met. Since the majority (75%) of teachers involved in this study claimed that they had not received any training in assessment or testing during their undergraduate studies, it is essential that assessment as a course become an integral part of teacher education at the College of Education (University of Aden). In this way, all future teachers of English enrolled in the College of Education will be provided with the necessary support needed to improve not only their teaching skills but also their assessing skills.

References


Lexical Category as a Differentiate Element toward the Meaning of Idiom in Lampung Language with Pesisir Dialect

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Abstract: This study is a qualitative study which aimed to describe lexical category and the meaning of the idiom in Lampung language with coastal dialect. The result of this study showed that the idiom in Lampung language can be a complex word, compound words, and an idiomatic expression. There are two kinds of idioms of complex words in Lampung language of coastal dialect, namely penghengukand pedatong. The idiom of combination words can be a combination of noun + noun, noun + adjective, noun + verb, verb + adjective, and verb + verb. Based on semantically verb which is used in a form of combination words is conditional verb and action verb.

Key Terms: lexical category, meaning, and Idiom

Introduction

Lampung language is a regional language that comes from Lampung province and it is still used by some of community right there. Lampung language is also a language that has no language level or in bahasa it is usually called ‘undak-undukbahasa’ such as in Javanese, Sudanese, and Balinese language. Lampung language only has two kinds of language types which is called formal and informal language, but it has four dialects, namely Pubian dialect, Coastal dialect, Komering and Abung dialect.

Lampung is a multiethnic province because there are so many people that come from other region or area such as Sunda, Java, Palembang, etc. This multiethnic that exist creates multi languages in Lampung, therefore, Lampung has many dialects. However, most people in Lampung prefer to speak Indonesian language for communication because they have no way to communicate using their own dialect.

Almost all languages are unique. They have their own characteristic that cannot be found in other language, for instance, language on poetry, idiom, folk, and so on. Lampung language also rich and has various language ethnic, for example, in the form of Idiom. In Lampung, idiom is often used to show or express particular feeling such as anger, advise, or compliment. For example ‘cecilikghaling’ in English it means little black cricket. This expression is used to show a people
who are angry or upset. The meaning of the expression is someone that really annoying or someone who is bad both attitude and also physically. Idiom is also used to adorn language in particular situation. In Lampung, there are lots of traditional ceremonies use idioms in the words expression.

Idiom is a formal form that has different meaning with the elements that create it. This form also cannot be added by other words of morphemes. In understanding the meaning of idiom, we need to take a look to its languages context and the culture of the community that uses the idiom.

**Review of Literature**

**Definition Idiom**

The theories used in this study is a theory related to the structure and meaning of idiom. Based on the construction, idiom is a structural patterns which diverges from general language rule that usually an idiom shows in phrase, while meaning cannot be explained both logically or grammatically, and it focused on the meaning of words that construct the idiom (Keraf, 2002: 109)

Related to the structure of the idiom, Makkai suggested that idiom is an individual lexeme which is a personal entry in a dictionary (Makkai, 2002:28). According to other resource, the definition of idiom has to be understood as an expression that cannot be responsible as a component function from the meaning of each part when they are not part of the idiom (Cruise, 1986: 45). While, Katz (1973: 359) suggested that idiom as an exception in a languages grammatical rules. According to Katz, Idiom is “… syntactically complex constituent in a language that the semantic component of the grammar treats as lexical items…”this theory in line with Huddlestone (1984: 42-44) which pointed out that idiom is a lexical items consist of more than one lexeme or word.

Moeliono (1980: 154) said that language form in which the rules cannot be formed, generally, belong to idiom. However, the other experts, Palmer (1981: 80-82) suggested that the meaning of an idiom is based on the collocation that exist between the words that construct the idiom. Palmer also categorized the idiom into two, namely vague meaning and clear meaning. Furthermore, based on its meaning, Palmer divided idiom into two types, namely real idiom and partly idiom.

Makkai suggested that essential idiom characteristic is when the meaning of the expression able to lead astray or when the meaning of expression cannot be caught by the audience who pay no attention when hearing it. Makkai (1972: 22-134). Based on the level, grammar creates a basic difference between lexemic idiom, sememic idiom, and hypersememic idiom. Idiom sememic is arranged by more than one free form, while compound is not an idiom. Sememic idiom is same like a proverb in which polilexemic construction has a literally meaning and additional moral
value or implicit message. This type of idiom, on its level, can be transformed and modified. Hypersememic idiom, if it exists, the meaning depends on the user in particular culture. From those explanations, it showed that idiom, for Makkaï, not only a phrase but also phrase or sentence such as proverb.

The Difference Between Idiom, Compound Word, Metaphor and Phrase

Idiom, compound word, and phrase are a combination of lexemes or words on previous chapter. Since the definition of idiom has been defined above, the following is some definition about compound word and phrase.

Kridalaksana (2010: 14) stated that compound word is a combination between word and word, for example, ‘rumahsakit’( a building for sick people). The words are combination between lexemes ‘rumah’ and lexemes ‘sakit’. Kridalaksan also said that phrase is created from syntaxis combination between lexemes (word) with the lexemes that come from individual lexemes that has any morphological process. For instance, ‘temanbermain’, lexemes ‘teman’ becomes word ‘teman; with zero zero derivation and lexemes ‘main’ becomes ‘bermain’ because the words are combined syntactically becomes ‘temanbermain’

The meaning of idiom cannot be defined directly from the words that have been combined, for example, when the word ‘rendah’and word ‘hatií’ combined becomes ‘rendahhati’: the combination of words is formed as follow:

   Idiom   : A + B makes C

While, metaphor is an analogy which compares two things directly but short. The first element is connected to the second one. Metaphor not always be a verb but it also can be another else. The context of simile is important because it will help to find the synonym. Vice-verse, the meaning of metaphor is covered by a context. It means the metaphor still alive (Keraf, 139: 2002)

Types of Idiom

Idiom is categorized into several types, namely expression, proverb, slogan (Sudaryat, 2009: 89-91)

a. Expression

   The expression can be defined as (1) an utterance or a group of unique words to show a purposes with a connotation (Purwardarminta,1983: 1126); (2) expression is a group of words which join together in building a meaning (Zakaria and Sofyan, cited in sudaryat, 2009: 89); (3) expression is a combination words that has different meaning with the meaning of each element (PusatBahasa, 200: 991)

b. Proverb

   There are several definition of proverb based on several author. Besides, proverb can be defined as a part of sentence that has definite form, meaning and function in the community, it is hereditary.
Proverb is used to embellish an essay or article, to strength the meaning of the article, to give an opinion or advise, and also to teach or life orientation (Kridalaksana, 2009: 189)

The other author said that proverb is a sentence or group of utterance that usually embellish a particular meaning (Poerwadarminta, 1983: 738)

1. Aphorism (maxim)

Aphorism is defined as (1) a proverb consists of an advise, warning, or satire (PusatBahasa, 2005: 144), (2) a lesson from old people (Poerwadarminta, 1983: 714), (3) sometimes, it is a rules in a community (Zakaria and Sofyan, cited in Sudaryat, 2009: 90). For example: ‘Air tenangmenghanyutkan’. It means that a quite person but rich of knowledgment. This kind of idiom is called aphorism because the utterance consists of a warning that is used in a community.

2. Parable

Parable is one of proverb that consists of comparison of people’s live. The main characteristic of parable is the existence of several words such as ‘like’, ‘as’ (in bahasa ‘seperti’, ‘bagaiakan’, ‘laksana’ etc.)

c. Pameo

Pameo is an expression or proverb that is used as a slogan (Kirdalaksana, 2001: 123). At the beginning pameoïï is an irony (teasing or satire) that becomes a rumor, funny utterance that is used to tease people (PusatBahasa, 2007: 662).

Research Method

This research used qualitative method. In this study, words and pictures are mostly used as data collection rather that groups of numbers (Moleong, 2013: 11). Qualitative research is a natural research based on a real data and descriptive qualitative method is used to analyze and discover the fact that has correct interpretation. The data in this study are presented use descriptive in order to give clear explanation about the use and correct structure in an idiom. Moreover, the sources are taken from a book ‘sastralisan Lampung’ which is written by Effendi Sanusi and ‘KamusBahasa Lampung Dialek’ which is made by Kantor Bahasa Lampung.

Findings

Based on the result of data collection the following is several classification of the data and the result of its analyzing based on idiom structure. Idiom can be classified into 3, such as idiom in the form of word, words-combination, and even a sentence.

Idiom Form and Meaning of Complex Words

From the result of the study, it is found two idioms in Lampung language of coastal dialect in a word form, namely pengenguk (the dearest son/daughter) and pedatong (gift)
a. **Penghenguk**

Penghenguk comes from word ‘henguk’ with affix peng-. Affix peng- is an allomorph of affix p-. Hengukis a noun, literally, means an obedient people. When the word has suffix peng-becomes penghenguk which has idiomatically meaning as dearest son/daughter. Suffix peng-means has a behave / attitude, penghenguk means a kid is an obedient person that listen and obey to his/her parents, and makes the kid becomes a dearest one.

b. **Pedatong**

Idiom ‘pedatong’is made from suffix pe- and the basic word is ‘datong’ in which literally means appear of arrive in a particular place, while idiomatically, it means something exist with appearance or arrival of a person or things that give to people who we were visited. The thing could be food or house hold tools.

**The Form and Meaning of Idiom of Word combination.**

There are 5 constructions of idiom in the form of words combination, namely noun + noun, noun + verb, noun + adj, verb + adj, verb + verb.

**(Noun + Noun)**

There are idiom constructions of form combination of noun + noun

1. **Kelampudak**

Kelampudak is an idiom formed from word class noun + noun. The word class of noun used is related to noun color and noun body parts. Literally, the idiom means a change on someone face that becomes dark, while idiomatically it means that someone who is angry or upset, and when someone angry the face of people who is angry changes become dark or red.

2. **Mata bayuk ( matakeranjang)**

The construction of mata+ bayuk is a construction of noun + noun. Mata (eye) is a noun of body parts, while bayuk is a noun of tools. Literally, this idiom means about the holes that exist in a basket because basket is a tool which is plaited not too close each other, therefore, the hole exists between one plait to the other plait. Idiomatically, this idiom means a boy or a man than easily fall in love to a beautiful woman or girl. The eyes of this kind of man embellish as ‘matakeranjang’. This idiom is usually used to tease a man who has married but he still like tempting a woman besides his wife.

3. **CecilikGhaling (Thin black cricket)**

This construction of idiom consists of noun (animal) and noun (color). This idiom is used when people is angry or when people meet someone that he/she does not like.literally, this idiom tells about someone that has really bad both attitude and his/her physically. While, idiomatically this idiom tells about someone that cannot accept some advises or opinion from other, pretending to understand while in fact is vice-verse, and a liar. This kind of people is embellished by word combination ‘cecilikghaling’.
Noun + Verb

1. **Ngakukpundak** (taking face or ‘mengambil muka’)
   This idiom is formed by words class verb + noun. This construction of idiom, the noun in this idiom is a people who try to attract other’s empathy (attention). This process to attract people’s attention is embellished as ‘taking’ (mengambil) and face is an embellish or proverb of attention or empathy.

2. **Temutundun** (bertemupungung/back to back)
   This construction of idiom consists of verb + noun. Based on its semantic, the verb is a process verb, and the noun is noun of body parts. The word ‘temu’ means face to face or have a touch each other. The word ‘tundun’ means back part of body. Literally, this construction of idiom means two people who are blocking each other by back to back. This situation, idiomatically, can be defined as a contradiction or an opposition. The words temutundun means two people that have different opinion or way of thinking.

3. **PundakKhacunan** (poison face)
   Based on the construction, the idiom consists of noun of body (Pudak) and conditional verb (khacunan). Literally, this idiom means a people that has a poison on its face and idiomatically this construction of noun + verb has a meaning as a person that likes to eat every times he/she looks the food that he/she wants to eat. The situation when people want to eat every times she/he looks the food without paying attention to his/her stomach can be assumed as a condition of people who got poisoning.

Noun + Adjective

1. **Paghihapa** or an empty rice plant
   Paghihapa is an idiom constructed by noun + adjective. The noun in this construction is noun of plants. The meaning of this idiom is having a behavior like the mentioned things. Literally, this idiom means a rice plant that has been eaten by pest. Therefore, the rice plant is empty and has no fruit inside and nothing can be eaten by people. Idiomatically, paghihampa means a lie, the words that has no proof or has no truth.

   **Kamakpungu** (Dirty hand)
   Kamakpungu is an idiom construction of noun + adjective. It is constructed by noun of body parts and adjective. Literally, this idiom means hand as a part of body which is used by human to hold or take something and dirty is a situation or condition which means not clean or dirty. ‘Dirty’ is a negative adjective, idiomatically, this idiom means a people/person that like stealing something or usually called a thief. In this idiom, thief is embellished as a person that has dirty hand.
Verb + Adjective

1. *Biyakinjak* (do not want to stand up or wake up)

*Biyakinjak* is a construction of adjective + verb. Based on its semantic the word *biyak* is an adjective while *injak* is an action verb. This construction, literally, means a lazy people or a people that does not want to wake up or does not want to stand up from his/her seat. Idiomatically, this idiom is defined as a feel or feeling lazy to work and do other activities. The people like sitting or lying down.

Verb + Verb

1. *Cucukcabuk* (plant in and pull out)

Idiom *cucukcabuk* is a construction consists of verb + verb. Based on its syntax, these both verbs is an action verb. Literally, this idiom means an action of planting and pulling out of something which is done repeatedly. In this idiom, the activity of planting and pulling out is done in contiguous. Idiomatically, this idiom means a people that has no principle and easily change their mind.

Clause or sentences

1. *Ibungmakjawohanjakruppun* (bamboo shoot will not stay far from bamboo clutser)

From the sentence, this sentence is a reluctant sentence. It is signed by the word such as ‘mak’ (no). Literally, this sentence construction means a young bamboo shoot which grows not far from old bamboo cluster. Idiomatically, the meaning of this sentence is children behavior will not far from parents’ behavior. Therefore, this expression is often used to tease parents who want to have good son/daughter but never give a good example to their son/daughter.

2. *Iwadacok, waimakbulok* (got fish and the water is not turbid)

This idiom, in bahasa mean catch the fish without make the water becomes turbid. Literally, this idiom is defined as a people who do fishing and catch the fish without make the water getting turbid. It can be done by an expert fisher or experienced fisher. Idiomatically, this proverb means that someone can finish his/her problem without make other problem.

3. *Manjau di salaktutung* (Visit to salak hangus)

Literally, the meaning of this idiom is about someone who visits a place name Salakmuntung in which there is nothing can be eaten. Idiomatically, this idiom is defined as a people who visit one of relative’s houses and the owner serves nothing for food, therefore, there is no food to eat. This situation is embellished as a people who visit Salakmuntung.

4. *Gegahtupainganikkelapa* (like a squirrel eats coconut)

In bahasa, this Lampung idiom is defined like a squirrel that eats coconut. It means, if you want something you should work at first. In other word, it means people will get something
by working. A squirrel which wants to eat coconut should hardly peel off the coconut fruit first. After hardly process in peeling off the coconut skin, the squirrel can eat the fruit. This situation is compared and embellished with human effort to reach their dream or goal.

5. **Kekalauimbunjadianuagh** (wishing the dew becomes an estuary)

In bahasa, this idiom means a wish of the dew can become an estuary. Literally, this idiom means a wish of one or two drops of dew can be a million even it is wished become an estuary. Idiomatically, this idiom means wish something small can become a huge one. This is same like wishing for the dew can becomes an estuary.

**Conclusion**

From the result of this study, it can be concluded as follows:

1. Idiom in Lampung language of coastal dialect can be made in the form of word only, words combination, and sentence. Kinds of idiom in Lampung language of coastal dialect that can be constructed use word are **Penghenguk** and **pedatong**. While in word-combination, the idiom can be constructed with the form of noun + noun (**matabayuk**), noun + adjective (**paghihappa**), noun + verb (**temutundun**), verb + adjective (**biyakinjak**), and verb + verb (**cucukcabuk**).

2. Kinds of noun that are use in Lampung idiom is noun of body parts, living tools, colour, plants, and animal. While, the verb that is used consists of conditional verb and action verb.

**Suggestion**

1. For next researcher and other linguist who interested in conducting research in analyzing idiom in Lampung language, this research still can be developed widely.

2. Since Lampung language has four dialects, therefore, it is still possible to do a research toward the idiom in Lampung with the others dialects.

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Case Markers in Kaprang-Tangkhul

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Abstract: This paper attempts to describe the case markers used in Kaprang-Tangkhul a Tibeto-Burman language which is typographically closely connected with its neighbouring district of Thoubal. Kaprang-Tangkhul is the name of the village as well as the name of the Tangkhul Tribe. Kaprang-Tangkhul also has the word order of subject-object-verb and it shares some of the characteristic features of verb final languages. Case is a grammatical category which is established on two counts viz. i) syntactic correlation between the substantives and ii) between two substantive in a syntactic unit (Yashwanta, 2000). On the basis of data seven case markers are found in this language, viz. nominative, accusative, ablative locative, instrumental, associative and genitive. All the case markers are suffixes to the noun and pronoun.

Key words: Kaprang-Tangkhul, Case markers, suffixes.

Introduction

The Naga-kuki sub-group of Tibeto-Burman language family includes many languages and dialects spoken in North East India including the states of Manipur, Mizoram, Tripura, Nagaland and Assam. Kaprang-Tangkhul is a small Tangkhul village of Manipur. This village locates in the Thoubal district but it includes in the Senapati district. The language spoken here is also known as Kaprang-Tangkhul. Although the name Tangkhul is given to a group of tribe community they cannot communicate each other through their language. It means that Tangkhul speaks different languages. If they like to communicate either standard Tangkhul, spoken in the proper Ukhrul or in Manipuri. It is spoken in some parts of the Manipur and mainly found in the hill districts of Manipur. Tangkhul are divided into eight regions, viz, (1). Northern hilly region; Raphei, (2). North-East hilly region; Somra, (3). Eastern hilly region; Ram, (4). Southern hilly region; Kamo, (5). Western hilly region; Kharao, (6). South-West hilly region; Khaorui, (7). North-West hilly region; Kathur or Khaorui–raora and (8). South-East hilly region; Kaikhang. Kaprang-Tangkhul is included in the Southern hilly region, Kamo. Tangkhul is included in the Naga-Kuki group (Grierson LSI, Vol III, part III, 1903). Kaprang-Tangkhul also has the word order of SOV and the verb can occur in the final position. This language is an agglutinative language.

Review of Literature

There is no available literature on this language which can be used to analyze for the description of Kaprang-Tangkhul case markers. This is the only pioneer work on Kaprang-Tangkhul. They do not have their own script. The Roman alphabet is used for writing purposes. Kaprang-Tangkhul has not been introduced yet for teaching in any private or government educational institutions.
Methodology

The methodology in this paper is both primary data and secondary data. Primary data are collected from native speakers of this language and secondary data which is included the available written materials in the books, journals, articles etc. have been collected through library works.

Case markers

Any one of the forms which a noun or a noun phrase may assume in order to represent its grammatical or semantic relation to the rest of the sentence (R. L Trask: 35). In Kaprang-Tangkhul, there are seven case markers. Seven case markers are given below.

Nominative /i/
Accusative /tʃ/~i/
Instrumental /nʃ/~i/
Genitive /tʃ/~i/
Locative /mʃ/~nʃ/~gʃ/~i/
Ablative /tai/
Associative /so/

Nominative case

Nominative case which is used to mark the subject of a sentence (R. L. Trask : 152). In this language nominative marker /-ιι/ is added to the noun or pronoun.

For examples:

α. υι√ι          υ       κοµ√ι
   i-NOM    rice     cook-SIM.ASP
   I cook rice.

β. µ↔√ι       Να       σα√ι
   he-NOM    fish    eat-SIM.ASP
   He eats fish.

c. ραʃυ√ι          κοπΗι      ινσα√ι
   raju-NOM  coffee     drink-SIM.ASP
   Raju drinks coffee.
Accusative case

Accusative case which is typically used to mark the direct object of a verb (R. L. Trask: 3). In Kaprang-Tangkhul accusative marker is denoted by the suffix /-t/ which is added to the noun or pronoun. The accusative and genitive markers are homophonous but their differences are in functions.

For examples:

a. i mother-ACC love-SIM.ASP
   I love my mother.

b. he-NOM marcy-ACC beat-SIM.ASP
   He beats Marcy.

c. i you-ACC know-SIM.ASP
   I know you.

Genitive case

Genitive case which is marks a possessor (R. L. Trask: 95). In Kaprang-Tangkhul, genitive marker /-t/ is added to noun or pronoun.

For examples:

a. i-GEN shirt
   My shirt.

b. meena-GEN book
   Mena’s book.

c. this i-GEN dog-b.v
   This is my dog.

Locative case

Locative case is a case which expresses location (R. L. Trask: 134). In Kaprang-Tangkhul locative case is indicated by suffix /~l/.
a) λαρικ τεβ↔λ↔ομε
   book table-LOC have
   The book is on the table.

b) με λ↔μ↔ραμ↔μ↔φαν↔οε
   they leimaram-LOC go-PERF.ASP
   They have gone to Leimaram.

c) ι σκυλ↔φαν↔χε
   i school-LOC go-FUT.ASP
   I will go to school.

The locative marker is also used in the following function
a) ι πυΝ σομ↔μ↔σκυλ φαν↔οε
   i time ten-LOC school go-PERF.ASP
   I go to school at 10:00 clocks.

b) μ↔ιμΗαλ↔ασοντα φαν↔χε
   he imphal-LOC tomorrow go-FUT.ASP
   He will go to Imphal tomorrow.

**Associative case**

In Kaprang-Tangkhul, associative case is also identified by suffix */-so/* marks as in the following sentences

For examples:

a. ι ν↔Νσο σκυλ φανψχε
   i you-ASS school go-FUT.ASP
   I will go to school with you.

b. μ↔ιβεµχασο μ↔λακ↔με
   they ibemcha-ASS play-PROG.ASP
   They are playing with Ibemcha.

c. γιτα ρανιψσο ηοΝψχε
   gita rani-ASS come-FUT.ASP
   Gita will come with Rani.

**Ablative case**

The ablative case which typically expresses the meaning ‘out of’ or ‘away from’ (R. L. Trask: 1). In Kaprang-Tangkhul ablative marker */-tai/* is added to noun or pronoun.

For Examples:
a. ι βαζ-ABL ψαρ-τα Να ↔ λυι ηοΝ-ντ
   I buy fish from marker.

b. ιμ↔ μπΗαλ-ABL ηοΝ-ντ
   He comes from Imphal.

c. ν↔Ν δελι-τα ηοΝ-ντ
   You come from Delhi.

**Instrumental case**

The instrumental case is used to mark the instrument with which something is done (R. L. Trask: 115). In Kaprang-Tangkhul instrumental case is marked by suffix /-να/.

For examples:

a. ι κνφ-ν↔ ανχι ζεµ↔ με
   I make curry with a knife.

b. μανι κνφ aον↔ ρο κνψ-με
   Mani cut the bamboo with a big knife.

c. ι κνψ-ν↔ τΗιΝ κνψ-με
   He cut the tree with an axe.

**Conclusion**

From the above discussion it becomes clear that Kapang-Tangkhul neat system of case markers. The case markers are suffixes to the noun and pronoun. In this language seven case markers are used.

**ABBREVIATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABL</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASS</td>
<td>Associative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.v</td>
<td>Be verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUT.ASP</td>
<td>Future aspect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN</td>
<td>Genetive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INS Instrumental
LOC Locative
NOM Nominative
PERF.ASP Perfective aspect
PROG.ASP Progressive aspect
SIM.ASP Simple aspect

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Kinship Terms in Meiteiron: A Special Reference to Compound Words

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Abstract: This paper mainly attempts to discuss a detail study of Meitei kinship terms more specially on the Meitei compound words. The kinship terms are differentiated by various features, by sex, as father and mother; by generation, as son and daughter; and by lineal relation, as uncle etc. In the present study, the kinship term is analysed into various groups and sub-groups on the basis of their meaning and structure. The formation of Meitei Kinship term is first started from the clan level, then at lineage and extends at the family level. The components of compound words and its different orders show the different functions of compound in the language.

Key words: nuclear family, extended family, reduplication, reversed order

1. Introduction

From the early periods most of the people have been searching to identify themselves in social contexts. Such identification goes through the act of naming, culture which is playing a vital role in the society. Before learning and categorising other’s life styles, one’s first step is to identify his status in the society. The element of identification is done by the name of the individual and that kind of individual’s name brings him apart from other people or groups. Hence the role of individual’s name is very important in the society and it indicates the uniqueness within society.

The ethnicity and its cultural heritage of a particular group bring them a common platform in the society. Obviously each and every culture shows a set of kinship terms. And it also defines the roles which are served in society.

The tradition of tracing kinship relationships through several generations (descent) is done by the researchers of the particular field. To be extended its importance and meaning of the relationships among the people the kinship terminology i.e., the system of linguistic categories for denoting kinds of relatives are obviously used.

2. Kinship Terms and Terminology

Kinship terms are the lexically identical terms. Kinship terms, according to E. R. Leach (1958), are “category words by means of which an individual is taught to recognize the significant groupings in the
social structure into which he is born (p.143).” Sometimes, Meiteiron uses the same term of address for different kinship terms. For example, ego’s father’s father “paternal grandfather” or ego’s mother’s father “maternal grandfather” can be both \( \text{ipu} \) “grandfathers”. Whereas, ego’s father’s mother “paternal grandmother” or ego’s mother’s mother “maternal grandmother” can be called \( \text{iβok} \) “grandmothers”.

In Meiteiron, kinship terms may be divided into two major categories:

1. Basic and,
2. Non-basic

2.1. Basic kinship terms are those that designate blood or consanguineal relation, for example: \( \text{ipa} \) “father”, \( \text{ima} \) “mother”, \( \leftrightarrow \text{NαN} \) “child” of a family.

2.2. Non-basic kinship terms are those that designate relationships by marriage i.e., relationship through marriage or affinal relationship, such as \( \text{ipuroib} \leftrightarrow \) “husband”, \( \text{loin} \leftrightarrow \text{bi} \) “wife”, \( \text{imak} \) (female ego) or \( \text{ija} \) (male ego) “son-in-law” etc.

The systems of terminology are also unique that are labelled with a distinctive social and cultural nature. Kinship terminology refers to specific systems of inherited or familial relationships. It includes the terms of address used in different language communities for different relatives and the terms of reference used to identify the relationship of these relatives to ego or to each other. There are also some different between the term of reference and the term of address in accordance with the sex of the ego in certain cases. For instance, the words \( \text{ιβυN} \) (female ego) and \( \text{ταδ↔} \), where \( \text{ιβυN} \) is a term of reference and \( \text{ταδ↔} \) is a term of address.

The study of kinship terms is an interdisciplinary work for each language community. Generally, most of the language community’s kinship terms belong to the basic vocabulary of the particular language. In this work, first, describes the Kinship Terms and Terminology; second, explains the Relatives; third, discusses the Concept of Kinship Terms; fourth, analyses the Classification of Meitei’s Kinship Terms; fifth, shows the Relative Age; sixth, mentions the Kinship Organisation; seventh and eighth deal with forms of Addressing and the Cultural Connotation of Meitei Kinship Terms respectively.

3. Relatives

The word Kinship is the relationship modeled on the culturally recognized connection between parents and children. It may be extended to siblings and through parents to more distant relatives. There are also three kinds of relatives.

They are:

3.1. Primary Relatives
3.2. Secondary Relatives and,
3.3. Tertiary Relatives
These relatives are different with one another. For examples, in Primary Relatives, Ego's parents and siblings and his spouse and children in his family are included. In Secondary Relatives, father's father, mother's sister, wife's mother, brother's son, etc. are there and father's sister's husband, wife's sister's daughter etc. are in Tertiary Relatives respectively.

4. Concept of Kinship Terms

Each particular language has its own kinship terms, which reflect the culture with which it is associated. The meanings as well as features of kinship terms reflect the relationships among kin in each particular society. It can be found that kinship terms may be differentiated by various feature, e.g. by sex, as father and mother; by generation, as son and daughter; and by lineal relation, as uncle etc. In the present study, the kinship term is analysed into various groups and sub-groups on the basis of their meaning and structure.

The concept of kinship term ‘cousin’ in Meiteiron can be both brother and sister according to the sex and the relative age to ego. It could be one's father’s brother's children or one's mother's sister’s children etc. Whereas, the English word ‘cousin’ does not carry the semantic meaning of sex. So the term is not clear from the word that whether the word is a male or a female. Another one is that Meitei kinship terms have more referent terms than the English and also have different words for describing the same kin in accordance with the sex of the ego. For example, a younger sister of a male is termed as \( \chi\chi\rightarrow\lambda \) whereas the younger sister of a female is \( \nu\nu\nu\).  

5. Classification of Meitei Kinship Terms

In Meitei society both the classification of \( \lambda\nu\eta\nu\nu\lambda\rightarrow\chi \rightarrow \tau\nu\kappa\nu\nu\nu\rightarrow\mu\rightarrow\pi \) (affinal) and \( \tau\eta\nu\mu\rightarrow\rho \rightarrow \tau\nu\kappa\nu\nu\nu\rightarrow\beta\rightarrow\nu \) (consanguineal) relationships are found. All the indigenous Meitei kinship terms used as terms of reference (consanguineal) are consisted of this prefix \( \iota \) meaning ‘blood relationship’ for instance, \( \iota \) in \( \pi\pi\pi \) ‘father’, \( \iota \) in \( \mu\mu\mu \) ‘mother’, \( \iota \) in \( \chi\chi\chi \) ‘elder sister’, \( \iota \) in \( \nu\nu\nu\nu\nu \) ‘elder brother’ etc. Interestingly an exceptional case is found that the borrowed word \( \kappa\nu\rho\pi\rho \) which is used as referent term can be added by the prefix \( \iota \) whereas it can’t be added to \( \mu\mu\mu\mu\mu \) ‘uncle’ as it is borrowed one.

Generally kinship term is first originated from a nuclear family i.e., consists of a husband, wife, and their children. Then it goes through extended family. An extended family consists of two or more nuclear families affiliated through an extension of the parent-child relationship rather than of the husband-wife relationship.

Quite the contrary, “Meitei kinship is classified at the kin system (Yek-salai), then at lineage (Sage→i) and finally at the family level (imuŋ m→nuŋ) (Manipuri Culture, LIS-India).”

Examples:

- \( \Psi\nu\kappa (\Psi\nu\kappa-\sigma\alpha\nu\alpha) \) ‘clan’
- \( \sigma\sigma\nu\kappa-\nu \) (\( \sigma\sigma\nu\kappa-\nu\nu\nu\nu\nu \)) ‘lineage’
- \( \mu\mu\nu\nu \) (\( \mu\mu\nu\nu-\mu\mu\nu\nu \)) ‘family’
From the above examples it appears that the formation of Meitei Kinship term is first started from the clan level and extends at the family level and so on.

Meitei Kin Terms

Diagram showing several basic relationships that are designated by kin types.

5.1. Genealogical Abbreviations and Symbols:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So</td>
<td>Son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>Daughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Brother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GF</td>
<td>Grandfather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GM</td>
<td>Grandmother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Younger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Elder</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At present there are seven clans in Meitei society, viz - μ↔Ναν, λυωαν, κΗυμ↔ν, ↔Νομ, μοιραΝ, κΗαβ↔-Νανβ↔, and σ↔ραΝ λ↔ισαΝτΗεμ. Under each clan there may have many σαγ↔ισ (lineages). The lineage wise distribution of Meitei clans (Moirangthem, 1982:11/12) is illustrated as follow:

Number of σαγ↔ισ(lineages) that exist in the particular Ψεκ-σαλαισ(clans):

i. Mangang /μ↔Ναν/ -117 lineages

ii. Luwang /λυωαν/ -57 lineages

iii. Khuman /κΗυμ↔ν/ -110 lineages

iv. Angom /↔Νομ/ -50 lineages

v. Moirang /μοιραν/ -71 lineages

vi. Khaba-Ngamba /κΗαβ↔-Νανβ↔/ -25 lineages

vii. Sarang Leishangthem /σ↔ραΝ λ↔ισαΝτΗεμ/ -40 lineages

___

Total = 470

Fig: Seven clans showing the number of lineages contained.

6. Terms for compound words in Gender Relation

The terms used as compound words indicating gender relation in Meiteiron are prominent. The order of constituents i.e., the order of words referring to males and females is divided into two types: i) the
words referring to females occur before the words referring to males and ii) words referring to male occur before the words referring to females, Nameirakpam (2005). About the gender of the person, Devi (2008) opines that “most of the terms specify the gender of the kin’s men.”

The components of compound words in Meiteiron are used as reduplications, reversed order, order of sex, ascending order of age, descending order of age, ascending order (of time), descending order (of time), same period of time, order of relation, order of ego’s gender, terms used by only male person as well as by only female person respectively. These can be illustrated with the help of the following examples:

### 6.1. Reduplications

In this form the compounding features are reduplicated type. The components of these words may be used as modern and modern, modern and archaic, archaic and archaic and archaic and modern respectively. The referring terms may be used in either male or woman and the age may be both senior and junior. This is illustrated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Order of Time</th>
<th>Ego’s Sex</th>
<th>Nature of Relationship of Time with Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>η-λ-λ→μ-λ</td>
<td>modern + modern</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>seniors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΝαΝ-ν→ωα</td>
<td>modern + archaic</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>juniors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>τρπι-τπι</td>
<td>α</td>
<td>archaic + archaic</td>
<td>male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>τνυ-τναν→β</td>
<td>modern + modern</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>τνυ-τναν→βι</td>
<td>modern + modern</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>τα-τροι</td>
<td>archaic + archaic</td>
<td>female</td>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>μ→ρυπ-μ→παΝ</td>
<td>modern + archaic</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π→λεμ-ποκπα</td>
<td>archaic + modern</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π→λεμ-ιμα</td>
<td>archaic + modern</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π→ντΗ→ν→ποκππ</td>
<td>archaic + modern</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>παρι-ιβνΌ</td>
<td>archaic + modern</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>son</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>παρι-ν→ωα</td>
<td>archaic + archaic</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>son</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2. Reversed Order

The components of these compound words can be used in reversed order. The order of sex and order of age also can be seen as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Order of Age</th>
<th>Order of Sex</th>
<th>Ego’s Sex</th>
<th>Nature of Relationship with Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ιχε-ιχ↔ν</td>
<td>senior + junior</td>
<td>female + female</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>ES + YS/YS + ES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιχ↔ν-ιχε</td>
<td>junior + senior</td>
<td>female + female</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>F+in+Law+M+in+Law/ M+in+Law+F+in+Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>νυπα-νυπι</td>
<td>senior + junior</td>
<td>male + female</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>man and woman/ woman and man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>νυπι-νυπα</td>
<td>senior + junior</td>
<td>female + male</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>man and woman/ woman and man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>νυπι↔ΝαΝ↔νυβτι</td>
<td>senior + junior</td>
<td>female + child</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>woman and child/ child and woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ν↔ηα↔λ</td>
<td>junior + senior</td>
<td>young + old</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>young and old/ old and young</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ν↔η↔λ</td>
<td>senior + junior</td>
<td>old + young</td>
<td>male or female</td>
<td>young and old/ old and young</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3. Order of Sex

In this type of pairing the words referring to males occur as a first constituent as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ιπυ-ιβεν</td>
<td>ιπυ</td>
<td>ιβεν</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘grandfather’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘grandmother’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 6.4. Order of Sex

In this type of pairing the words referring to females occur as a first constituent and are followed by the males as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'son'</td>
<td>'daughter'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'son'</td>
<td>'daughter'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'man'</td>
<td>'woman'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'father-in-law'</td>
<td>'mother-in-law'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'father'</td>
<td>'mother'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'uncle'</td>
<td>'aunt'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'husband'</td>
<td>'wife'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'king of God'</td>
<td>'Goddess'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'king'</td>
<td>'queen'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5. Ascending Order of Age

The following pairing of words referring to the ascending order of age, the juniors occur as a first constituent and the seniors follow after it. Moreover it is also not possible to use as reversed order except the pairing ν↔ηα↔η↔λ as given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Junior</th>
<th>Senior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ταδ↔-μαμμ↔</td>
<td>ταδ↔</td>
<td>μαμμ↔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'brother'</td>
<td>'uncle'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιπα-ιπυ</td>
<td>ιπα</td>
<td>ιπυ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'father'</td>
<td>'grandfather'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \pi \leftrightarrow \lambda \alpha \leftrightarrow \nu \tau \Pi \leftrightarrow \upsilon \]

\[ \pi \leftrightarrow \lambda \epsilon \mu \leftrightarrow \nu \tau \Pi \leftrightarrow \upsilon \]
6.6. Descending Order of Age

Unlike the above, the seniors occur as a first constituent and the juniors follow after it. In addition, similarly (as above 6.5), it can not be possible to use as reversed order with an exception of the pairing $\nu\leftrightarrow\eta\alpha\leftrightarrow\eta\leftrightarrow\lambda$ as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Senior</th>
<th>Junior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\nu\leftrightarrow\eta\alpha\leftrightarrow\eta\leftrightarrow\lambda$</td>
<td>'junior'</td>
<td>'senior'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\iota\alpha\iota\nu\leftrightarrow\lambda$</td>
<td>$\iota\alpha$</td>
<td>$\iota\nu\leftrightarrow\lambda$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'father'</td>
<td>'father's elder brother/uncle'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\iota\sigma\iota\mu\leftrightarrow\nu\iota\nu$</td>
<td>$\iota\sigma\iota\mu\leftrightarrow\nu\iota\nu$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'grandson'</td>
<td>'grandfather'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\iota\chi\iota\nu\iota\mu$</td>
<td>$\iota\chi$</td>
<td>$\iota\nu\iota\mu$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'elder sister'</td>
<td>'mother-in-law'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\iota\chi\iota\omega\alpha$</td>
<td>$\iota\chi\iota\alpha$</td>
<td>$\iota\omega\alpha$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'child'</td>
<td>'husband'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.7. Ascending Order (of Time)

One important feature to be noted in Meitei Kinship is that the number of compound word referring ascending order is only one, for instance, ΝαΝ-ν↔ωα. Here the first combination of words is started by modern word ↔ΝαΝ then follows archaic word ν↔ωα.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Modern</th>
<th>Archaic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>↔ΝαΝ-ν↔ωα</td>
<td>↔ΝαΝ</td>
<td>ν↔ωα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.8 Descending Order (of Time)

Other pairing of words denoting compounds accept the above 6.7. are all under the descending order:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Archaic</th>
<th>Modern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>π↔λεµ↔ποκπι</td>
<td>π↔λεµ</td>
<td>↔ποκπι</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘mother’</td>
<td>‘mother’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π↔ντΗ↔υ↔ποκπ↔</td>
<td>π↔ντΗ↔υ</td>
<td>↔ποκπ↔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>παρι-ιβυNo</td>
<td>παρι</td>
<td>ιβυNo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘son’</td>
<td>‘son’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π↔λεµ-ιµα</td>
<td>π↔λεµ</td>
<td>ιµα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘mother’</td>
<td>‘mother’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.9. Same Period of time

Double archaic words are used in this type. If the components of words are used as referring to reduplication, the meanings also may have identical.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Archaic</th>
<th>Archaic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>παρι-ν→ωα</td>
<td>παρι</td>
<td>ν→ωα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘son’</td>
<td>‘son’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>π←λεµ-π←ντΗ→υ</td>
<td>π←λεµ</td>
<td>π←ντΗ→υ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘mother’</td>
<td>‘father’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.9.1. Order of Relation

In this type of pairing the first referring term (i.e., left hand side) is more important than the second one. It is because of the fact that the words which occur before the right sides are closer link than the other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Nearer</th>
<th>Near</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ιχα-ιµ→υ</td>
<td>ιχα</td>
<td>ιµ→υ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td>‘daughter-in-law’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιχ→ν-ιχα</td>
<td>ιχ→ν</td>
<td>ιχα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘younger sister’</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιπα-ιτον</td>
<td>ιπα</td>
<td>ιτον</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td>‘uncle’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιτυ-ιχα</td>
<td>ιτυ</td>
<td>ιχα</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
<td>‘child’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιχα-ιναυ</td>
<td>ιχα</td>
<td>ιναυ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘child’</td>
<td>‘younger brother’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The components of these compound words can not be used as reversed order. But, the gender of ego may be either the first component or vice versa. This is illustrated as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Nature of Relationship with Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ισελ-ιβαι</td>
<td>brother-in-law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ναι-σελ</td>
<td>the relationship between two fathers-in-law or mothers-in-law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ισυ-ιβεν</td>
<td>grandson and grandmother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιχιν-ιννου</td>
<td>brother and sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιτο-ιννυνυ</td>
<td>husband and wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιπα-ιχα</td>
<td>father and child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιμα-ιχα</td>
<td>mother and child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.9.3. Terms used by only Males

In Meitei society there are distinct terms to be used exclusively by males and females. The following pairs of words are used only by males.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Nature of Relationship with Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ιτυ-ιχα</td>
<td>wife and child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ιπα-ιχα</td>
<td>father and child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.9.4. Terms used by only Females

Quite to contrary (above), the following pairs of words are used only by females.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms of Reference</th>
<th>Nature of Relationship with Ego</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
In the above examples it is noticed that some compound words are formed by combining the reduplicated archaic and modern words such as παλεµ-ιµα ‘mother’, παρι-ιβυΝNo ‘son’, ↔η↔λ-λ↔µ↔λ ‘senior’ and ισυΝ-ιµ↔ν↔β↔ ‘male friend’, by combining the archaic words such as παρι-ιµοµ ‘son and daughter’ and by combining the modern words such as ιµα-ιπα ‘parent’ etc.

7. Relative Age

Age is the most important parameter for terms of addresses in Meitei society among non relatives. The nature of Meitei kinship system is least descriptive. It merges different relatives into a small number of categories. Ego distinguishes between relatives only on the basis of sex and generation. In some languages, the term Relative Age is used as a form referring to some relation rather than one term for brother. The word brother can not be categorized whether he is younger or brother to ego in English. It is due to the fact that English language does not have different terms for brother. But, in Meiteiron it is used as different terms, for example, an elder male sibling is referred to ego’s δ↔δα or ιϕαµβ↔ “elder brother”, and a younger male sibling as ego’s ιναυ “younger brother”, whereas elder and younger female siblings to ego are ιχε “elder sister” and ιχ↔λ “younger sister” respectively.

8. Kinship Organisation

Meitei kinship term is unilineal and patrilineal descent types. Unilineal descent is the principle whereby descent is traced either through the male line “patrilineal” or the female line “matrilineal.” The kinship terms used in Meitei society seems to be a classificatory in nature except some descriptive terms. My brother’s wife is a descriptive term while sister-in-law is not. A sister-in-law may be either wife’s sister or brother’s wife (Murphy, 2001). Moreover there are only four descriptive terms in Meiteiron. They are:

1. ima       ‘mother’
2. ipa       ‘father’
3. iku/ikubok        ‘father-in-law’, and
4. inem/inembok     ‘mother-in-law’

The terms which are denoting other relations are related to the above feature (classificatory term) as well. Two or more elementary terms are combined to denote a specific relative in kinship term. Terms of
address in Meiteiron are categorized by many parameters, such as age, hierarchical differences (i.e., between royalty and commoners), kinship, etc.

9. Forms of addressing

In Meitei society there is a tradition for respecting the elder/older persons. The younger persons never address the elder ones by their names. This tradition is handed down from the early periods. The form of addressing among the people of the Meitei society exhibits a mutual respect with each other. The sense of politeness as well as courtesy prevails from generation to generation. Each family knows that there has a system of addressing persons, for instance, to whom or to what person, the kinship terms will be used or when and how will be addressed among the people. While addressing a man, the real name of the man may be avoided. Such form of addressing term may be explained as follow:

The terms of address which are mainly used among relatives and non relatives are as given below:

The bachelor is addressed as ‘πακΗ↔Ν, πακΗ↔Ν σ↔ρι’ while the unmarried woman/spinster is addressed as ‘λ↔ισαβι, λ↔ισαβι σ↔ρι.’ The widow is addressed as ‘λυκΗρα, λυκΗραβι’ while the widower is addressed as ‘π↔κΗρα.’ The step mother is addressed as ‘ποκτ↔βι µ↔µα, λονν↔βι’ while the step father is addressed as ‘ποκτ↔β↔ µ↔πα, λονν↔β↔.’ The step daughter is addressed as ‘λονν↔βι µ↔χα’ while the step son is addressed as ‘λονν↔β↔ µ↔χα.’ The barren woman is addressed as ‘↔κΗυΝβι, µ↔χαποκτ↔βι.’

The child is addressed as ‘ν↔ναυ, ναυχα, ν↔νωα, βυΝο, βεµµ↔, ↔ΝαΝ’ etc.

The common form of addressing under friend circle (among the male peer group) includes: ‘µ↔ρυπ, ιταυ, ιταυ, µ↔ρυπλοι, βαι, βονδΗυ, ιµαν↔β↔, ιταυβι’ whereas friends (among the female peer group) include: ‘ιµαν↔βι, κΗοιν↔υ ιτα, ιτα, ιταποιετχ.

9.3. The Cultural Connotation of Meitei Kinship Terms

Culturally, the terms of address to be called to the seniors can be divided into four types. They are:

i. Address to those seniors in age

ii. Address to those seniors in generation

iii. Address to those seniors in age and generation

iv. Address to others

i. Address to those seniors in age:
Kinship terms play a very important role in daily life. In Meitei society, there is a convention that the younger persons respect the older ones. The elder/older persons are the symbols of representing authority and superiority while younger ones as inferiority and obedience. According to Meitei tradition, the inferior is not allowed to call the superior by name.

ii. Address to those seniors in generation:

Generation is one of the most important features to identify the relatives. In this type those persons who are older in generation can address one’s name. The person he addresses may be junior or senior to him in age.

iii. Address to those seniors in age and generation:

Within the family those older or senior in generation are always addressed by the right kinship terms. For instance, a younger person (m) will address an older one as ταδ↔, κΗυρα, μαµµ↔, παβυΝ etc. On the other hand, an older person can address the persons who are junior to him as ιναυ, ιβυΝο etc. Another interesting feature is the spouse almost addresses one another as ταριβ↔ρ↔ “Are you listening” by male or ταβιριβ↔ρ↔ “Are you listening” by female. It is due to the fact that the kinship term represents a member’s status in a family and his relations with other members in the society. Obviously, there are close links between language, culture, and thought. Unlike a name, a Meitei kinship term is a special symbol of the surrounding culture that carries many meanings.

iii. Address to others

Most of the constructions to be used in this type are of the opposite of the above. It is mainly used among non relatives.

Conclusion

A unique form of Meitei indigenous terms is shown by Meitei kinship system that has its roots in Meitei culture. It examines the Meitei kinship terms at different categories, different relatives and different classifications. The study can be focused mainly on the relations of a culture’s kinship system and the influence of a certain kinship system on different generations. In the study of compound words, it is found in many forms as reduplications, different types of orders, periods, relations, ages, gender differences etc. At the conclusion it analyses different forms of addresses to be called to the seniors and it will be deserved and helpful mainly in intercultural communication studies.

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Translation of Culture-Bound Elements in Persian Movies Subtitled Into English: A Case Study of the OSCAR Winner ‘A Segregation’

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Abstract: The translation of culture-bound elements could be a very important task due to the fact that such elements have specific meanings in the culture and language in which they arise but not necessarily in others. Regarding this, the present study showed the strategies used in translation of culture-bound elements in the English subtitles of the Iranian film ‘a segregation’ and the frequency of such strategies. These culture-bound elements were categorized based on the taxonomy presented by Pedersen (2005). The data were gathered from the Persian movie a segregation which was subtitled into English. To gather the required data, the mentioned film was viewed and its original transcript was extracted. Then, the culture-bound elements of this film were detected and were compared with their English subtitles according to mentioned taxonomy to identify the strategies used in translating them. Finally, the frequency of the employed strategies was studied in order to find which strategy has the highest potential for conveying the intended meaning.

Keywords: Culture-bound elements, translation, subtitling, Persian movie, a segregation

1. INTRODUCTION

There have been a few studies of how cultural elements are translated, from general translation studies, such as Hatim (1997), to studies dealing with culture in audio-visual translation, such as Nedergaard Larsen (1993) and Orrevall (2004). The study’s theoretical framework was based on Gottlieb’s (1992) classification of subtitling translation strategies. Translation is employed as a regularly used cognitive strategy (11.3%, as reported by Omalley et al. 1985), as an effective tool in learning (Prince, 1996) and as a beneficial help in essay writing (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992). What these researchers believe is that strategic learners can make intelligent use of their L1 skills to learn a new language (Liao, 2006). While most teachers ignore the role of translation in EFL learning, learners insist on using translation in their learning (Marti Viano & Orquin 1982). Translation has always been a
central part of communication. Consequently, Translation studies (TS), as a field of research, has developed over the last two decades during which screen translation has slowly emerged as a new area (O’Connell, 2007).

According to Baker (1998), “interest in translation is as old as human civilization” (p. 277). An increasing part of the language in the media worldwide is translated from English (Gottlieb, 2001). In fact, “The role of subtitles is to facilitate access to audiovisual products in a foreign language” (Kapsaskis, 2008, p.42).

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Ivarsson (2001), there was very little literature on subtitling for a long time. Díaz Cintas (2003) pointed out that the concept that has undergone greatest growth in translation is subtitling. According to Sánchez (2004), the advent of DVD has meant an increase in films and television programs with subtitles. In Gottlieb’s (2001) terms, “these DVDs provide options for either vertical (same language) subtitling of use to the hearing impaired or diagonal (different language) subtitling” (p.124). Also, there are some problems caused by subtitles. Schwarz (2003), the main problem in subtitling is caused by the difference between the speed of the spoken language and the speed in reading; both require a reduction of the text.

The subtitle is an abbreviated version of the dialogue, which is projected on the screen. It is considered a complex and challenging variant of theatrical translation. Gottlieb (2005) states that whenever affordability, dialog authenticity, acquisition of foreign-language and reading skills are prioritized in audiovisual translation, subtitling is the obvious solution.

The present study aims to investigate the problems which translators encounter in translation of culture-specific items used in Persian language films subtitled into English. In doing so, the strategies used in dealing with culture-bound elements will be identified and finally, the frequency of the applied strategies will be studied in detail.

The main challenge in the present study is to investigate cultural elements pertaining to the language and to the source text being translated. In this regard, the problems found in the subtitles of this film are studied in order to determine which translating strategies are used and how they reconstitute the cultural notion of the source text in the target text.

*The culture-bound terms were classified based on the taxonomy presented by Pedersen (2005).* The data were gathered from analyzing the English subtitles of the Persian film ‘a segregation’. The acquired data are analyzed on the basis of the following translation strategies: 1) retention, 2) specification, 3) direct translation, 4) generalization, 5) substitution and 6) omission.
So, the present study could gain significance as it draws attention to different strategies employed by the Persian translators to render Persian culture-specific items into their English equivalent in Persian into English subtitled films.

**Culture-Bound Terms**

Culture-bound terms or as some call them cultural-specific items refer to those which have no equivalents or different positions in target reader’s cultural system, thus causing difficulties of translation of their functions and meanings in the source text into target text. According to Hatim and Mason (1990, pp. 223-4) “it is certainly true that in recent years the translator has increasingly come to be seen as a cultural mediator rather than a mere linguistic broker. It is also true that, in any form of translation, translators tend to apply a general strategy that will favor either an SL-oriented approach, or a TL-oriented approach.”

Newmark (1988, p.78) maintains that translation problems caused by culture-specific words arise due to the fact that they are intrinsically and uniquely bound to the culture concerned and, therefore, are related to the “context of a cultural tradition”. There are many ways to categorize culture-specific items, for instance Newmark (1988) points out five areas that cultural items may come from: (1) ecology (flora, fauna, winds, etc), (2) material culture (artifacts food clothes houses and towns, transport), (3) social culture (work and leisure), (4) organizations, customs, ideas (political, social, legal, religion or artistic), and (5) gestures and habits.

**Theoretical Model for Analysis**

In order to analyze the extracted data from the dialogue and transcripts of the film under study, the researcher has used the classification proposed by Pedersen (2005). He classifies culture-bound terms into two categories, namely intralinguistic and extralinguistic culture-bound references; the former category consists of idioms, proverbs, slang and dialects, while the later refers to the expressions pertaining to cultural items which are not part of a language system.

As Pedersen (2005) states extralinguistic culture-bound references consist of two categories, the first one is labeled source language oriented which includes retention, specification and direct translation, whereas the second category, labeled target language oriented, includes generalization, substitution and omission.

The purpose of this study was to find the strategies employed in translation of Persian culture-bound terms in the English subtitles of the abovementioned Iranian film and to investigate the frequency of the used strategies to determine which one has the highest potential for conveying the intended meaning.
3. MATERIALS

This study is mainly descriptive. In the present study, English subtitles of the before mentioned Persian film as research samples have been compared with the original samples’ script in order to find culture-bound terms and to investigate in details the translation strategies adopted by the translators in dealing with these terms.

The data will be gathered from analyzing the English subtitles of the Persian film,

A Segregation (2011) which is a 2011 Iranian social movie directed by Asghar Farhadi. This movie informally discusses about the cultural pathology of Iranian lifestyle. This cultural pathology attracts the perspective of all the world directors and cinema experts. It created a big challenge between humanity and Iranian law. It simultaneously showed the poverty of many Iranian social classes. This film broke all Iranian movie box office records and was the top grossing Iranian movie of all time.

Procedure

The Procedure for obtaining required information had four stages which are as follows:

1) Viewing the film in order to get the overall idea of it and to find instances of the Persian culture-bound terms in the aforementioned Persian film.

2) Using the transcripts and focusing on the English subtitles of this film.

3) Estimating the correctness of the applied translation strategy and determining the degree to which the translations were close to the original samples.

4) Tabulating the translation strategies according to the taxonomy proposed by Pedersen (2005).

Framework of the Study

Subtitling is intended “to retain and reflect in the subtitles the equilibrium between the image, sound and text of the original” (Georgakopoulou 2009: 30). The first comprehensive taxonomy of translation strategies was presented by Vinay and Darbelnet in the late 1950s (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958) and has since then been reproduced and modified several times. One of its most recent reworkings is that by Pedersen (2007), which constitutes the foundation of the taxonomy applied in the present study.

One of the most revealing translation crisis points is when some reference to the Source Culture is made, and there is no obvious official equivalent. According to Pedersen (2005) culture-bound

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terms are of two main types, namely intralinguistic and extralinguistic culture-bound references.

The strategies to render extralinguistic culture-bound elements as Pedersen (2005) proposed include two categories, namely SL oriented and TL oriented.

**Source language oriented strategy consists of three subcategories:**

1. **Retention:** It is the most source language oriented strategy, as it allows an element from the source language to enter the target text. Sometimes the retained culture-bound term is marked off from the rest of the target text by quotes and occasionally by italics. This strategy consists of two parts, namely complete and target language adjusts.

2. **Specification:** It means leaving the culture-bound term in its un-translated form, but adding information that is not present in the source text, making the target culture-bound term more specific than the source culture-bound term. This is done in one of two ways: either through Explicitation or Addition.

   2.1. **Explicitation:** Explicitation could be seen as any strategy involving expansion of the text, or spelling out anything that is implicit in the source text.

   2.2. **Addition:** This means that the added material is latent in the source culture-bound term, as part of the sense or connotations of the term. By using this strategy, the translator intervenes to give guidance to the target audience.

3. **Direct translation:** This strategy is like literal translation and it could hardly be used on proper names, but it is not uncommon for rendering the names of companies, official institutions, technical gadgetry etc. based on the outcome of translation, it has two subgroups; the first one is claque which is not familiar to target audience and it may sound odd to them, and the second one is shifted direct translation which refers to those terms that are common in target culture so the audience are familiar with them.

The Calque strategy is presented in Vinay & Darbelnet (2000) as a sort of borrowing, and its importance is recognized in this statement “As with borrowings, there are many fixed calques which, after a period of time, become an integral part of the language” (2000: 85). So this strategy is a potential source of vocabulary enrichment between languages. Newmark refers to this strategy by the name “Through-translation (‘loan-translation’, calque)” (Newmark 1988b: 76).

**Target language oriented strategy consists of three subcategories:**
1. **Generalization**: This strategy means replacing a culture-bound term referring to something specific by something more general. Typically, this may involve hyponymy or not.

2. **Substitution**: This strategy involves removing the source culture-bound term and replacing it with something else, either a different term or some sort of paraphrase, which does not necessarily involve a cultural term. This strategy consists of two subgroups: cultural substitution and paraphrase.

   2.1. **Cultural substitution**: This strategy means that the source culture-specific item is removed, and replaced by a different cultural term.

   2.2. **Paraphrase**: This strategy involves rephrasing the source culture-specific item, either through reduction to sense, or by completely removing all trace of the cultural term and instead using a paraphrase that fits the context.

3. **Omission**: As Toury (1995, p. 82), has pointed out Omission is a valid translation strategy, and in the present model it simply means replacing the ST ECR with nothing.

4. **DATA ANALYSIS**

Since the strategies to transfer culture-bound terms are of two main groups, namely SL oriented and TL oriented which are further divided into three salient subcategories, first the culture-bound terms of the before-mentioned film are presented in their context followed by giving necessary explanation and analysis, Then two tables are offered which specified different types of culture-bound terms with respect to the taxonomy proposed by Pedersen (2005) in this film. Furthermore, the frequency of each strategy used by the translators will be mentioned in charts.

**Analysis of Culture-Bound Elements of the Chosen Film**

In the following parts the collected data will be analyzed after being classified on the basis of the before mentioned framework. It should be added that although the emphasis of this study is culture-bound elements, but in the following sections some of the culture-bound elements will be offered in their contexts, i.e. the entire sentence or sentences to help the reader have a clear understanding of culture-bound elements and their meaning in context.

**Analysis of “A segregation”**

In this part, the summary of the mentioned source and target language strategies are depicted in the table 1. The data of this study were elicited form descriptive analysis of some of the instances of culture-bound terms and were examined against six major translation strategies proposed by Pedersen, namely (1) Retention, (2) Specification, (3) Direct Translation, (4) Generalization, (5)
Substitution, and (6) Omission; The first three strategies are source language oriented while the other three strategies are target language oriented.

1. **SL Oriented strategies**

This film contains 36 instances of SL oriented strategies to render culture-bound terms, some of which are discussed below.

**1.1. Retention**

There are 8 instances of complete and 3 instances of TL adjust retention in this film, some of which are analyzed below.

One of the words that currently exist in source language culture and it lacks in the target language is 
\[
\text{ﭼﺎﺩﺭ} \quad \text{chador}
\]
which is pronounced /ch\text{ā}d\text{ā}r/. This word indicates a kind of special covering usually is used for Muslim women particularly in Iran. Another word is 
\[
\text{ﮐﺜﺎﻓﺖ} \quad \text{Kesafat}
\]
which is pronounced /kes\text{ā}fat/ that means ‘you trash’ and is almost used when someone is called with an insultation.

**1.2. Specification**

There are 3 instances of addition and 6 instances of explicitation strategy in this movie.

1.2.1. Addition

The instances of this strategy are as follows:

\[
/\text{شناسنامه، کارت ملی، هر چی باشه خوبه}/
\]

1) “Any legal ID is ok.”

Since the SL word “\text{شناسنامه، کارت ملی}” are referring to the same thing in Iran, it may not be known to the English viewers of the film, thus the subtitler added the word “ID” in order that the audience know what this word refers to, more easily.

---

**Table 1: the target and source language strategies in one look**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source language-oriented strategies</th>
<th>Target language-oriented strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Retention</td>
<td>1) Generalization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1.2.2. Explicitation

Some of the instances of this strategy are presented below.

"یه امام زمان قسم می خورم:"
/be emāme zamān ghasam mikhoram/

“I swear to our savior.”

This word which is the name of one of our Imams is probably unknown in target culture, therefore the subtitler instead of using retention strategy, resorted to explicitation in order to help the audience know why this person is important.

1.3. Direct Translation

There are 9 instances of calque and 7 instances of shifted direct translation in this movie.

1.3.1. Calque

/diyeh/

1) “blood money”

The subtitler has translated the SL words literally regardless of the fact that the outcome seems strange and unusual to the target viewers since they cannot make head or tail of such word.

"داره همه چی رو می پچونه:"

(2)
/dāreh hame chi ro mipichuneh/

2) “He is twisting everything.”

In the above example, the SL word “می پیچونه” [mipichuneh] is rendered word for word as “twisting” which is awkward and meaningless and as a result it sounds odd to the target audience. The subtitler should have resorted to shifted direct translation and rendered this word as “twisting” which is its appropriate equivalent.

1.3.2. Shifted

/age bemire khunesh gardane shomāst/

“If she dies, her blood will be on your hands.”

This refers to an idiom which shows that if something happens another person is responsible for this. The subtitler has correctly translated this phrase as “If she dies, her blood will be on your hands” which shares the same meaning in the target culture as the source phrase.

2. TL Oriented strategies

This film contains 41 instances of TL oriented strategies to render culture-bound terms, some of which are discussed below.

2.1. Generalization

There are 7 instances of generalization strategy in this movie, 3 of them are hyponymy and the rest are not.

2.1.1. Hyponymy

/pasho kifo ketāb metābāto jam kon/

“Get your stuff”
There are many kinds of stuff, but since they do not exist in the target culture, the subtitler has decided to use hyponymy strategy by replacing this culture-specific term with a more general term.

2.1.2. Other

“محرم و رمضان و صفر سرت تعطيل”

/moharramo ramezuno safar serghat ta’tileh/

“No stealing in the holly months”

Since the Arabic months “محرم” [moharram], “رمضان” [ramezān] and “صفر” [safar] might be unknown to target language viewers, the subtitler chose not to retain the names of these months and instead s/he employed a more general term to render them.

2.2. Substitution

There are 24 instances of paraphrase and 2 instances of cultural substitution strategy in this movie.

2.2.1. Paraphrase

“من نميخوام برغدم تو أون خرابشده”

/man nemikhām bargardam tu un kharāb-shodeh/

“I don’t wanna go back to that hell-hole”

In this example, the subtitler substitutes the SL word “خرابشده” [kharāb-shodeh] with the word “Hell-hole” which means a very unpleasant place. Not only the TL word conveys the same sense as does the SL word, but also it carries the same semantic loads.

2.2.2. Cultural

“قربوتن برم”

/ghorbunet beram/

“my angel”
Since the SL word “ﻗﺮﺑﻮﻥﺘﺖ بﺮﻡ” cannot be translated literally, the subtitler has correctly decided to substitute the cultural word “my angel” for it that makes the same effect on the TL audience.

2.3. Omission

There are 8 instances omission strategy which some of them are as follows:

1) “ﺍﻻﻥ ﺳﻮﺳﮑﺸﻮﻥ ﻣﯽ ﮐﻨﻴﻢ”

/الان سوسکشون مي كينم/

The SL word “ﺍﻻﻥ ﺳﻮﺳﮑﺸﻮﻥ ﻣﯽ ﮐﻨﻴﻢ” is left untranslated which may be due to the subtitling constraints that force the subtitler to omit it in order to shorten the TL utterance.

2) “ﻥﺎﻡﻮﺱ”

/ناموس/

The subtitler has left the SL word “ﻥﺎﻡﻮﺱ” untranslated which may be due to his or her inability to find an appropriate Persian equivalent for it.

5. DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

Frequency of the Employed Strategies by the Translators

So far, some of the examples of culture-bound elements have been mentioned. In the following section, the frequency of each strategy will be tabulated in order to show which strategy has the highest potential for conveying the intended meaning.

In doing so, first two tables are presented to show the number of different strategies of translation according to Pedersen’s model, then the frequency of the strategies used by translators for rendering culture-specific items will be shown in four charts, and finally After the indication of the frequency of the strategies employed by translators, the percentage of the overall employed strategies are shown in a pie chart.

Table 2. Number of different categories of SL oriented strategies that appeared in a segregation
Table 3. Number of different categories of TL oriented strategies that appeared in a segregation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies Title</th>
<th>Generalization</th>
<th>Substitution</th>
<th>Omission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hyponymy</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A segregation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chart 1: Frequency of the employed strategies in *a segregation*
Chart 2: Percentage of the overall employed strategies in a segregation

Chart 3: Frequency of the overall six major strategies in a segregation
6. DISCUSSION

Strategies Adopted For Rendering Culture-bound Elements

There were 77 instances of culture-specific elements in this film. As it was clear in most of the examples, the most common strategy adopted by the subtitlers of this film was paraphrase.

As it was stated earlier, the data of this study were elicited from descriptive analysis of some of the instances of culture-bound terms and were examined against six major translation strategies proposed by Pedersen, namely (1) Retention, (2) Specification, (3) Direct Translation, (4) Generalization, (5) Substitution, and (6) Omission; The first three strategies are source language oriented while the other three strategies are target language oriented.

There were 36 instances of SL oriented strategies and 41 instances of TL oriented strategies to render culture-specific elements in this film.

7. CONCLUSION

As the results showed substitution strategy and more specifically paraphrase with sense transfer which is employed 26 times by the subtitlers in this film, is the most common strategy to render cultural elements in subtitling. Since most of the Persian culture-bound elements do not exist in target culture, the subtitler preferred to replace them with some sort of paraphrase which does not necessarily involves a target culture-bound term in order to transfer the intended meaning. Although paraphrase is used frequently in subtitling, it has its shortcomings; for instance there is conflicting nature between subtitling and paraphrase, because paraphrase involves replacing one
SL cultural term with a TL phrase or sentence that conveys the same sense while subtitling is a condensed form of translation in which parts of the original dialogue are usually omitted.

The next most common strategy is direct translation which is used 16 times. As the chart 1 showed, 9 instances out of these 16 instances belong to calque which is the second most frequently used strategy after paraphrase.

The next strategy which consists of 11 instances is retention strategy. 8 instances of this strategy are either marked or unmarked complete retention and the other 3 instances are TL adjust retention.

The next strategy is specification which includes 9 instances that can be further divided into 6 instances of explicitation and only 3 instances of addition strategy.

The next strategy which is used 8 times is omission. One of the reasons of employing this strategy may be due to the subtitling constraints.

As it was shown in charts 1 and 4, generalization strategy and more specifically hyponymy which is adopted only 3 times in this film is the least common strategy for rendering culture-bound elements in subtitling.

**Acknowledgement**

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**Reference**


The Noble Quran: A Critical Evaluation of Al-Hilali and Khan’s Translation

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Abstract: This paper aims to critically evaluate Al-Hilali and Khan’s translation of the Holy Quran on several levels of linguistic and non-linguistic analysis. Although the study covers the whole work, the data consists of 261 instances which markedly diverge from normal English usage. The results indicate that the translation is replete with errors grammatically, lexically, stylistically, and discoursally. The errors are due to language transfer, overgeneralizations, ignorance of rule restrictions, and language/faith loyalty. The main conclusion is that while the translators tried very hard to present a factually accurate and linguistically faithful translation into English, the end product was too literal and so of no good practical value. The English is not only weak and awkward but also repels the reader from the text, thus discouraging him to carry on the joy of reading and learning.

Keywords: Quranic translation, Al-Hilali and Khan’s Translation, language errors, translation evaluation

0. Introduction

The translation of the Holy Quran is a very interesting subject to scholars and laymen alike. Apart from being an academic subject, it also shows how far Islam has spread in the world, whether people from different languages are keen to know about it, and how well they receive it. All this depends very much on the quality of translations of the Quran that are available in their native tongues, which need to be accurate, precise, and appropriate. Hence the importance of Quranic translation evaluation. This subject has drawn the interest of scholars from around the world who gathered in a symposium on Quranic translation held by King Fahd Complex for Printing the Holy Quran in Madina, KSA from 23-25 April 2002. Sixty-three papers were presented on various translations in a good many major languages of the world in all continents such as English, French, German, Spanish, Chinese, Persian, Malay and so on.

This paper considers one of the most widespread interpretations and translations of the meanings of the Holy Quran into English with the intention of improving on such a translation so that readers understand and enjoy them better. The work was co-translated by Dr Muhammad Taqi-ud-Din Al-Hilali, formerly Professor of Islamic Faith and Teachings at the Islamic
University, Al-Madinah Al-Munawwarah, KSA, and Dr Muhammad Muhsin Khan, formerly Director of University Hospital, Al-Madinah Al-Munawwarah, KSA. The translation went through several editions by different publishers in several countries. It was first published in Istanbul, Turkey in 1974 and then in the USA (Al-Hilali and Khan 1994: vii). This earlier edition was later removed from circulation and replaced by their newer 2000-page edition in Riyadh, KSA, which went through several editions and reprints (Al-Hilali and Khan 1994: vii). The translation, which has forewords and laudatory comments by professors at the Islamic University, Al-Madinah, comes in two forms: a shorter one-volume translation and an expanded 9-volume one. The full title of the former is *Interpretation of the Meanings of the Noble Qur’an in the English Language: A Summarized Version of At-Tabari, Al-Qurtubi and Ibn Katheer with Comments from Sahih Al-Bukhari Summarized in One Volume*.

Another edition was published by King Fahd Complex for the Printing of the Holy Quran under the title *The Noble Quran: English Translation of the Meanings and Commentary*. This work contains around 856 pages of text translation in addition to three appendices: a) a 32-page-long glossary of terms, b) topics, and c) index of topics. It also has a foreword and an attestation by the Saudi Minister of Islamic Affairs and the General President of Scientific Research Departments. Although this work was revised by a panel of four PhD holders, it can be safely said that the changes made therein were few and non-substantial. The main text is, therefore, not different in any way from the above-said Dar-us-Salam’s. The last edition will be used for the analysis below.

The remainder of this paper is organized several sections as follows: a) grammatical aspects including morphology, syntax and vocabulary, b) style, c) discourse, d) translation writing mechanics, e) typography, f) comparative assessment with similar translations, g) public evaluation, and h) conclusion.

1. **Research Methodology**

1.1 **The Sample**

Sampling is very controversial and vexing in applied studies (see Jassem 1993a, 1994a, 1994b for further detail). In this study, the whole text of the above-said King Fahd Complex edition constitutes the sample of the analysis. Nonetheless, this is not to say that every potential case was cited as it is a huge task which falls beyond the scope of one or two papers. In fact each aspect of the following analysis can be undertaken for further research on its own. For practical reasons, therefore, the sample consisted of 261 instances.

1.2 **Data Collection**

The study extended over a long period of time with two main phases. The first stage started and lasted for a month or so in 1998 in London when the author was on academic leave.
there. Initially, the whole translation was thoroughly read for enlightenment, enjoyment and enrichment first and foremost. Thus there was no intention of assessing it analytically. However, as many problems were noted during the reading process, erroneous examples were noted down on separate sheets of paper by citing the verse or ayat text along with surah, verse and page numbers. In addition, brief comments were made on each error, naming the linguistic type of the problem alongside each case. This accidentally developed into further linguistic analysis later.

The next stage came after a long 4-year hibernation period. More precisely, it set off from around mid-till-end-of April 2002 in Buraida, Saudi Arabia during which three drafts were made. The first draft concerned typing the material into computer files, the second and third being revisions and further revisions. The main concern of this stage was to sort out the examples by category into grammatical, stylistic, lexical, and discourse. This was easy to do by collecting similar problems under one main category.

The third step was describing and analysing the examples linguistically more precisely. Each case was explained as to what was wrong with it and compared with other similar cases in the same text, if any. In most cases, this proved straightforward although certain examples were amenable to more than one interpretation as they involved more than one error.

The fourth step was to compare the translation with other translations such as Ali’s in certain respects. This was done on a limited scale, though, and was confined to those cases, which were very vaguely rendered in the translation. Finally, some global evaluation of the translation was made by eliciting certain people’s views about it. The evaluation was carried out at various points in late 2001 and early 2002.

1.3 Data Analysis

The data will be analysed subjectively or qualitatively in the main. That is, the examples will be described by category as grammatical, lexical, stylistic, explaining the type of error therein, and suggesting their correct substitutes.

In addition, a quantitative analysis of the data will be employed, using frequency and percentage scores. Quantifying the data makes it comparatively simpler, swifter, and more inclusive for the reader to have a global outlook onto general patterns and tendencies.

2. The Results: Grammatical Aspects

These refer to the use of morphology, syntax, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. In this section, only the first three will be described; the last two in another section.

2.1 Morphology
Morphology refers to the use of forms such as the singular and plural, derivation and word building (Stageberg 2005; Jassem 2004). In general, the morphological side of the translation is good save for three derivational errors. These included:

i) In *17:21 (371), …greater in preferment. **(cf. preference)

ii) In 20:27 (416), And loose the knot from my …(cf. loosen)

iii) In 76:28 (805), …made them of strong built. (cf. build)

*Notes: Reference to surah/chapter number, verse/ayat number, and page number in that order

**Suggested alternative bracketed

2.2 Syntax

Syntax refers to sentence structure, article use, parts of speech, relative pronouns, prepositions and so on (see (Stageberg 2005; Jassem 2004). In general, the grammatical side of the translation is riddled with various types of errors. A full list of erroneous use is given below.

2.2.1 Articles: Definite “the” and Indefinite "a/an"

Both the definite and indefinite articles are erroneously employed in certain places. These errors fall into three categories: a) missing, b) additional, and c) inconsistent.

2.2.1.1 Missing

In the following examples, the definite article is missing (marked ##), which must be inserted.

i) In 2:1 (1-fn), ## English language

ii) In 2:04 (44) who is ## most quarrelsome of the opponents

iii) In 39:22 (621), ..against ## remembrance of Allah.

iv) In 5:106 (166), We shall not hide ## Testimony of Allah.

2.2.2.2 Additional

In the following examples, the articles (all underlined here) should be deleted.

i) In 3:117 (90): the Christ

ii) In 11:73 (296), O the family [ of Ibrahim]

iii) In 12:8 (305), ..in a plain error

iv) In 26:97 (..), …in a manifest error:

v) In 36:59 (593), …in the Islamic Monotheism
vi) In 39:32 (623), ..and the Islamic Monotheism
vii) In 42:7 (652), warn the Mother of the Towns.
viii) In 49:7 (699), ..endeared the Faith to you.
ix) In 49:17 (701),... guided you to the Faith.
x) In 59:20 (752), … the dwellers of the Fire ... the dwellers of the Paradise.
xi) In 77:20 (806), Did we not create you from a despised water (semen)?
xii) In 6:121 (190), …at the time of the slaughtering of the animal (cf. deleting the & of)

2.2.2.3 Inconsistent

This means that the use of the articles is haphazard, sometimes used, sometimes not although the same context is involved. None should be used anyway. Here are the examples.

i) In 12:8 (305), ..in a plain error
ii) In 12:30 (307), … in # plain error
iii) In 26:97 (..), …in a manifest error
iv) In 49:7 (699), ..endeared the Faith to you.
v) In 49:11 (699),….after having # Faith.
vi) In 49:14 (700), ..for # Faith has not yet.
vii) In 49:17 (701),... guided you to the Faith.
N.B.: # indicates place of missing article; Underlined element indicates error .

2.2.2 Prepositions

On the whole, prepositions are employed well. However, a few instances of erratic prepositions were noted which can be classified as a) substitutive (preposition replacing another), b) additional (preposition not needed), c) inconsistent (incorrect fluctuation between forms), and d) literal (direct translation from the original). Listed below are some examples.

2.2.2.1 Substitutive

This concerns using one preposition in place of another as in the following examples.

i) In 1:7 (2), in the bottom of the valley: (cf. at)
ii) In 4:12 (108), In that which your wives leave, your share is a half…
    (This can be better reworded by postposing the prepositional phrase; otherwise, “As to…” should be used instead.
iii) In 10:22 (273), ... till when you are in the ships... (cf. “aboard, on”).
iv) In 23:75 (462), And though we… : (cf. if)
2.2.2.2 Additional

This means there is no need for the preposition in this place as is shown below. Thus, deleting it is recommended.

i) In 11:62 (295), …you have been amongst us as a Figure of good hope.
ii) In 41:12 (643), … finished from their creation.
iii) In 52:18 (714), Enjoying in that which.
iv) In 100:1 (846), By the (steeds) that run, with panting.

2.2.2.3 Inconsistent

This shows a fluctuation between using and not using the same preposition in the same place as in the examples below.

i) In 59:22 (753), He is Allah, beside whom…
ii) In 60:4 (754), … you worship besides Allah. (cf. beside)
iii) In 67:20 (773), Who is he besides the Most Gracious that .. (cf. beside)

2.2.2.4 Literal

This is a direct copy from the Arabic original, which does not suit English style. Either deleting the preposition or rewording the text is recommended in the following.

i) In 6:34 (174), …; till our help reached
ii) In 7:84 (212), And We rained down on them a rain..
iii) In 7:57 (209), Till when they have.., We …
iv) In 9:98 (261), …on them be the calamity of evil.
v) In 11:34 (291), …even if…. if..
vi) In 41:12 (643), ..finished from their creation.
vii) In 46:13 (683), On them shall be no fear, nor…
viii) In 52:18 (714), Enjoying in that which.

2.2.3 Conjunctions

Few erroneous instances were recorded, including:
i) In 6:50 (176), I but follow. (cf. only)

ii) In 76:31 (855), He will admit into His Mercy whom He wills and as for the Zalimun ... (cf. but)

Indeed, the most common conjunction being erroneously utilized was “and”, which is described in further detail below (2.6.4.1).

2.2.4 Comparison

In general, comparison is dealt with efficiently albeit with some exceptions as in the following two examples.

i) In 11:95 (299), ..So away with Madyan as away with Thamud (cf. So away be it with …. as it was with….)

ii) In 4:172 (140), …who are the near (to Allah). (cf. nearest)

2.2.5 Exclamation

One problematic example was noted which is

i) In 3:159 (97): And by the Mercy of Allah, you dealt with them gently (cf. How mercifully, thanks to Allah, you….)

2.2.6 Relative Pronouns

Some relative pronouns were confused with personal pronouns and vice versa (see below); others were improperly deleted; still others unnecessarily added. The following examples illustrate that.

2.2.6.1 Substitutive

Here relative pronouns are mixed up with personal pronouns as is shown below.

i) In 3:167(100), And that He might test the hypocrites, it was said to them (cf. for whom it was said)

ii) In 5:27 (147), …sacrifice, it… (cf. which)

iii) In 7:46 (207), …, ## they will call out. (No proper links; replace “they” by “who”.)

iv) In 17:64 (377), And befool them gradually those whom you can among them with your voice…(cf. rewording as it’s very confusing)

v) In 22:20 (445), With it will melt (cf. which)

vi) In 36:71 (595), ..the cattle, so that they are their owners (cf. which they own)

vii) In 50:45 (706), But warn by the Quran; him who fears My Threat (cf. the one/those who)

viii) In 54:34 (725), ..except the family of Lut (Lot), them We saved. (cf. whom)

ix) In 66:8 (769), ..The Day that Allah..(cf. when)
2.2.6.2 Deleted

In the following examples, the relative pronouns are deleted for no reason.

i) In 5:54 (153), …Allah will bring a people whom He will love and they will love Him; ## humble towards the believers, stern towards ..
   (There is no linkage between both sentences; “who” may be inserted to achieve that.)

ii) In 6:9 (170), We would have certainly confused them in ## which they are…(cf. inserting that)

iii) In 6:71 (180), …, ## his companion calling him
    (No link with preceding; better use “where his…”)

iv) In 7:38 (206), … the Fire. ## The last of them will say..
    (Again no good links between both. Use “where” to link.)

2.2.6.3 Additional

In the following example, the relative pronoun is not needed.

i) In 9:40 (251), …while the Word of Allah that became the uppermost. (cf. deleting that)

2.2.7 Pronouns

There are several problems with pronominal usage. These involve substituting one form for another such as subject and object, possessive adjective and pronoun, and misplacement (i.e., fronting or preposing as in “me and you”). Here are some examples.

i) In 4:35(113), …one from his family and one from her’s (cf. hers)

ii) In 16:53 (354), And whatever of blessings…, it is from Allah. (cf. they)

iii) In 16:71 (357ffn), except you and I (cf. me)

iv) In 40:82 (641), …than them.. (cf. they are)

v) In 41:15 (644), ..mightier than us in strength. (cf. we are)

vi) In 48:29 (697), .. The mark of them…(cf. their mark)

vii) In 74:31 (797), ..but He. (cf. Him)

viii) In 90:20 (837fn), except he himself. (cf. him(self))

ix) In 6:19 (171), …between me and you. (cf. you and me)

2.2.8 Count/Non-count Nouns

Several erroneous cases were noted in count (singular and plural) versus non-count (often singular) nouns which relate to substituting one for another as in the following examples.

i) In 4:94 (125), …There are much more profits..(cf. many)
ii) In 9:108 (26), … water from urine and stools (cf. stool)
iii) In 29:51 ( fn), ..with many worldly pleasures, (cf. pleasures)
iv) In 67:8 (771), …its keeper will ask. (cf. keepers)
v) In 67:15 (772), ..so walk in the path. (cf. paths)
vi) In 68:1 (774), These letters are one of the miracles. (cf. some)
vii) In 6:21 (172), evidences…(cf. deleting -s)
viii) In 8:65/66 (240), …two hundreds. (cf. deleting -s.)

2.2.9 Adjectives as Nouns

Only one case was recorded in which the adjective was incorrectly used as a noun, which was:
i) In 16:112 (364), …made it taste extreme of hunger (cf. deleting “of” or placing it after “taste”)

2.2.10 There

One erroneous “there” was recorded in a footnote, which was:
i) In 105:5 (850-fn), Then there took place negotiations between…(cf. “Then negotiations took place between..”)

2.2.11 Subjunctive

Four problematic cases were noted down in this respect, three of which involved missing “be”. These were:
i) In 10:18 (272), Glorified … is He above (cf. be)
ii) In 10:68 (28), Glory is to Him. (cf. be)
iii) In 8:60 (239), And whatever you shall… shall.. (cf. unEnglish shall)
iv) In 11:95 (299), .. So away ## with Madyan as away ## with Thamud (cf. inserting be it ; also cf. above)

2.2.12 Questions

There were some problems with questions and statements being confused with one another. These involved wh-clauses and wh-questions.

2.2.12.1 Wh-clauses

In wh-clauses or subordinate clauses, subject-verb inversion was improperly used as these cases are not direct wh-questions. Statements should be used instead. The following examples were isolated.
In all of the above, the underlined elements must be moved to end position alongside of removing the question marks.

2.2.12.2 Wh-Questions: Missing Auxiliary

In the following examples, questions were not properly inverted. More precisely, the auxiliary verb is missing, which implies that the whole question should be reworded.

i) In 68:36 (777), How ## judge you? (cf. inserting do and preposing you)

ii) In 74:31 (797), What ## Allah intends by this (curious) example? (cf. inserting does, removing unterlined –s)

2.2.13 Verbless

In a few sentences, subjects were found without appropriate verbs, which is unacceptable in English as in the following examples:

i) In 11:95 (299), ..So away ## with Madyan as away ## with Thamud (cf. inserting “be it---it was” as lacking both subject and verb; also cf. 2.2.4 above)

ii) In 16:32 (351), Those whose lives the angels take ## while they are in a pious state...

iii) In 16:28 (351), Those whose lives the angels take ## while they are doing wrong to themselves

iv) In 25:17 (480), …these ## my slaves.

v) In 42:15 (654), For us our deeds ## and for you your deeds ##.

In all, verbs are lacking. In the last example, the verbs “belong, are” may be used.

2.2.14 Subjectless

Five cases were without subjects, where the verb was improperly fronted and the actual subject backed. These were the following:
2.2.14.1 Missing

In the following examples, there are no subjects, where appropriate ones must be inserted.

i) In 6:108 (188), Later on when ## came to me. (cf. inserting he)
ii) In 46:13 (683), On them shall be no fear, nor… (cf. There shall be neither fear on them nor …

2.2.15 VSO versus SVO Pattern

Arabic has a VSO (verb-subject-object) pattern whilst English has an SVO (subject-verb-object) pattern. In the three examples below, the translation is too literal, using Arabic VSO (verb-subject-object) pattern; therefore, they must be reworded to fit English SVO (subject-verb-object) pattern.

i) In 21:1 (429), ## Draws near for mankind their reckoning
ii) In 21:2 (429), ## Comes not unto them an admonition
iii) In 50:12 (702), ## Denied before them the people of Nuh,

## indicates missing subject position whereas the underlined actual subject.

2.2.16 Objectless

One case was noted, which was:

i) In 40:82 (641), ..yet all they.. availed them not. (cf. nought)

2.2.17 Passive

Two wrong cases of passivization were isolated, which were:

i) In 85:4 (826), … (to be bring)… (cf. brought)
ii) In 102:5 (848), … you would not have been occupied yourselves in.. (cf. deleting been)

2.2.18 Statistical Summary of Data

In the following table a statistical summary of the above grammatical data is given.
Table 1. Grammatical Data Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>Derivational</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>03.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20.35</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18.58</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>01.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>01.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exclamation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00.88</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relative Pronouns</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.93</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Pronouns</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>07.96</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Count/Non-Count</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>07.08</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjectives</td>
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<td>00.88</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Dummy “There”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00.88</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>03.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>09.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in the table, almost all errors are syntactical in type, which cover all grammatical categories. Most such errors, however, are in article use and prepositions, followed by pronouns, and then questions.

Although the list is not inclusive in the sense that not every eligible instance was incorporated into the study which leaves ample scope for further work to be done here, one notices, nonetheless, that adverbs are missing in the analysis. It is very strange that no such instances were elicited or employed. Why?

The reason is that an accurate usage of English adverbs is synonymous with a sound overall control of its grammar and style. The inability of the translators to use it is indicative of their unawareness as to how useful and common adverbs are in English. Indeed, adverb use is one area, which can distinguish between Arabic and English very well. In other words, English relies far too much on adverbs than Arabic does. It can even be safely said that Arabic stands diametrically opposed to English in this connection. Therefore, revising this translation should take this fact into account. Hence the need for more adverbs in the translation especially in those constructions which require an identical verb-noun pattern (i.e., verb and its derived noun as in “to plot a plot” (مَكَرَوْا مَكْرًا، يَكِيدُونَ كِيدًا) in Arabic but verb-adverb pattern in English such as “designed a plot”.

Another device of fluent academic English is passive voice use. As only two erroneous instances were elicited, this area merits further research in its own right. This becomes more especially relevant as the Holy Quran is full of “Arabic” passive constructions.
2.3 Vocabulary

This concerns words, their use and selection in the translation. The main features fall into the following categories.

2.3.1 Ordinary

The lexical items used in the translation are, in general, of the ordinary type, which implies that the text is readily comprehensible. However, there are a few exceptions. Some words are archaic or too technical; more precisely, only one such instance (in italic below) occurred in the whole translation in a footnote to verse 2:139 (28): viz., “his feet used to become edematous or swollen”. The word is explained by the subsequent synonym “swollen”, though. Others are exotic such as infrequent words, which are very rarely used. For example, in 5:89 (161), “… or manumit, a slave”.

2.3.2 Imprecise

Many words were rendered imprecisely. That is, they were not given their true equivalents, thus leading to imbalanced equivalence. For example, in

i) In 2:148 (30), the word “alkhairaat” is “good” as in (Hasten towards all that is good).

ii) In 2:237 (52), “AlfaDl” is “liberality” as in (And do not forget liberality between yourselves.) It’s worth noting that Ali made the same rendering, hence the influence.

iii) In 4:46 (116), “wasma3 wanDhurna” is (Do make us understand).

iv) In 4:146 (134), “waaSli2oo” is (do righteous good deeds) for which “mend your deeds” would be better.

v) In 6:64 (179), “worship besides Him” (bihi tushrikoon). “beside” should be used instead.

vi) In 6:81 (182), “…you have joined in worship with Allah things for which (cf. partners, objects)

vii) In 7:130 (218), “wanaqSin mina ath-thamaraat” is (shortness of fruits), which is the same as in Ali’s. “Shortage” should be used instead.

viii) In 9:100 (262) “was-sabiqoon al-awwaloon” (And the foremost to embrace Islam…) cf. Ali.

ix) In 10:61 (278), “wa ma takunu fi sha?n” is (Neither you (O Muhammad) will do any deed…) In Ali’s, “whatever …”

x) In 11:99 (300), “wa bi?sa ar-rifdu-l-marfood” is (Evil indeed is the gift gifted [i.e., the curse in this world) pursued by another curse (in the Hereafter)]. Cf. Ali.

xi) In 17:21 (371), “in preferment” for “in preference”.

xii) In 39:75 (629), “wa qaDa bainahum bil2aq” (..will be judged with truth.) “justice” is more appropriate.
xiii) In 66:4 (768), “in tatooba ila Allahi, faqad Saghat quloobuluma” (If you two… turn in repentance to Allah, (….), your hearts are indeed so inclined) in which the meaning is being confused.

xiv) In 66:8 (769) “The Day that…” should be “…when”.

xv) In 67:5:6 (771), use of “and” for “moreover, in addition”

xvi) In 68:1 (774), “These letters are one..” should be “..were ones/some”.

xvii) In 69:44 (782), “And if he …fought” should be “moreover”.

xviii) In 114:6 (856), “Of jinn and men” should be “from….”

2.3.3 Literal

Many words were translated verbatim without any consideration to the target language structure; for example,

i) In 6:19 (183), “qaddarahu taqdeera” (estimate … with an estimation).

ii) In 7:84 (212), (And We rained down on them a rain of stones). “sent down” would be better.

iii) In 18:70 (396), “..2atta u2ditha laka minhu dhikr” is (…ask me not about anything till I myself mention of it to you.)

iv) In 22:74 (454), “wa ma qadaru Allaha 2aqqa qadrihi” is (They have not estimated Allah His Rightful Estimate.)

v) In 71:22 (789), “And they have plotted a mighty plot” should be “devised”.

vi) In 74:6 (796), “wala tamnun tastakhthir” (And give not a thing in order to have more (or consider not your deeds of obedience to Allah as a favour to Him.) cf. Ali.

All uses of “and” in the translation fall under this category, which is described in detail below (2.6.4.1). (Also see 2.5.1 below.)

2.3.4 Repetitive

Repetition is very common on a lexical scale, which makes style very awkward. Deleting or re-wording such occurrences is more appropriate. Here are some examples;

i) In 16:16 (355), “…neither can they delay nor can they advance it an hour.”

ii) In 20:121 (426), “…began to cover themselves with the leaves of Paradise for their covering.”

iii) In 48:10 (694), “Then whosoever breaks his pledge, breaks only to his own harm.” It would be better to say “he does so…”.

iv) In 49:2 (698), “…nor speak aloud to him, talk as you speak aloud to one another.”

v) In 58:5 (746), “…will be disgraced, as those… were disgraced.”

vi) In 69:14 (781), “…and crushed with a single crushing” should be “blow, jerk, once”.

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As can be seen from the examples, all spring from being literal in translating as referred to in (2.3.3 above).

2.3.5 Redundant

This refers to circumlocution which is obvious in using too long, periphrastic expressions. Sometimes several words are used for one word. Shorter equivalents are more preferable, though. For instance,

i) In 2:255 (57), “Alqayyoom” is (the One Who sustains and protects all that exists).

ii) In 4:141 (132), “alam nasta2widh 3alaikum” is (Did we not gain mastery over you?)

iii) In 4:153 (135), “albayyinaat” is (clear proofs, evidences and signs).

iv) In 6:142 (194), “2umulatan wa farshan” is “cattle” as in (And of the cattle (are some) for burden (like camels) and (some are) small (unable to carry burden like sheep and goats- for food, meat, milk, and wool.) In Ali’s, “for burden and meat” is used.

v) In 23:77 (462), “mublisoon” is (with deep regrets, sorrows and in despair).

2.3.6 Arabisms

Arabisms are Arabic loan words which occur in text in the form of transliteration. There are hundreds of such words that are kept in their Arabic original forms. These were transliterated into English, using, in addition to Romanized alphabet, strange diacritics that most English people don’t know how to read. However, a glossary was given at the end of the translation (Appendix 1: 859-90), which listed most such transliterations in the text. Loans are given in italic form first, followed by Arabic spelling in brackets, followed by an explanation of each term. It is noteworthy that the glossary is not limited to transliterated words in the translation; in fact, it contains hundreds that are not. So it is an all-purpose glossary meant to introduce the reader to certain concepts associated with such terms as well as others.

The authors did not justify why they used so many transliterations in text. However, in a footnote to ayat or verse 26:2 (7) concerning the word “Al-Fasiqun” (the rebellious, disobedient to Allah), they noted: “We have retained this peculiar English construction in order to capture the Arabic idiom here.” Other Arabic idioms were already used in text for which no justification was made such as “Al-Alamin” of 1:2 (1). The “Al-Fasiqun” is not included in the glossary, though.

Transliteration may be harmful and damaging to the text which may produce an awkwardly boring and unintelligible text as far as the reader is concerned. As most such words have real and/or potential equivalents, transliteration should be confined to proper names only; all else should be given their nearest English equivalents (see Jassem 1996b). This is because a text needs to respond to the reader and his needs. If necessary, these must be kept to a minimum. Islamic scholars writing in English have already suggested such lists; for example, Faruqi (1986)
tried to standardize certain terms in English by listing transliterations of 60 common terms (see Jassem and Jassem (1995b, 1996a, 1997) for full detail).

2.3.7 Additions

In too many places insertions and interpolations were unnecessarily added in text, thus making it too lengthy, dull and boring (see 2.6.3 below). Indeed, such are a common feature of the translation whose place must be in the footnotes rather than in text. For example,

i) In 6:142 (194), “2umulatan wa farshan” is “cattle” as in (And of the cattle (are some) for burden (like camels) and (some are) small (unable to carry burden like sheep and goats- for food, meat, milk, and wool.) In Ali’s, “for burden and meat” is used. (Also see 2.3.5 above.)

In contrast, in certain cases there were omissions. Only one instance was noted

ii) in 69:19 (781), (Here ##! Read my book.) It should be “Here you are!”

2.3.8 Inconsistent

Certain recurrent words were variably rendered although they had the same meaning. For instance,

i) In 2:225 (49) “la yuakhidhkum” is (…will not call you to account for…) versus

ii) In 2:286 (67) “la tuakhidhna” is (punish us not).

iii) In 42:43 (658), “inna dhalika min 3azmi-l-umoor” is (…that would truly be from the things recommended by Allah.) versus

iv) In 3:186 (103) … (affairs of great resolution).

There are many similar such items in the text.

2.3.9 Statistical Summary

Below is a summary of the lexical data in statistical form.

Table 2. Lexical Data Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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As can be seen from the table, only 45 errors were listed, about half of which fall into the “non-equivalence” or “imprecision” type. Furthermore, “Arabisms” are much more numerous than the figure indicates. In general, the entire vocabulary is of the ordinary type, which means that the cases cited are for technical and exotic words. Again, the list does not cover all eligible cases.

2.4 Translation Mechanics

Translation mechanics refer to purely mechanical writing customs such as spelling, capitalization and punctuation marks. On the whole, they were dealt with well in text. However, certain errors remained as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexis</th>
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<th>04.44</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Redundant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabisms</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>04.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>02.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deletions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inconsistent</td>
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<td>08.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.4.1 Spelling

The use of spelling in the translation is, in general, very good except for a few misprints and/or errors. The misprints include:

a) running two words together, as in: “inspite” (2:75 15), “infront of” (57:22 (742fn),

b) adding or doubling prefixes such as “in incumbent” (2:191 (40fn),

c) misprints such as “Messanger” (6:20 (172), “degrace” (11: 78 (297),

d) splitting the same word into two such as “may be” (12:21 (306) and 12:83 (315) and fair-seeming (6:43(175)), and

e) capitalization instead of small letter use as in “And after!” (10:10 (271); Then 10:23 (273); Paper 20:133 (428).

There is also weird spelling where biblical names are not given in their English forms first such as Noah (Nuh), Moses (Mosa), Jesus (Isa), Joseph (Yusuf). It is important to spell proper names as is commonly done in English to facilitate understanding. Indeed, the translators gave both forms side by side. But is it useful to do so every time the name occurs?

2.4.2 Capitalization

Capitalization is tackled correctly. However, it is often misplaced in abstract nouns such as “mercy, bounty, monotheism, faith, threat, anger, wrath”, which are usually capitalized. The text is replete with such cases, which make it sound rather German, a language in which all nouns are capitalized. For example,

i) In 39:32 (623), ... and the Islamic Monotheism

ii) In 49:7 (699), … endeared the Faith to you.

(For further examples, see 2.2.1 above.)

2.4.3 Punctuation Marks

Punctuation marks are very important in dividing sentences into appropriate thought groups and pauses to assist the reader in understanding the text more effectively. They are also important for discourse organization. Although, roughly speaking, the punctuation of the text is good, there are certain awkward cases. Here are some examples.

i) In 5:65 (156), lack of comma before “We”.
ii) In 5:109 (166), semicolon should replace comma.

iii) In 8:74 (242), semicolon should replace comma.

iv) In 11:81 (297), semicolon should replace comma before “Verily”.

v) In 18:106 (401), semicolon should be removed before “because”.

vi) In 32:20 (557), semicolon or full stop should replace comma.

vii) In 41:12 (644), comma needed after “Him”, the Almighty.

viii) In 41:35 (647), end bracket to move and place after “world”.

ix) In 46:15 (683), period to be replaced by comma.

x) In 47:15 (689), period needed before “therein”. (Long explanation better placed in footnote.)

xi) In 50:45 (706), semicolon to be removed.

xii) In 67:13 (772), semicolon or full stop to replace comma before “verily”.

xiii) In 114:1 (856), comma needed after “Allah”.

2.4.4 Summary of Mechanical Data

The table below displays the data in statistical summary.

Table 3. Mechanical Data Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing Mechanics</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
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<td>45.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capitalization</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from the table, all errors are in spelling and punctuation. They are small in number, though.

2.5 Style

Style concerns the overall use of language in text; it relates to an overview of the use of grammar and vocabulary in text. The style of the translation is in most cases not without its problems. It neither reflects the majestic grandeur of the Arabic original nor does it imitate the elegance of English. It can be characterized as follows:

2.5.1 Literal

This means that the style closely resembles the Arabic original by placing English words in the same position or order as their Arabic counterparts, an inappropriate procedure in any case. As each language has its structure, the aim of the translator should be to produce an English-English text and not an Arabic-English one, a kind of pidgin English. There are many such examples on this:

i) In 6:91 (187), …estimate … with an estimation

ii) In 26:155 (498), on a day, known

iii) In 32:18 (557), Not equal are they

iv) In 40:58 (638), And not equal are to …

v) In 41:34 (647), between whom and you there was enmity

vi) In 42:13 (653), Intolerable for the Mushrikeen

vii) In 43:38 (664), Would that … a worst type (should be What a worse type!)

viii) In 43:48 (665), And not an Ayat we showed them

ix) In 44:45 (674), Like boiling oil, it will boil.
x) In 46:13 (683), On them shall be no fear, nor...

xi) In 50:12 (702), Denied before them… the people of Noah (verb fronting)

xii) In 52:37 (716), Or are with them the treasures of your Lord

xiii) In 54:34 (725), …Last, them We saved. (should be whom)

xiv) In 59:20 (752), Not equal are the dwellers of the Fire..

xv) In 69:14 (781), … and crushed with a single crushing

xvi) In 69:19 (781), Here I read my Record

xvii) In 71:22 (789), And they have plotted a mighty plot

The solution for such double (verb-noun) repetitions such as “plot a plot”, would be to use an appropriate verb like “devise, make, do” for the first instance and noun or adverb for the second instance. This equals the use of “maf3ool muTlaq” (Absolute Object) in Arabic. It cannot be translated by repeating the verb and its noun as such a structure is not English at all. (Also see 2.3.3 above.)

2.5.2 Repetitive

There are two types of repetition. The first is purely lexical where a word is repeated more than once, which has already been tackled in 2.3.4 above. The second is stylistic where a word or definition/explanation is repeated every time the word is encountered in the text, which makes it seem really awkward. For example,

i) In 8:37 (236), …wicked (disbelievers, polytheists, and doers of evil deeds)…, wicked (disbelievers, polytheists, and doers of evil deeds)…

Repeating such a definition in the same verse is totally meaningless. There are many such instances, which should be avoided in the interests of the needs of the intelligent English reader and his language. (See 2.6.4 below.)

2.5.3 Monotonous

This emanates from repetitive style, which makes it lack variety. It is evident in the use of the same word over and over again. For example, the word “torment” is used for “3athaab” several times although “punishment, chastisement, torture” are readily available.
2.5.4 Digressive and Distractive

This results from inserting countless bracketed explanations inside the translation which interrupt the reader’s speed and comprehension, thus depriving him of much needed focus as in the example in 2.5.2 above. To avoid diverting the attention of the reader, interpolations and insertions may be kept in footnotes.

2.5.5 Sloppy

Although it is easy to understand, using simple grammar, words, and structures creates a text which is far from being literary, esthetic or beautiful. This contributes to the fact the translation may not be taken seriously or given the attention it merits. It may even be “repelling/repulsive” to the readers (see 5 below). Take any example and you will instantly discover that. Thus producing a beautifully structured translation is a must as readers care for beauty and elegance in style and expression. And why not? Isn’t the Quran very beautiful in style besides all else?

2.5.6 Documentative

The Holy Quran is not a history book or a science book where references for further reading and full bibliographical information is given in parentheses whenever and wherever it may be necessary. Rather it is a book of guidance for mankind in straightforward, beautiful, and logical style. Despite all this, the translators tended to document their translation not only in footnotes and appendices but also in the main text. They did this by employing two devices. First, they often utilized cross-referencing to other verses in the text like “See V.2:2 for 9:36 (250) and 9:44 (251)”, for example. In one Surah (no. IX) alone- i.e., “The Repentance IX (243-269)”- eight cross-references were made, three of which appeared on the first page; even more so, two in the same ayat. Here is an example,

i) In 9:4 (243), “Except those of the Mushrikun (see V.2:105) with whom you have a treaty…. Surely Allah loves Al-Muttaqun (the pious- See V.2:2).

The cross-references here are for definitions of the underlined words (originally italic in text). One can only ask here whether cross-referencing was useful in making the text more comprehensible.

Secondly, an italic reference note is given in square brackets at the end of certain verses, which specifies the interpretation source upon which the translation was based. Such a procedure can be called referencing. For example,

i) In 9:94 (261), They (the hypocrites) will present their excuses to you… to do. [Tafsir At-Tabari]
Obviously, the proper place for both cross-referencing and referencing would be in footnotes. Although the footnote procedure is widely used in the translation, it is not systematically followed there. Why mixing up practices then? Consistency is needed everywhere in the text.

2.5.7 Statistical Summary

The table below summarizes style data statistically.

Table 4. Statistical Summary of Style Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<tr>
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<td>All</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table, stylistic errors are not many; all are in the area of literal usage, which shows first language transfer and inability to discern suitable English style. This makes the text un English, and so drives potential readers away from it rather than attracts them closer to it.

2.6 Discourse Aspects

Discourse organisation is closely related to style. In this paper, discourse refers to text structure as a whole. More precisely, it deals with register, length, and the connections and links between sentences in text known as cohesive devices or discourse markers.

2.6.1 Register

One of the major features of discourse is register, which means the special usage of English in text. All languages have their specific registers, for example, legal English, business English, medical English, literary English, etc. In this translation, English is used in a special way as far as words, grammar, and structure are concerned. Such a register may be distinguished by being a) Quranic English, b) Pak(istani)-English, and c) Ar(abic)-English.

2.6.1.1 PakEng-cum-ArEng
As one translator was of Pakistani (and Afghan) origin and education while the other of Arab origin and education, their use of the language is certainly influenced by their respective mother tongues. Many language interferences were due to this fact. For example, most of the errors above such as the use of “the” (2.2.1), repetition (2.3.4, 2.5.2, 2.6.2), literalness (2.3.3) are cases in point. It’s not the respective errors that make it so; rather it’s the sum total of all such errors and non-errors.

2.6.1.2 Quranic-Islamic English

The text uses a special variety of English, which can be termed Quranic English, another subtype of Islamic English (for further detail, see Jassem 1995, 1996; Al-Faruqi 1986). Such a variety can be characterized as the sum total of all the previous features such as the use of Arabic loans or transliterations (2.3.7), the special use of morphology and grammar as shown in the cited examples, and the use of Arabic-modeled discourse. An extreme example of this is a footnote to (3:73 (81fn), concerning “Sifaat Allah” or God’s qualities where Arabic text is followed by the translation. In fact, the whole translation is the main proof of Quranic-Islamic English where parallel texts are used: placing the English translation parallel to the Arabic text of the original.

Quranic English is variable in the sense that its ratio varies from verse to verse. Some verses have higher concentration of Arabisms, others lower, and others none. The following examples are illustrative.

i) In 2:3 (3-4), Who believe in the Ghaib and perform As-Salat (Iqamat-as-Salat), and spend out of what we have provided for them [i.e., give Zakat, spend on themselves, their parents, their children, their wives, etc., and also give charity to the poor and also in Allah’s Cause-Jihad]


Surat Al-Kafirun

(The Disbelievers) CIX

In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful

1. Say: (O Muhammadﷺ to these Mushrikun and Kafirun): “O Al-Kafirun (disbelievers in Allah, in His Oneness, in His Angels, in His Books, in His Messengers, in the Day of Resurrection, and in Al-Qadar.)!

2. “I worship not that you worship,
3. “Nor will worship what I worship.

4. “And I shall not worship that which you are worshipping.

5. “Nor will you worship that which I worship.

6. “To you be your religion, and to me my religion (Islamic Monotheism).”

As can be seen in this text, some verses such as 2-6 are entirely empty of any Arabisms while some are full of them such as 1 above which also has Arabic greeting and blessing of the Prophet.

2.6.2 Repetition

So far repetition has been referred to in several places (2.3.4, 2.5.2) in this paper. With regard to discourse, there is a lot of repetition in the text, which is of two types. One type is supra-clausal or supra-sentential which relates to the repetition of hadith (the sayings of the Prophet) or story several times in the same part. For example, the hadiths in connection with verses 81:27 (819) are repeated in 84:22 (825); 82:10 (820) repeated in 86:4 (829); 82:11 (820) repeated in 86:4 (829); and 88:2 (831) repeated in 81:27 (819), 84:22 (825), and 98:6 (845). Also another hadith is repeated in connection with 1:7 (2) and 2:135 (26) and many others.

The second type is clausal or phrasal repetition which concerns repeating explanations of certain words that are given in transliterated forms of which there are hundreds and hundreds; the same words are given over and over again. For instance, “Al-Alamin” (mankind, jinn and all that exists) in 2:1(1) is repeated wherever this word occurs. The same bracketed interpretation is given which makes it dull and boring for the reader. Sometimes the same explanation is reiterated in the same verse where the same word occurs twice. For example,

i) In 8:37 (236), …wicked (disbelievers, polytheists, and doers of evil deeds), … wicked (disbelievers, polytheists, and doers of evil deeds)…

2.6.3 Length

One aspect of discourse organization is length. Sentences must have appropriate length; otherwise, they become too difficult to keep track of. For this reason, it is not advisable to have sentences that are too lengthy. In such circumstances, breaking them up into more manageable chunks is recommended. The translation has countless lengthy sentences; here are a few examples:

i) In 4:113(128), …and…and….and….and….
(There are too many “and’s” for which other alternatives are needed for better English.)

ii) In 9:74(256), They swear…. Bounty.

(This is too lengthy, which must be broken up into several sentences for better comprehension and cohesion.)

iii) In 11:110 (301), …and, …and

(Using too many sentences in one is clumsy which should be split up. First “And” can be replaced by “in fact” whilst the second can be deleted. In fact, all uses of “and” in such sentences contribute to unwanted lengthy statements.) (Also see 2.6.4.1.1 below.)

iv) In 4:135 (132), O you who believe! Stand out firmly for justice, as witnesses to Allah, even though it be against yourselves, or your parents, or your kin, be he rich or poor, ## Allah is a Better Protector to both (than you)…

(The sentence is too long without good links; the second sentence marked ## does not link with its forerunner. So better divided.)

v) In 5:97 (164) Allah has made the Ka’bah ……everything.

(Again it’s too long; it should be broken into at least two. Make the split before “that”; also replace “that” by “this”..)

vi) In 47:15 (689), The description of Paradise…. Their Lord.

(There are two or more sentences in one here, without suitable links; better split up.)

2.6.4 Discourse Markers

These are sentence links and connectives without which the text will be very difficult to understand. Using appropriate links such as conjunctions (e.g., and, but, or, so) and connectives (e.g., therefore, however, although) is not only a mark of good flow and command of English but also better of cohesion. There are many problems with discourse markers in the text, some of which are listed below along with brief comments.

2.6.4.1 Misusing “And”

The conjunction “and” is misused in the text in three ways: a) one serial, b) one substitutive, and c) one inconsistent. The first concerns using “and” wherever its Arabic counterpart “wa j” is involved, which may not be the case on semantic and contextual grounds.
The second relates to the fact that other conjunctions or connectives might be substituted for it. The last indicates fluctuating and troubled use.

2.6.4.1.1 Serial “And”

Serial “and” is a direct transfer from Arabic in which it is a common feature of Arabic discourse. Indeed, it may be the most commonly used feature to link not only items in a series within a sentence but also sentences together in Arabic or as a transitional marker from one sentence to the next. Any investigation of Arabic discourse, spoken or written, will clearly show this. In contrast, English is intolerable to more than one occurrence of “and” in any one single sentence in general. Moreover, it is totally unacceptable as a transitional marker from sentence to sentence with very, very few exceptions, if any. That is, it is not usually used initially. Below are some examples.

i) In 4:106 (127), And seek the Forgiveness of Allah, certainly, Allah is Ever-forgiving, Most Merciful

ii) In 4:113(128), …and…and….and….and…

(There are too many “and’s” which must be found alternatives for better English.)

iii) In 4:152 (..), And those who believe, We shall give them..

(“And” better substituted for by “As to”.)

iv) In 27:64 (513), ..., and..., and...

(The same holds as in the above: i.e., deleting serial “and”.)

v) In 46:15 (683), ...parents. His mother... And

vi) In 56:18 (734), With cups, and jugs, and a glass of flowing wine.

(Serial “and” again; only second instance to be retained.)

vii) In 67:5 (771), And..., and..., and.

(The same problem with serial “and”.)

viii) In 67:6 (771), And..., and...

(Replace first “and” by “in addition” and delete the second.)

ix) In 69:44 (782), And if he ... had forged.
x) In 5:111 (167), *And we believe. And we bear witness that.*

(Serial “and” again.)

xi) In 6:3 (169), *He knows what … and … and … and*

In the above examples, transitional or initial “and” is used 6 times.

2.6.4.1.2 Substitutive “And”

Substitutive “and” occurs most frequently sentence initially in which case it means something other than its usual meaning. It has to be noted that this usage is very common in Arabic but not in English which uses other more explicit cohesive devices, connectives or transitional phrases such as “moreover, as to, therefore, but, in contrast, unlike.” Here are some examples:

i) In 4:152 (..), *And those who believe, We shall give them.*

(“And” better substituted for by “As to”.)

ii) In 69:44 (782), *And if he … had forged.*

(“And” to be replaced by “moreover”.)

iii) In 76:31 (805), *He will admit to His Mercy whom He wills and as for the Zalimun…*

(Inaccurate use of “and” in place of “but” as contrast is involved.)

iv) In 6:8 (170), *,.. and no respite would be granted to them.*

(Replace “and” by “as”.)

v) In 6:135 (193), *,…, and you will come to know*

(Using “for” more proper.)

2.6.4.1.3 Inconsistent

In certain cases, items in a series or list are sometimes correctly joined and sometimes incorrectly joined, using “and”. Such fluctuation is unacceptable. For example,

i) In 56:18 (734), *With cups, and jugs, and a glass of flowing wine.*
ii) In 75:4 (803), ..*iron chains, iron collars,* and a blazing fire.

(Here “and” is correctly used, which is inconsistent with the above-mentioned serial one.)

2.6.4.2 Deleted Markers

In certain cases, some markers are lacking, leading to sentences that do not cohere or link well. The problem of discourse marker deletion can be most clearly seen in missing relative pronouns as discussed above (2.2.6.2). Here are a few other miscellaneous examples.

i) In 4:106 (127), *And seek the Forgiveness of Allah, certainly, #\# Allah is Ever-forgiving, Most Merciful*

(Inserting “for” before “Allah is certainly…” makes it link better.)

ii) In 4:135 (132), *O you who believe! Stand out firmly for justice, as witnesses to Allah, even though it be against yourselves, or your parents, or your kin, be he rich or poor, #\# Allah is a Better Protector to both (than you)…*

(The sentence is too long without good links; the second sentence marked #\# does not link with its forerunner. So better divided.)

iii) In 5:1 (141), … *Lawful to you... are all the beasts of cattle..., #\# game (also) being unlawful when you assume…*

(No cohesion; use “whereas, while” to link contrasts.)

iv) In 5:2 (141), *But when you finish the Ihram..., you may hunt, and let not the hatred of some people... lead you ..*

(No discourse cohesion; replace “and” by “however” preceded by full stop or semicolon.)

v) In 6:25 (173), … *they will not believe therein; #\# to the point that when…*

(no cohesive links between the sentences; remove semicolon.)

vi) In 6:52 (177), *And turn not away those who invoke their Lord… You are accountable for them in nothing... that you may turn them away, and thus become…*

(No good links; reword as “If you do so, you’ll thus become…”

(Serial “and” again; only second instance to be retained.)
vii) In 6:138 (193) .. And (they say) there are cattle forbidden to be used for burden…; lying against him.

(No cohesion with preceding statement; better reworded.)

viii) In 8:7 (231) And (remember) when… yours; ## you wished

(No good links; replace semicolon by comma.)

ix) In 58:11 (747), .. When you are told to make room, (spread out) make room. ## Allah will give you (ample) room...

(No cohesion; link with “so that, then, etc.” to cohere well.)

2.6.4.3 Statistical Summary of Discourse Data

The following table summarizes the discourse data statistically.

Table 5. Discourse Data Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discourse</td>
<td>Register</td>
<td>NA/All</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quranic English</td>
<td>NA/All</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>42.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As is shown in the table, most errors are in the use of “and”, repetition, deletion, and length in that order. However, the description is not inclusive and is meant as a rough guide. Indeed, the text is replete with many more cases, which could not have been included here. Indeed, concerning “register” and “Quranic English”, for example, the whole text can be characterized thus without any statistical figures.

3. Typography

This refers to purely technical matters like printing form, page layout, space use, and font size. On the whole, typography is in excellent shape with page layout being nicely presented, space being efficiently used with no blank spaces left unused. However, the rest of the translation of verse 33:73 (573) can be easily accommodated on page 572.

As to font size, this is good on the whole. However, a thinner and lighter font size would be more desirable in footnotes for distinguishing them from the main text of the translation.

4. Similarities with Other Translations

As translating the meanings of the Noble Quran is a gigantic task beyond the capability of any single individual, Quran translators have often depended on, and so are indebted to, earlier translations. Most translations acknowledge earlier works; for instance, A. Y. Ali acknowledged his dependence on Pickthall.

In contrast, Al-Hilali and Khan made no acknowledgement of benefiting from earlier translations in the field although a cursory look at their translation shows deep influences and heavy dependency on them. For example, a comparison of their translation with A. Y. Ali’s shows that it is in a great many ayws, the same as Ali’s, the difference being the insertions and interpolations. So it seems that their translation is largely based on Ali’s as can be clearly seen in Chapter 1, “The Opening/Al-Fatiha” (see Jassem and Jassem 2002).

5. Public Evaluation Comments: Measuring Readers’ Attitudes

Translation evaluation is an important reflection of its reception by the scholarly community and the wider public at large. The evaluation can be done at a linguistic level, at an ideological or belief-based level, and/or at a public level. The first two are common in research. An example of the first is the above description of errors in this article; indeed, most studies of Quran translation fall into this category. The second is less so common, an example of which is
discontinuing publishing Ali’s translation by King Fahd Complex due to 50 or so ideological aberrances therein as was noted by one participant at *International Conference on King Fahd 20th Anniversary: His Achievements*; another example is the apathy and rejection of Muslim adherents to adopt non-Muslim translations of the Quran such as Rodwell, Arberry, and Dawood (see Jassem and Jassem 2002).

The last is almost non-existent as far as one can determine although it is widely used in other fields such as psychological and sociolinguistic research (see Jassem (1994a, 1994b, 1994c, 1993a, 1993b). Thus, despite the fact that translation evaluation is alien to Quranic translation, it is necessary to conduct such evaluation from time to time especially when the translation concerned is sponsored and distributed worldwide by the major publishing and printing house in the field, King Fahd Complex. The evaluation will show one the general trend of receiving the translation by the general public: viz., how acceptable it is to them! Also it contributes to decision-making on whether to continue publishing it in the future in the same form, linguistically and stylistically speaking.

The researcher carried out a few interviews in this direction, eliciting the views of some scholars on the subject. These scholars were both native and non-native speakers of English, Arabs and non-Arabs. The evaluation took the form of open-ended discussions without the respondents knowing that their views will be recorded for research purposes. They were frank and spontaneous.

On the whole, the translation was not well received on stylistic and linguistic grounds. For example, Dr William S. Peachy, an American professor of English at College of Medicine, King Saud University at Qasseem, commented: “Nobody likes it except the Saudis who don’t know English, whose native language is not English”. He also said: “It’s repulsive.” This comment is in harmony with what most native English speakers believe it to be. Reporting on the subject, Dr AbdulHalim, Arabic Professor at SOAS, London University, noted that they find it “repelling”, unlike A. Y. Ali’s translation, which is very much respected, perhaps the most respected of all. The Director of King Fahd International Centre for Translation, King Saud University, Riyadh, Dr. A. Al-Muhandis, expressed his dissatisfaction with the translation’s style and language, being too poor and simplistic. Indeed, almost everyone the researcher had a chance to talk to about the subject during the above-named Symposium (over 200 participants from all over the world) held similar views. Sirhani (1998: 7) was an exception, though, who claimed that this translation is the best, but without any substantial evidence.

6. Discussion, Conclusion, and Recommendations

The above description has been a thorough analysis of Al-Hilali and Khan’s translation of the meanings of the Noble Quran on linguistic, stylistic and discourse grounds as well as others. It was found that the translators tried to present a factually accurate and precise interpretation of
the text in a linguistically faithful style in an elegant form and shape typographically speaking. However, the translation suffers from countless weaknesses on all counts of linguistic study, as can be seen in the table below which summarizes all the data analyzed so far in statistical form briefly.

Table 6. Statistical Summary of Linguistic Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Lower Level</td>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lexis</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Level</td>
<td>Style</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>07.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-linguistic</td>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Typography</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the table, the majority of errors are linguistic, which may be lower level or high level. The former are so called as they do not affect text intelligibility while the latter do so. More precisely, grammatical errors account for 168 of the data whereas style and discourse errors amount to 68 errors. Altogether they amount to 236 out of a total of 261.

The major sources of error were many. Language transfer or the interference of first language was a major factor where many of the errors can be attributed to the influence of Arabic or Urdu on English. Another is overgeneralization and/or the ignorance of rule restrictions such as capitalizing all nouns of all types such as proper and abstract ones. A third is the attempt to present a factually and linguistically faithful text which matches the Arabic original very closely. The end result is a weak and awkward text, which repels rather than attracts one.
Thus, for a translation to achieve its universal goals, it should have an elegant, beautiful style, be readily comprehensible, and, consequently, well received. Therefore, in light of the above description and analysis, there is and will always be a need for a translation with a depth in faith and vigour in style. Depth in faith means commitment, sincerity, piety, and sound knowledge; vigour means proper language, eloquent style, a refined sense and flair for good, appropriate, and beautiful structure and discourse. Indeed, factual accuracy depends on linguistic correctness and stylistic appropriacy. In short, the translation needs to be entirely revised.

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The Role of First Language in Learning English as a Foreign Language in Sudan

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Faculty of Education  
Omdurman Islamic University- Sudan

Abstract: The aim of this study is to investigate the role of the first language in learning English as a foreign language in Sudan. The objectives are to find out the difficulties encountered by secondary school students in using English for communication, thus the sound system of both Arabic and English were compared as well as their structures in order to achieve these objectives. Area of investigation is (phonetics) consonants and vowels for English and Arabic. Another one is syntax (grammar rules), it includes verbs, adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, and number. The main findings of the study were that the students faced difficulties in pronouncing sounds which are not found in Arabic, also grammar rules of English were source of confusion to the students, and thus they applied Arabic rules in the sentences they formed.

Introduction

English is the first international language in the present time; it is not linked to a particular culture, it is used as a second or foreign language in different parts of the world. There can be no dispute that English is the language of science and technology, thus the number of English language users increase with the growing needs for the advanced technology. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) describe the period after the end of the Second World War as an “age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role (of international language) fell to English”.

Learning a second or a foreign language is not always productive or useful; one of the main reasons behind this problem may be the mother tongue or the first language interference. “The first language has been considered the major cause of learner's problems with the new language; it interferes in the learner's efforts to acquire a second or a foreign language”. Dulay, Burt, Krashen (1982).

Arabic language as mother tongue or first language for the majority of Sudanese people, interferes while speaking English, this refers to differences between the sound system and structure of Arabic and English in general.
With everyday’s use of technology, English language teaching has become first of priorities especially in the developing countries. “English is now taught in schools in nearly every country in the world. Every piece of knowledge is made available in English. Without knowledge of English, a man or a women starting on a new career is gravely handicapped, with knowledge of English she or he holds the key that will open many doors” Ibid.

This research intends to investigate the mother tongue or Arabic as first Language inference in English language speaking.

**Research problem**

Before 1956 Sudan was a British colony, teachers at that time were English, thus, English was the medium of instructions. After that, all subjects were arabicized, which led to decline of standards in English, not only that, but also lack of trained teachers, syllabus design, and learning environment were all factors that have contributed to the problem of English language speaking in particular, in addition, such students are consumers of information, they are highly social interactive, known as “net generation” or “millennial students”; that the use of technology has become part of their daily life, they use digital technology (laptop computers, mobile phones etc.) for communication or connections through e-mail.

This research tries to investigate the actual problems of learning English as a foreign language that Sudanese secondary school students encounter, trying to find reasons as well as to suggest solutions.

**Aims of the research**

The aim of this research is to reach the actual problems facing Sudanese secondary school students in learning English; and that will be reached by comparing the pronunciation and structure of Arabic language with English language to find out differences that cause these problems and difficulties.

**Research questions**

This research will attempt to answer the following two major questions:

1- What are the differences between sound system and of Arabic and English that cause difficulties facing the students in learning English?

2- What are the differences between the structures of both languages?

**Research methodology**

This research will specify the features and description of the problem that Sudanese secondary school students encounter when they write or speak English, thus, it will be of descriptive and
analytical type. This research is limited to Secondary schools in Sudan. Four schools were chosen from Khartoum town center to make sure that there are no students from language interaction areas, as well as to avoid having students whose mother tongue is not Arabic. Source of data was the students written and oral tests.

**Definition of important terms**

**Mother Tongue**

It is the learner's first language or it is one's native language. In this research the mother tongue is (Sudanese colloquial Arabic).

**Interference**

“Interference has been used to refer to two very distinct linguistic phenomena, one that is essentially psychological and another that is essentially sociolinguistic. The psychological use of the term interference refers to the influence of the old habits when new ones are being learned, where as the sociolinguistic borrowing and language switching that occur when two languages communities are in contact”. Ibid

**Literature review**

Many studies and researches in the field of foreign language learning have shown that first language plays an important role in learning the target language. Douglas (1993) states that the principal barrier to language learning is the interference of the first language system with the second language system, and that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts between them which in turn would enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a learner would encounter, and to describe accurately the two languages in question, to match those two descriptions against each other to determine valid contrasts or differences between them.

Aspects of first language are used while learning a foreign language; this is known as language transfer. Benson (2002) states that transfer occurs consciously as a deliberate communication strategy, where there is a gap in the learner’s knowledge. Transfer is defined by O’Malley and Chamot(1990) as the use of previous linguistic or prior skills to assist comprehension or production.

Dulay, Burt, Krashan (1982) believe that parroting activities including most memorized dialogues and mechanical drills appear to do little to encourage the development of fluent conversational skills…. the most surprising finding in second language learning is errors the learners make, these errors resulted from difference between the first and second language.
Lado (1964) states firmly that the goals of language learning have broadened to include spoken communication with an understanding of native speakers on the widest range of human interest.

**Analysis**

The major purpose of this research is to compare the sound system and structure of Arabic and English, so the linguistic differences between them may be the reason behind the students’ problem in learning English. Area of problems will be discussed and analyzed first by comparing the sounds (consonants and vowels) of the two languages as follows:

**Consonants**

English consonant sounds are twenty-four in number, they are: [/p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /tʃ/, /ð/, /θ/, /s/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /r/, /j/, /w/].

Mispronounced English consonants:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English consonants</th>
<th>Students’ pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/ e.g. pay /pei/</td>
<td>/b/ e.g. /bei/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/g/ e.g. gram /gram/</td>
<td>/dʒ/ e.g. /dʒram/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tʃ/ e.g. actual /aktʃuəl/</td>
<td>/ʃ/ e.g. /akʃuəl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dʒ/ e.g. adjust /dʒast/</td>
<td>/ʒ/ e.g. /əʒast/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/v/ e.g. visa /viːzə/</td>
<td>/l/ e.g. /liːzə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/ e.g. thin /θin/</td>
<td>/sl/ e.g. /slen/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ð/ e.g. then /ðen/</td>
<td>/zl/ e.g. /zen/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some English consonants are not phonemic in Arabic, so Sudanese students may indiscriminate or mispronounce these phonemes. For example the sound /p/ is not known in Arabic or Sudanese colloquial, it is pronounced as /b/, the word *pay* comes out as *bay*, and *pig* is pronounced as *big*.

Although the students are familiar with the sound /g/, but they are sometimes get confused and keep substituting it for /dʒ/, like /dʒærm/ for *gram* /græm/, and *vegetable* /vedʒəbel/ for *vegetable* /vedʒəbel/.

/tʃ/ is not a phoneme in Arabic, so the students articulate it with difficulty and might come out as /ʃ/, actual /aktʃuəl/ is pronounced as /akʃuəl/ by the students.

/dʒ/ does not exist in Sudanese Colloquial Arabic, and as this sound consists of two different sound /d/ and /ʒ/, the students usually drop the first one, so the sound comes as /ʒ/, an example for that /eʒast/ for adjust /edʒast/, and *agent* /eidʒənt/. Although /ʒ/ is not phonemic in Arabic, but the students managed to use it in the place of /dʒ/.

/v/ is not found in Arabic sound system, it is a problematic area to the students and it comes out as /f/, /fiːzə/ for /viːzə/, and /fənilə/ for *vanilla* /venila/.
/Θ/ is not a phoneme in Sudanese colloquial Arabic, it is pronounced as /s/ which might give complete different meaning. /sin/ for thin /Θin/, /sink/ for think /Θink/, and /sæŋk/ for thank /Θæŋk/.

/ð/ does not exist in Sudanese colloquial Arabic. The students tend to pronounce it as /z/, /zen/ for then /ðen/, /zis/ for this /ðis/, and /zei/ for they /ðei/.

**Vowels**

Mispronounced English vowels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English vowels</th>
<th>Students’ pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a e.g. majority /medʒəˈtiː/</td>
<td>/æ/ e.g. /mædʒəˈtiː/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e e.g. asked /aːskid/</td>
<td>/iː/ e.g. /aːskid/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ɪ e.g. site /sait/</td>
<td>/i/ e.g. /sait/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ɒ e.g. honey /ˈhæni/</td>
<td>/ɔ/ e.g. /ˈhæni/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u e.g. turbine /tɜːˈbain/</td>
<td>/u/ e.g. /tɜːˈbain/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English vowels that confuse the students are the vowel letters that represent different sounds. Short vowels are twelve in number and the diphthongs are nine. English vowel letters are (a, e, i, o, u). It is observed that the students pronounce each vowel letter as one sound in different words when the sound is different in other words e.g.: The vowel letter a is pronounced as /æ/, so majority /medʒəˈtiː/ might come out as /mædʒəˈtiː/, the sound /æ/ is replaced by /æ/. The sound /æ/ is also substituted for /ɔ:/, /fæls/ for false /fæls/.

The vowel letter e is pronounced as /iː/ even when it is silent letter, thus the students tend to say /aːskid/ for asked /aːskid/, /bɪlənd/ for belonged /bɪlənd/.

The vowel letter ɪ often pronounced as /iː/. The students might say /bɪt/ for bite /bait/, and /sɪt/ for site /sɪt/.

The vowel letter ɒ comes out as /ɔ:/ in most cases. /hæni/ for honey /ˈhæni/, and /kənˈfjuːz/ for confuse /kə nəfjuːz/.

The vowel letter u is pronounced as /u/ where the sound is shwa /ə/, /but/ for but /bət/. The students also pronounce /sː/ as /əl/, e.g. /tɜːˈbain/ for turbine /tɜːˈbain/.

**Syntax**

Another area that causes problems is the area of syntax (grammar rules). The chief problem which arises or comes as a result of the difference between the students’ mother tongue and the target language and causes problems is confusion of parts of speech.
Confusion of parts of speech

Verbs

(make, do): the verb (make) is often misused, the students tend to say (I make my homework). The Arabic verb /ya’mal/ can be used for both verbs (make, do).

(borrow, lend): the verb (lend) is replaced by the verb (borrow) e.g. (can you borrow me a pen). In Arabic /yusalif/ gives the meaning of both words (borrow, lend).

(can, may): the verb (can) is substituted for the verb (may) e.g. (can I go?) - in the case of permission not ability - as the Arabic verb /yumkin/ can be used in both cases.

Adverbs

(before, ago): the adverb (before) is misused, the students might say (I saw him before three days) a literal translation from Sudanese colloquial Arabic.

(bigger, older): The Arabic word /akbar/ is used for both size and age so the students tend to say (he is two years bigger than me).

(very, too): the students substituted (very) for (too) (the tea is very hot for me to drink) in Arabic /jidan/ can give the same meaning for both words (very, too).

Wrong position of adverbs

(I last night went to the club) for (I went last night to the club).

(they will be tomorrow here) for (They will be here tomorrow).

In Sudanese colloquial Arabic there is no certain rule for the position of the verb in the sentence, so the students misplace them.

Adjectives

(foolish / fool): the students misuse English adjectives and nouns (he is fool), they also say (he is a foolish), in Arabic both words can give the same meaning.

(like, as): the adjective (like) is replaced by the conjunction (as) (she does not look as her sister) this is mainly because (like) and (as) mean the Arabic word (mi‘il).

(Dead, died): the student tend to say (the dog is died) they used the (past tense of die) instead of the adjective (dead), in Arabic the verb (to be) is not used in the same way as in English, that /mata/ and mayit/ can follow the noun.

Using a Wrong Preposition
The preposition (from) is used by the student instead of many other prepositions, such as (of, with, by, in) in the following examples:

- I am afraid of the dog.
  \(I\ \text{am afraid from the dog}\)
  /yakhaaf min/
- My father is angry with me.
  \(My\ \text{father is angry from me}\).
  /yagdab min/
- We benefit by money.
  \(we\ \text{benefit from money}\).
  /yastafid min/
- I was disappointed in his work.
  \(I\ \text{was disappointed from his work}\).
  /yux al min/

The Arabic word (min) means (from), but the students used it incorrectly because they ignore that languages function differently.

**Other Prepositions**

- He was accused of stealing.
  \(he\ \text{was accused with stealing}\).
  /yutaham bi/
- The table is covered with cloth.
  \(The\ \text{table is covered by cloth}\)
  /ghata bi/
- I divided the cake into four parts.
  \(I\ \text{divided the cake to four parts}\)
  /yasama illa/
- She is glad of the new.
  \(She\ \text{is glad with the news}\)
  /fariha bi/
- Ali is popular with his friends.
  \(Ali\ \text{is popular among his friends}\)
  /mahbub bayn/
- She is good at English.
  \(She\ \text{is good in English}\)
  /jayidah fi/
- The vase was full of flowers.
  \(The\ \text{vase was full with flowers}\)
/mamlu bi/
-I have no doubt of his ability.
(*I have no doubt in his ability*)

/yašuku fi/
-He exchanged sugar for oil.
(*He exchanged sugar by oil*)

/badala bi/

Omission of a Preposition

Some prepositions are not used in the same way in both language; some are not needed in Arabic, while they are necessary in the following examples:

-(he is knocking the door) for (he is knocking at the door).
-(she does not wait any reward) for (she does not wait for any reward).

Confusion of Number

Number in English is different than that in Arabic. So the students got confused when using it. They added (s) where it is not needed e.g. (I need your advices), and they used (are) in the place of (is) e.g. (the news are not good).

Conclusion

In an attempt to accomplish the purpose of this study, investigation was made on the role of first language or mother tongue in English language learning. Thus the main findings were that the difference between the sound system of Arabic and English was one of the main reasons behind problems confronting the students; grammar rules of English were also another problematic area for the students, instead they applied Arabic ones when writing or speaking English.

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DOING RESEARCH: AN APPROACH FOR OUR SUCCESS

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\textbf{ABSTRACT:} In academics, carrying out research is an important and an ongoing process. One must spend quality time researching the areas of his/her interest. What to research? How to start? What and how to read? How to finally decide the topic? How to choose a guide? How to go about the research? Selecting the right structure? How to write thesis? Staying motivated, validity of the research done, all these are the basic important questions and concerns of any upcoming researcher. This paper is an approach to share the experience and approach, which can serve as good tips in doing his/her research work.  

\textbf{KEYWORDS:} Literature search – Being focused – Narrowing down – writing thesis – staying motivated  

In academics, carrying out research is an important ongoing process. The kind of research you do will depend on your research questions. You will usually need to survey existing literature to get an overview of the knowledge that has been gained so far on the topic; this will enlighten your own research and your interpretations. You may decide to do:  

- Primary research (conducting your own experiments, surveys etc., to gain new knowledge)  
- Secondary research (collating knowledge from other people’s research to produce a new synthesis)  
- You may need to do either or both.  

Areas of Your interest: What to Research?  

Spend quality time researching the areas of your interest and every time you consider a certain subject for your topic ask yourself the questions:  

1. Is this something that I see myself doing in the future?  
2. Is this something I am willing to work within the selected time?  
3. Can it be it somehow connected to my future earning?  
4. Or can I do this and make a living out of it?
Find an area that interests you not only now but also in the long run because you will utilize most of your resources (such as time, energy, money) to produce knowledge within this particular field. And remember you can re-generate energy, money but you will never be able to reproduce time, so you can’t waste it. Try to discover new information about your research and write down all potential topics in order of most interest to you.

**HOW TO START?**

A very good starting point to research is to review the courses you took during your studies in the past, and the subjects that caught your interest. Look out for keywords or phrases that draw your attention whom you go through your materials. By doing these things it will often show you a trend of your interest and preferences and give you an idea and lead you to the right research topic for you.

Another technique is called ‘NARROWING DOWN’. A good way of formulating a research topic is through questions. Ask How, What, Why, list down a number of questions that will lead to an interesting thesis topic.

For Eg:

1. How can ‘A’ as opposed to ‘B’ better explained relationship between D and C?
2. Can ‘A’ provide more useful implications…
3. Why is that so….

Make sure that the questions are not broad because it would make it hard for you to focus. Start with issues that concern you. If you think your topic is too broad, you need to do more of literature review. This way you will get more ideas to narrow down your topic. At the same time, don’t make your questions too generic. If they round so, be suspicious because it may be that you have not done enough preliminary research. On the otherhand, make sure your questions are not too narrow either. A successful research should express ideas of general importance through detailed analysis. If the topic is too narrow, read about the topic to find the general concern.

**LITERATURE SEARCH: WHAT AND HOW TO READ?**

Remember that it’s impossible to read everything that might be relevant: instead, read selectively. Scan the title, then the abstract, and try to get a feel for the most important points. Many people find it useful to take notes while they read. To really understand a paper, you have to understand the motivations for the problems posed, the choices made in finding a solution, the assumptions behind the solution, whether the assumption are realistic and whether they can be removed without invalidating the approach, future directions for research, what was actually
accomplished or implemented, the validity (or lack thereof) of the theoretical justifications or empirical demonstrations, and the potential for extending and scaling the algorithm up.

Keeping a diary of your research activities and ideas is very useful. Write down speculations, interesting problems, possible solutions, random ideas, reference to look up, notes on papers you have read, outlines of papers to write, and interesting quotes. Read back through it periodically. You’ll notice that the bits of random thoughts start to come together and form a pattern, often turning into a research topic. Maintain the papers you read filed away so you can find them again later, and set up an online bibliography. This bibliography will be useful for later references, for writing your dissertation, and for sharing with others.

FINDING A THESIS TOPIC: HOW TO FINALLY DECIDE THE TOPIC?

Choosing an appropriately scaled – down topic may be difficult, having the ideal topic is also less important; a good source of ideas for research topic is developing and implementing and extensions to an existing system or techniques.

If you pick a topic that you are not truly interested in simply because it’s your guide’s preference area, it will be difficult to stay focused and motivated – and you may get fixed if your guide moves on to a different research area before you finish. The same is true for choosing a topic because of its marketability. If you are not personally excited about the topic, you will have a harder time finishing and a harder time convincing other people that your research is interesting. Besides, markets may change more quickly than most people finish their research work. To finish quickly, it’s usually best to pick a narrow, well-defined topic. The downside of this approach is that it may not be as exciting to you or to the research community. If you are more of a risk-taken, choose a topic that branches out in a new direction. The threat here is that it can be difficult to carefully define the problem, and to evaluate the solution you develop.

FINDING A GUIDE: HOW TO CHOOSE A GUIDE?

The ideal guide will be in the area you’ve interested in working in, and will actively be doing high-quality research and be involved in and respected by the research community. Multiple mentors are common and useful; they may include other faculty members in your department or elsewhere, senior graduate students, or other colleagues.

HOW TO WORK WITH YOUR GUIDE:

Your guide can give you expert guidance, but they can’t formulate and plan your project for you. Have some questions to ask your guide like ‘How can I narrow down my question?’ Or specific such as ‘Am I interpreting this result correctly?’. If you are unsure of an idea or approach, don’t be afraid to talk it through with your guide. Just explaining it to someone else can help to sort out your own thinking. It is easier for a guide to give advice on a specific place of work, so
bring your research proposal, or chapter drafts, to the meetings your guide might not have time to read it all, so highlight places you would like feedback on.

**METHODOLOGY: HOW TO GO ABOUT THE RESEARCH?**

The method you choose will be the model for how you go about your research:

- Why is the method you chose the most appropriate way of finding an answer to your research question?
- Are there any other methods you might have used?
- Why didn’t you choose them?
- Throughout your research be aware of the decisions you make and note them down explaining why you made them.
- Did you change your plans when you encountered a problem?
- Did you have to adjust sample size, questions, and approach?

This awareness of why you did your research in a certain way and your ability to explain and justify these choices is a vital part of your research.

**THINKING ABOUT A STRUCTURE: WHAT IS THE RIGHT STRUCTURE?**

Thesis are usually structured in one of two ways. They may have a formal structure similar to a report (more usual for projects involving primary research) or alternatively they may be based around discussions of themes or texts. Do bear in mind that no structure, title or question is set in stone until you submit your completed work. If you find a more interesting or productive way to discuss your topic, don’t be afraid to change your structure providing you have time to do any extra work.

**WRITING A THESIS: HOW TO WRITE?**

Sometimes it’s difficult to formalize an idea well enough to test and prove it until you have written it up; the results of your test often require you to make changes that mean that you have to go back and rewrite parts of the thesis; and the process of developing and testing your ideas is almost never complete (there is always more that you ‘could’ do) so that many researcher end up “doing research” right up until the day or two before the thesis is turned in.

The divide-and-conquer approach works as well for writing as it does for research. It is essential that you break this down into manageable stages, both in terms of doing the research and when writing the thesis. Try to come up with a range of tasks, both in terms of duration and difficulty. On days when you feel energetic and enthusiastic, you can sink your teeth into a solid problem, but on days when you are run-down and unmotivated; you can at least accomplish a few small tasks and get them off your queue.
Don’t sit down and try to start writing the entire thesis from beginning to end. First jot down notes on what you want to cover; then organize these into an outline. Start drafting sections; beginning with those you are most confident about. Don’t feel obligated to write it perfectly the first time: if you can’t get a paragraph or phrase right, just write ‘something’ (a rough cut, a note to yourself, a list of bulleted points) and move on.

**STAYING MOTIVATED:**

To stay focused and motivated is the most important subject matter. It often helps to have organized activities to force you to manage your time and to do something every day. Setting up regular meetings with your guide, attending seminars, or even extracurricular activities such as sports or music can help you to maintain a regular schedule. Setting daily, weekly, and monthly goals is a good idea, and works even better if you use a “buddy system” where you and another researcher meet at regular intervals to review your progress. Instead of writing an entire thesis, focus on the goal of writing a chapter, section, or outline. Instead of implementing a large system, break off pieces and implement one module at a time. Identify tasks that you can do in an hour or less; then you can come up with a realistic daily schedule. Learn to listen to valid, constructive criticism and to ignore destructive, pointless criticism.

**VIABILITY**

Finally, after you know the best topic that engages your interest it is also important to check its visibility. Even if your topic is something you are passionate about but if the study is not feasible, it will bring you to a dead end, which will be a very frustrating experience for you and it will not yield productive results.

Checking into library archives about previous studies and thesis written about the topic will help you project the viability of the project. Go to your library and find similar studies. Begin with resources at your reach. With internet you can access any major library. Use online resources such as JSTOR, Blackwell reference, Britanica, Sage Publications, Science Direct and so on. If you don’t know how to access them, ask your librarian. They should help you with that.

**A SMALL GLIMPSE: TO SUM UP**

Doing research is a long process and it requires your patience and persistence. It is very important that you find not only something you can stretch into an interesting study, but also work with something that will sustain your own interest through it all. Your successful completion is directly proportionate to your ability to select a research topic that will keep you interested during the entire writing process. In other words, the more thought you give to selecting a topic or the more properly you research areas of your interest the more likely you wind up being fully engaged in your research with passion and enthusiasm.
Reference:

http://www.latex-project.org/
http://www.yale.edu/graduateschool/writing/forms/Writing%20Theses%20and%20Dissertations.pdf
Relationship between Subjective and Objective Needs Analysis of ESP Students at M.A. Level

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Abstract: Despite the growing demand for English for Specific Purpose (ESP) instruction in Iran, ESP courses are still limited to learning specific lexicon and translating texts. In response to students' needs, this study is an attempt to analyze subjective and objective language learning needs of Iranian ESP senior civil engineering students at M.A. level. The questionnaires were administered to the both students and their instructors and the data gathered from the respondents were downloaded into SPSS. The findings of this study showed that there are differences between subjective and objective needs analysis of students concerning the reason for studying English, the belief about the focus of English language teaching on skills and the importance of language skills. But there is no difference between subjective and objective needs analysis of students concerning the future domain of English language use and role of English in the university curriculum and future life.

Key words: subjective needs analysis, objective needs analysis, ESP

1. Introduction

One of the most important phenomena of language learning-teaching process is to make students reach the intended language level in a shorter time and in a better way. So, the practice of content-based English language teaching has been gaining importance during the past two decades. In the content-based language teaching, mostly called ESP (English for Specific Purposes), knowing the English language needs of the students and preparing the curriculum of the course according to these needs is of vital importance. Since the language skills needed by the medical students, the students of English language and literature are different from those of chemistry students, the ways in which they take the language courses and the syllabi change from discipline to discipline. Therefore, while teaching English -as well as other foreign languages- the curriculum of the language course needs to be prepared in accordance with the specific language needs in the field of the learners.

In general terms needs assessment is a systematic exploration of the way things are and the way they should be (Stout, 1995). However, so far as language is concerned, needs assessment is the process of identifying the students’ reasons for studying a language. It refers to the procedure for identifying general and specific language needs of students so that appropriate goals,
objectives, and content in courses can be developed (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Richterich (1984) claims that the purpose of a needs assessment is to provide the means by which to obtain a wider range of input into the content, design and, implementation of a language program by incorporating people such as learners, teachers, administrators and employers in the planning process.

Therefore, a needs assessment helps to identify general or specific language needs which can be addressed in developing goals, objectives, and content for an existing program. It is frequently used to provide data which can serve as the basis for reviewing and evaluating a program.

Although many teachers acknowledge the need to understand the ways in which learners differ in terms of preferences, they may not consult learners in conducting language activities. The basis for such reluctance to cooperate may be that learners are not generally regarded capable of expressing what they want or need to learn and how they want to learn it (Bada & Okan, 2000). Besides, it is argued by many teachers, quite rightly, that in some societies, like Iran, with a top-down curriculum, social roles of teachers and learners are so rigidly drawn that expecting learners to participate in decision-making in the classroom may not be viewed as appropriate (Eslami R. & Valizadeh, 2004). In these contexts promoting learners’ participation in the educational process needs be done with care and sensitivity.

As Cray and Currie (1996) suggest, the important point is that teachers do not have to act on behalf of their learners but with their learners. Attention should be given to students’ needs and unless teachers are aware of those needs they cannot consider them in their teaching activities and classroom practices.

So, the researcher, in this study, investigated the objective and subjective needs of Iranian ESP students.

2. Literature review

ESP and Needs Analysis

Needs analysis (NA) is an information gathering process. West (1994) states that the term ‘analysis of needs’ first appeared in India in 1920. However, needs-based curriculum planning in modern times probably owes its genesis to the legacy of public aid to education programmes in the USA in the 1960s when identification of needs was a legislative requirement for receiving finances for activities carried out by publicly funded educational and service-providing agencies (Berwick, 1989). Another factor which contributed to the appearance of needs analysis as educational technology was the behavioral objective movement which emphasized precision and accountability in educational system by insisting on specification of goals in measurable form (ibid). Thus, in this regard needs analysis (NA) is not exclusive to language teaching (Dudley-
Evans & Johns, 1998). Its emergence in language planning can be traced back to the 1970s and its widespread proliferation in the domain is attributable to its adoption by the Council of Europe’s modern language project (Nunan, 1988).

NA is considered as a basic principal of ESP (Robinson, 1991) and most of the information on NA initially came from ESP (West, 1994). This is probably due to the fact that an NA approach is more useful when learners’ needs are linked to a ‘discrete set of communicative situations’ (Tudor, 1996; 70). This factor diminishes the utility of NA approach for General English (GE) teaching as the needs of the learners in GE are not specifiable (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Richards (1990; 2) considers NA as ‘fundamental’ to the planning of ESP courses and in language curriculum planning NA can be utilized as a means to a number of things, i.e.:

1) It can serve as a device for gathering an extensive range of input into the content, design, and implementation of language programme through involving all the stakeholders (Richards, 1990).

2) It can help in setting goals, objectives and content for a language programme by determining general and specific language needs (ibid).

3) NA can be instrumental in providing data which can be used for reviewing and evaluating an existing programme (ibid).

4) It can help teachers in understanding the local needs of the students and making decisions in pedagogy and assessment for further improvement (Tarone & Yule, 1989).

All these uses of NA refer to the fact that NA can be used for a range of purposes. It can be helpful in determining whether a programme should be implemented by finding out if it matches the goals and objectives of the learners for learning a language and at the same time used as part of a programme can help in improving various components of the programme and making these more oriented to the needs of the learners. NA can also help in evaluating an existing programme and if found deficient can help in establishing the need for introducing a change and what kind of change may appropriately match the needs of the learners and simultaneously be acceptable to teachers.

As the demands for ESP have increased in recent years, a considerable amount of research has been carried out on needs analysis in ESP (Alikhan, 2007; Deutch, 2003; Jiajing, 2007; Noora, 2008).

Since the 1980s, many studies have examined EFL students’ language needs. Whereas some studies (e.g., Johns, 1981; Ostler, 1980) examine students’ needs in several skill areas, others focus on specific areas such as aural/oral skills (Ferris, 1998), and writing skills (Horowitz, 1986; Holme, 1996). Often, needs analysis studies focus on what Hutchinson and Waters refer to
as "target needs," particularly "necessities" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, cited in Jordan, 1997). Researchers collect data to identify the tasks students might encounter in university content classrooms, and some also analyze the tasks to shed light on the skills students may need to perform the tasks successfully. For example, Horowitz (1986), in a study of writing tasks, analyzed 54 writing assignments from 29 courses taught in 17 departments at a university, identified 7 categories of writing tasks, and provided a description of their characteristics.

A study conducted by Jiajing (2007) indicates that when designing an ESP course, the primary issue is the analysis of learners' specific needs.

Analyzing the specific needs of a particular group serves as the prelude to an ESP course design, because it determines the "what" and "how" of an ESP course. Chen (2006) also reached the conclusion that ESP course designers should explore and identify the learners' potential needs in the first place.

Taillefer (2006) conducted a study on the professional language needs of economics graduates and the results of this study indicates that high levels of competence were seen to be necessary in all four language skills in varied types of communication with both native speakers and non-natives, and graduates expressed difficulty in meeting their target needs, particularly in oral communication.

Also the project needs analysis conducted by Chen (2007) consisted of pre-course and ongoing needs analysis. At the initial stage of the project, the researcher conducted several interviews, first with administrative personnel in the Education Section, then with the chief engineer, in order to find their job requirements or "what they have to be able to do at the end of their language course" (Robinson, 1991; 7). These types of needs were regarded by the sponsor or institute as being relevant to the job. From the interviews, the researcher identified the following as constituting their 'objective' needs:

"reading specialist literature, academic journals, reading instructions,
"writing instructions, drawing labels, writing technical and academic articles,
"attending conferences, lectures, technical or business negotiation in English,
"communicating with foreign engineers in design and at work,
"visiting and receiving foreign visitors.

The other important needs emanated from learners themselves in the form of 'subjective' needs. Robinson (1991; 7) describes these as "what the students themselves would like to gain from the language course. This view of needs implies that students may have personal aims in addition to the requirements of their studies or jobs." By means of informal talk with course potential participants, the following were adjudged to represent such needs:
"passing English examinations for professional promotion,
"working or studying abroad or in joint ventures,
"doing part-time translation,
"enjoying films, songs or VCD in English.

Objective Needs Analysis

Initial "objective" needs analyses focused on identifying learners' real world communicative requirements so that courses could be designed reflecting these and preparing users for their intended use of the target language (TL). Munby's model (1978) is the most well-known of this type, and became "An unavoidable reference point" (Tudor, 1996;66), though West (1994) mentions that its rigour and complexity "tended to halt rather than advance development", and Tudor notes that it deals only with target situation analysis (TSA), ignoring deficiency analysis ("present situation analysis" - PSA, cf. Allwright, 1982), strategy analysis (Oxford, 1990) and means analysis (West, 1994; Tudor, 1996). Munby's model contained nine components, relating to the learners' communicative requirements (participant, purposive domain, setting, interaction, instrumentality, dialect, target level, communicative event, and communicative key), and Tarone & Yule (1989) later covered much the same ground with a four-level framework: i) global level (situations, participants, communicative purpose, target activities); ii) rhetorical level (organisational structure of the communicative activities); iii) grammatical-rhetorical level (linguistic forms required to realise the forms in level ii); and iv) grammatical level (the frequency of grammatical and lexical constructions in the target situation). Both models imply that a needs analysis should progress from an identification of learners' target language needs, to an analysis of the communicative activities they will need to perform in order to achieve those goals, and the linguistic forms by which these activities will be realised (Tudor, 1996; 72).

Subjective Needs Analysis

As recognition grew in the 1980's and 1990's of the existence and importance of psychological, cognitive, cultural and affective learning needs, a "subjective" interpretation arose in which needs are seen in terms of the learner as an individual in the learning situation (Brindley, 1984a), and attention was given to "factors of a psychological or cognitive nature which influence the manner in which learners will perceive and interact with the process of language study" (Tudor, 1996;126), categorised in terms of: i) individual differences (introversion-extroversion, tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking, cognitive style); and ii) learning style (psychological, cognitive, sensory differences). Along with this expanded view of the learner, it was also acknowledged that Robinson's (1991) call for the educator to access the knowledge and conceptual networks involved in the students' specialist disciplines was impractical in the majority of cases, especially at the beginning of a course, and that instead, learners needed training in identifying their learning needs (including specialist terms and concepts) and formulating them into goal-setting:
If subjective psychological needs felt by the learner are to be taken into account as well as objective communication needs, then some kinds of mechanisms have to be built into the learning process which allow for systematic consultation and negotiation between the two parties. Information has to be exchanged about roles and expectations. (Brindley, 1984b; 72-73)

Such a "mechanism" implies not only ongoing learner training in identifying learning needs, setting learning goals, planning a course of study, and reflection (self-assessment and reappraisal of goals), but also a change of roles and power structure (Stevick, 1976) as negotiation of course content and direction leads to modification of teacher/learner expectations, and teachers gradually transfer control of learning. This process of "learning how to learn" and of negotiating classroom learning parameters takes time (Brindley, 1984a; 76; Nunan, 1988) and is not always comfortable for teachers or students, as established "truths" are challenged and perhaps found inadequate. However, problems associated with objective needs analysis (e.g. the impracticality of obtaining sufficient pre-course data, the need for the teacher to be an expert in the students' special fields, and the responsibility for producing a course to meet students needs in those fields) tend to originate from a view of the teacher as all-knowing expert and transmitter of required knowledge, which is rarely the case in specialised ESP courses such as English for nurses, international trade, accounting, or particle physics, and a joint "exploration of the learners' needs, both by the teachers, and by the learners themselves" (Tudor, 1996; 76), is more appropriate.

3. Method
3.1. Participants

The participants in this study were 32 senior civil engineering students at M.A. level (females=3 [9.37%], males=29 [90.62%]) who were studying ESP course at Islamic Azad University of Yazd. The mean age of the students was 28.12 years with standard deviation of 3.80 and an age range of 23-35 years. Also 5 instructors of civil engineering students (all males) teaching ESP in Islamic Azad University of Yazd and Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman were participated in this study. The mean age of the instructors was 46 years with standard deviation of 8.54 and an age range of 35-55 years.

3.2. Instrument

This study has employed quantitative data collection techniques. The main data collection instrument was questionnaire developed by Alikhan (2007) for the students and instructors. The students' and instructors' questionnaires were arranged in multi-option question pattern.

The students' and instructors' questionnaires aimed at gathering information related to the following areas:

The reason for studying English
The future domain of English language use
The role of English in the university curriculum and future life
The belief about the focus of English language teaching on skills
The importance of language skills
These questionnaires were translated into the native language (Persian).

3.3. Data collection procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the senior civil engineering students at M.A. level and their instructors involved in this study by the researcher. The consents of the students and instructors were obtained and the purpose of the study was explained to them before distributing the instruments.

3.4. Data analysis procedure

The data gathered from the respondents was downloaded into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for quantitative analysis. Percentage, frequency and pie chart were determined for all questions.

4. Results

The purpose of this study was an investigation into the subjective and objective English language learning needs of civil engineering students at M.A. level.

4.1. Analysis of subjective English language learning needs of students

The analysis of responses is organized area-wise related to areas of the reason for studying English, the future domain of English language use, the role of English in the university curriculum and future life, the belief about focus of English language teaching on skills and the importance of language skills.

4.1.1. Reason for studying English

The question related to this area and the responses are presented below:

Question1 (Why do you need to study English?): The intended purpose of this question was to discover the students' perception of their reason for studying English as part of university curriculum. A majority of the students, which is 63%, considers understanding everyday English as their reason for studying English.
Figure 1. Reasons for studying English as indicated by Q1

4.1.2. Future domain of English language use

Question 2 (In future I shall be using English more for?): The aim of the question was to establish the future domain of English language use. 69% thought it will be in the domain of their future job or career.

Figure 2. Future use of English as indicated by Q2

4.1.3. Importance of language skills

Question 3 and 4 also provided an insight in students' beliefs about the importance of certain language skills for them. The options in question 3 presented the four language skills and also grammar and vocabulary as additional options. These two areas are presently the focus of English language teaching in the curriculum. Listening and speaking together were opted by 81% of all the respondents as compared to reading and writing with 10% of responses together, and grammar and vocabulary with 9% of the responses.

Figure 3. Importance attached to language skills as indicated by Q3
Similarly, in question 4, the responses to the option of listening and speaking are 56% as compared to 44% of the responses for reading and writing. Thus indicating a greater importance attached to the skills of listening and speaking by the students.

Figure 4. Importance attached to listening and speaking compared to reading and writing as indicated by Q4

4.1.4. Role of English in the university curriculum and future life

The questionnaire contained questions which intended to judge students' attitude towards the role of English in the present university curriculum and in future life. The questions were in multiple choice forms and also in scaled form. These were questions no 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 in the questionnaire. Following is a pattern of responses to these questions which is helpful in establishing students' attitude toward the role of English in their academic and future life.

Question 9: Question 9 aimed at probing the opinion of the students about the place of English in the university curriculum. The question was in the scaled form and the percentage of students who 'disagree' and those who 'strongly disagree' is 47% and 31% respectively. Thus 78% opposed the idea of removing English from the university curriculum even if it is not fulfilling their needs. This helps in establishing the importance attached to the study of English by these students.
Questions 5, 6, 7, 8: the purpose was to know the possible role of English in the present academic and future life of the students. Question 5 tried to determine the effect of English language proficiency on the academic performance of the students.

75% thought that it can have a detrimental effect on students' academic performance if the proficiency level in English is not good.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number of students choosing the option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A good effect on his/her academic performance</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A bad effect on his/her academic performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No effect at all on his/her academic performance</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question 6 and 7 investigated the students' opinion about the future role of English in the fields of higher education and progress in future career. 93.75% are of the opinion that proficiency in English will play a vital role in the successful completion of higher education and in making a good progress in their future career.

Also it was considered necessary to know the students' beliefs about the association between performance in scientific subjects and proficiency in English. Following are the results which give on indication of the belief of the students:

Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number of students choosing the option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many face a lot of difficulty</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many face a little difficulty</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They face no difficulty</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. Analysis of objective English language learning needs of students

The analysis of instructors' responses is also organized related to areas of the reason for studying English, the future domain of English language use, the role of English in the university curriculum and future life of students, belief about the focus of English language teaching on skills and the importance of language skills.

4.2.1. Reason for studying English

The question related to this area and the instructors' responses are presented below:
Question 1: (why do your students need to study English?): The intended purpose of this question was to discover the instructors' perception of their students' needs for studying English as a part of university curriculum. A majority of the instructors, which is 80%, considers ability to read English text as the students' need for studying English.

Figure 6. Reason for studying English as indicated by Q1

4.2.2. Future domain of English language use

Question 2 (In future your students shall need to use English for?): The aim of the question was to establish the future domain of English language use. 60% thought it will be in the domain of their students' future job or career.

Figure 7. Future use of English as indicated by Q2

4.2.3. Importance of language skills

Question 3 and 4 also provided an insight in instructors' beliefs about the importance of certain language skills for their students. The options in question 3 presented the four language skills and
two components. Reading and writing together were opted by 80% of all instructors as compared to listening and speaking with 20% of the responses.

Figure 8. Importance attached to language skills as indicated by Q3

Similarly, in question 4, the responses to the option of reading and writing are 80% as compared to 20% of the responses for listening and speaking. Thus indicating a greater importance attached to the skills of reading and writing by the instructors.

Figure 9. Importance attached to reading and writing compared to listening and speaking as indicated by Q4

4.2.4. Role of English in the university curriculum and future life

The questionnaire contained questions which intended to judge instructors' attitude towards the role of English in the present university curriculum and in future life. These were questions no 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 in the instructors' questionnaire.
Question 9: aimed at probing the opinion of the instructors about the place of English in the university curriculum. The question was in the scaled form and the percentage of instructors who 'disagree' and those who 'strongly disagree' is 20% and 80% respectively. Thus 100% opposed the idea of removing English from the university curriculum even if it is not fulfilling the students' needs. This helps in establishing the importance attached to the study of English by these instructors.

Figure 10. Response pattern to Q9 suggesting removal of English from the university curriculum because it does not fulfill students' needs.

Questions 5, 6, 7, 8: the purpose was to know the possible role of English in the present academic and future life of the students. Question 5 tried to determine the effect of English language proficiency on the academic performance of the students.

100% thought that it can have a detrimental effect on students' academic performance if the proficiency level in English is not good.

Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number of students choosing the option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A good effect on his/her academic performance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Question 6 and 7 investigated the instructors' opinion about the future role of English in the fields of higher education and progress in future career. 100% are of the opinion that proficiency in English will play a vital role in the successful completion of higher education and in making a good progress in the students' future career.

Also it was considered necessary to know the instructors' beliefs about the association between performance in scientific subjects and proficiency in English. Following are the results which give on indication of the belief of the instructors:

Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Number of students choosing the option</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many face a lot of difficulty</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many face a little difficulty</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They face no difficulty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No answer
5. Discussion and Conclusion

Teachers, curriculum designers, material developers, and others who want to be sensitive to the needs of the students they serve, can not always rely on their unaided intuitions (White, 1988). Also it should be noted that not all learners are aware of their specific needs. Even if they know why they need to learn a language, they are not aware of the activities that are often essential prerequisites for fulfilling their needs. Therefore, the data for needs analysis should not be confined to the learners, but should be collected from multiple sources, including the learners, the teachers and the experts in the field (Farhady, 1992).

So the purpose of this study was to discover the English learning needs of the civil engineering students at M.A. level. The findings were presented in two parts, firstly the subjective needs of the students were established and then the objective ones were mentioned.

The results of the present study show that ESP students who are majoring in civil engineering at M.A. level are highly motivated to learn English for understanding every day English as compared to their instructors who believe that the students need to study English for getting ability to read English texts. So students have realized that they need English not only for academic purposes but also for communication.

"The future domain of language use is advancement in future professional life "(Harmer, 1991; 1) as suggested by the results presented in figures 2 and 7. Thus it can be inferred that the 'mastery of language' is considered instrumental in getting a good job in future and also making good progress in future career (target situation needs). This factor suggests that the motivation for English learning among these students is extrinsic and the instructors are aware of this fact.

In ESP environments, where a needs analysis is appropriate, it is possible to determine which of the four skills is most essential for the specific language use. The importance of the assessment stems from the acknowledgement that when planning a language course, not only necessities should be considered but also various constrains imposed by the parties involved. Thus, since all academic institutions and universities have time constrains, there is an unavoidable need to set priorities and focus on those skills which are more crucial for the specific intended use.

The students need to learn all the four skills of language as compared to grammar and vocabulary. Our findings show that speaking and listening is more preferred by the students as compared to the skills of reading and writing. So greater importance is attached to the skills of listening and speaking (figure 3&4). The order of preferences by students indicates a need for developing their communicative abilities firstly in the areas of speaking and listening and secondly in the areas of reading and writing. While comparing these results with the order of preferences by instructors, we observe that the instructors prefer to develop reading and writing as compared to listening and speaking.
So the current practice in ESP material development in Iran should be fundamentally redesigned, particularly in areas such as skill and usage specifications. Reading skill development and reading comprehension are considered by instructors to be the major objectives for the existing ESP materials. In global language planning, special attention should be paid to the needs of students concerning the modern context of information explosion era.

Also the findings of the present study show that both students and instructors attach great importance to the study of English. They opposed the idea of removing English from the university curriculum even if it is not fulfilling the students' needs.

In general, there is difference between subjective and objective language learning needs analysis of ESP civil engineering students at M.A. level concerning the reason for studying English, the belief about the focus of English language teaching on skills and the importance of language skills. But there is no difference between subjective and objective needs analysis of students concerning the future domain of English language use and role of English in the university curriculum and future life.

References


Appendix A

Students' Questionnaire

Please read the questions and response options carefully.

1. Why do you need to study English?

   To speak to foreigners in abroad
   To pass exam
   For higher education
   For success in future professional life
   To understand every day English
   To get the ability to read English texts

2. In future I shall be using English for:

   Higher studies
   Socializing
   In my future job
   Others

3. Which of the following areas do you wish to develop more?

   Listening
   Speaking
   Reading
   Writing
   Grammar
   Vocabulary

4. What do you think English language teaching should focus on?

   Listening & speaking
   Reading & writing
   All

5. Do you think if a student's level of English is not good it can have:

   A good effect on his academic performance
A bad effect on his academic performance  
No effect at all on his academic performance

6. My knowledge of English:
Will help me in successful completion of higher education  
Will not help me in successful completion of higher education  
Will play no role at all

7. My knowledge of English:
Will help me in making a good progress in my future career  
Will not help me in making a good progress in my future career  
Will play no role

8. Do students in your class face difficulty in studying content subjects because of their poor English?
Many face a lot of difficulty  
Many face a little difficulty  
They face no difficulty

9. Would you like English to be taken away from university curriculum because you do not find the present syllabus and the way of classroom teaching helpful in fulfilling your needs of English?
Strongly agree/ agree/ neither agree nor disagree/ disagree/ strongly disagree

Appendix B

Teachers' Questionnaire

1. Why do your students need to study English?
To speak to foreigners in abroad  
To pass exam  
For higher education  
For success in future professional life  
To understand every day English  
To get the ability to read English texts
2. In future your students shall be using English for:

Higher studies
Socializing
In their future job
Others

3. Which of the following areas do your students wish to develop more?

Listening
Speaking
Reading
Writing
Grammar
Vocabulary

4. What do you think English language teaching should focus on?

Listening & speaking
Reading & writing
All

5. Do you think if a student's level of English is not good it can have:

A good effect on his academic performance
A bad effect on his academic performance
No effect at all on his academic performance

6. Your students' knowledge of English:

Will help them in successful completion of higher education
Will not help them in successful completion of higher education
Will play no role at all

7. Your students' knowledge of English:

Will help them in making a good progress in their future career
Will not help them in making a good progress in their future career
Will play no role
8. Do students in your class face difficulty in studying content subjects because of their poor English?

Many face a lot of difficulty
Many face a little difficulty
They face no difficulty

9. Would you like English to be taken away from university curriculum because you do not find the present syllabus and the way of classroom teaching helpful in fulfilling your students' needs of English?

Strongly agree/ agree/ neither agree nor disagree/ disagree/ strongly disagree

Appendix C
همه موارد

5. به نظر شما اگر سطح زبان انگلیسی دانشجوی خوب نیستند می‌توانند تاثیر قابل ملاحظه‌ای بر عملکرد تحصیلی آن داشته باشد. تاثیر بدی بر عملکرد تحصیلی آن داشته باشد. هنوز نیازی بر عملکرد تحصیلی آن داشته باشد.

6. دانشمندان در زبان انگلیسی به من کمک‌هایی کرد تا مقاطع تحصیلی بالاتر را با موفقیت باگردانم. به من هیچ کمکی نخواهد کرد تا مقاطع تحصیلی بالاتر را با موفقیت باگردانم. در این زمینه هیچ فاقد ای ندارد.

7. دانشمندان در زبان انگلیسی به من کمک‌هایی کرد تا در شغل آینده ام پیشرفت خوبی داشته باشم. به من هیچ کمکی نخواهد کرد تا در شغل آینده ام پیشرفت خوبی داشته باشم. در این زمینه هیچ فاقد ای ندارد.

8. آیا دانشجویان در کلاس شما به دلیل ضعف در زبان انگلیسی در مطالعه موضوعات محتوایی با مشکلات رنگی و رنگی شوند؟

9. آیا مانند زبان انگلیسی از برنامه سه‌گانه دانشگاه خود به دلیل اینکه در این برنامه دریافتی ای برای آنها درسی کوتاه و روش آموزش انگلیسی است که؟

Appendix D

پرسش نامه استاد

1. چرا دانشجویان شما به مطالعه زبان انگلیسی نیاز دارند؟ برای صحبت کردن با خارجی ها در خارج از کشور
برای قبول شدن در امتحان
برای ادامه تحصیل
برای کسب موفقیت در زندگی شغلی آینده
برای قمتهای زبان انگلیسی روزمره
برای کسب توانایی پیشگیری موتان انگلیسی

2. در ایندیه دانشجویان شما از زبان انگلیسی ......... استفاده خوده کرد: برای ادامه تحصیل
برای معاشرت با دیگران
در شغل آینده شان
سایر موارد

3. دانشجویان شما بیشتر علاقه مند هستند در کدام یک از زمینه‌های زیر بیشتر کنند؟
شیندن
صحت کردن
خواندن
نوشتند
گرامر

لغت

4. به نظر شما آموزش زبان انگلیسی بر کدام یک از موارد زیر پایدار متمرکز شود؟

شیندن و صحت کردن
خواندن و نوشتن

همه موارد

5. به نظر شما آگر سطح زبان انگلیسی دانشجوی خوب نباشد می‌واد:

اثر قابل ملاحظه ای بر عملکرد حسیبی اش داشته باشد.
اثر بی‌دید بر عملکرد حسیبی اش داشته باشد.
هیچ تاثیری بر عملکرد حسیبی اش داشته باشد.

6. دانش دانشجویان شما در زبان انگلیسی:

به آنها کمک خواهند کرد یا مقاطع حسیبی بالارا با موقعیت پذیراند.
به آنها هیچ کمکی نخواهند کرد یا مقاطع حسیبی بالارا با موقعیت پذیراند.
در این زمینه هیچ فاقده ای ندارد.

7. دانش دانشجویان شما در زبان انگلیسی:

به آنها کمک خواهند کرد از شغل آینده شان پیشرفته خوبی داشته باشند.
به آنها هیچ کمکی نخواهند کرد از شغل آینده شان پیشرفته خوبی داشته باشند.
در این زمینه هیچ فاقده ای ندارد.

8. آیا دانشجویان در کلاس شما به دلیل ضعف در زبان انگلیسی در مطالعه موضوعات محتوایی با مشکل رو به رو می‌شوند:

پس از آن‌ها مشکلات زیادی روبه‌رو می‌شوند.
پس از آن‌ها مشکلات اندکی روبه‌رو می‌شوند.
آن‌ها با مشکلی رو به رو نمی‌شوند.

9. آیا مایلید زبان انگلیسی از برنامه درسی دانشگاه جذب شود به دلیل اینکه در فراتر از برنامه درسی کنونی و روش آموزش آن نیازهای دانشجویان شما را از اموختن زبان انگلیسی براوردید؟

کاملا موافق / موافق / نظری / ندارم / مخالف / مخالف

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Numeral System of Mao

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Elangbam Manimohon Meitei²
Research Student, NET, Dept of Linguistics, Manipur University

Abstract: Mao is a language of the Naga-Kuki groups of Tibeto-Burman language family and spoken mainly in the Senapati district, the Northern part of Manipur. The Speaker of Mao language is known as Mao. This paper is attempted to study about the Mao numeral system. Like other Tibeto-Burman language, Mao also has decimal numeral systems. Generally, numeral is a word denoting a number. It can be considered as an integral part of a language which is used in everyday life and mainly in higher mathematics also. The way of constructing higher number system is of multiplication and addition type. The Mao numeral can be classified as Cardinal, Ordinal, Multiplicative, Aggregative, Approximate, Fractional, Indefinite and Restrictive. But cardinal numbers have more complex and more formal structure than ordinal numbers.

Keywords: Numeral, Cardinal, Ordinal, Multiplicative, Aggregative.

Introduction

The Speaker of Mao language is known as the Mao. It is a small tribe inhabiting in the Northern hill district of Manipur. They belong to the Mongolid racial group. The language they speak is one of the Naga-Kuki groups of the Tibeto-Burman language family. The villages lie in a compact group on the Manipur Naga hill frontier. It is 62 miles far away from Imphal by road on the National Highway 39. It is one of the oldest hill stations of Manipur and its area is blessed with a rich flora and fauna. They live in a simple life very close to nature. The total population of Mao tribe is 69,131 according to the 2001 census report.

Few scholars like G.A. Grierson (1903), Mao included in the Naga-Kuki group of Tibeto-Burman language family. Benedict P.K (1972) described that Mao belongs to the Naga group of Sino-Tibetan family. And Robert Shafer (1974), also describe Mao as in the Luhupa unit in the Eastern Branch under the old Kukish section of Burmic division of Sino-Tibetan. According to Scott Delancy (1987), Mao belongs to the Naga group under the Assam-Burmese section of the Tibeto-Burman family. Ethno culturally, Mao is with the Nagas of Nagaland being closely related to the Angami-Nagas (P.P.Giridhar 1994).

Literature Review

The Mao language is the one of the Naga-Kuki group of language. It is closely connected with the western Naga languages. More than thirty three (33) Tibeto-Burman languages are found in Manipur. Out of these languages a few of them have officially recognized. There are a few
written works on Mao languages such as ‘Mao Naga Grammar’ by P.P.Ggidhar (1994). In his work, he mentions about the grammar of Mao languages. Grammar is divided into three major parts i.e. (a) the phoneme, its phonetics realization and its graphic representation (b) the word, its internal structures and external functional and (c) the phrase and sentences into phonology, morphology and syntax respectively. Another work on Mao languages is ‘Mao phonology’ a dissertation paper under Manipur University by Th. Jamuna Devi (1991). In her dissertation only Mao phonology of this language is discussed.

Methodology

In this present paper, primary data is incorporated. To avoid error in transcription of the sounds from the native speakers, questionnaires and tape-recorder are also scientifically used. The collection of primary data from different informant of various age group both educated and uneducated from different sexes. The interviewing and questionnaire methods are also used for this paper.

Numeral

A numeral is a word denoting a number. It can be classified into two categories i.e. (i) Cardinal number and (ii) Ordinal number.

Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal is a traditional term retained in some models of grammatical description referring to the class of numerals- one, two, three, four, five etc. It may be divided into two types. They are (a) Basic cardinals (b) compound cardinals.

Basic cardinal number

Basic cardinal numbers are those numbers which are used in counting and showing specifies as one, two, three etc. The basic cardinal in Mao is as follows.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kibernate</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kibernate</td>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kosate</td>
<td>three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pibernate</td>
<td>four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pibernate</td>
<td>five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cinote</td>
<td>six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cinote</td>
<td>seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cinote</td>
<td>eight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cibernate</td>
<td>nine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compound cardinal
Compound cardinals are formed by compounding the basic cardinals. It may be divided into two types. They are (i) Additive compound and (ii) Multiplicative compound.

Additive compound
Additive compounds are formed by adding the basic expression of numerals from one to nine to the decade numerals or multiplicative compounds. In Mao, they are formed by adding the basic numerals with the word /cia/ means ‘ten’, /m↔ke/ means ‘twenty’ i.e. ten plus one(10+1), ten plus two(10+2),twenty plus one(20+1) etc.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cia ‘ten’</td>
<td>k↔li ‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cia ‘ten’</td>
<td>k↔he ‘two’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cia ‘ten’</td>
<td>kosa ‘three’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cia ‘ten’</td>
<td>p↔de ‘four’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m↔ke ‘twenty’</td>
<td>k↔li ‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sia ‘thirty’</td>
<td>kosa ‘three’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repoNo ‘fifty’</td>
<td>poNo ‘five’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiplicative compounds
Multiplicative compounds are formed by compounding the basic cardinals to each other. It may be divided into two types.

(i) Lower multiplicative compounds and
(ii) Higher multiplicative compounds.

Lower multiplicative compounds
The lower multiplicative compounds are twenty, thirty, forty, and fifty, up to ninety. But in this forty, fifty, sixty, seventy, eighty, ninety are formed by adding prefix /re-/ ‘it gives the meaning of ten’ to the basic numerals. However, in the case of twenty, thirty the prefix /re-/ is not because they have their distinct form.
Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>m↔ke</td>
<td>twenty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sia</td>
<td>thirty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rep↔de</td>
<td>forty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>repoNo</td>
<td>fifty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rec↔ro</td>
<td>sixty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rec↔ne</td>
<td>seventy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rec↔ca</td>
<td>eighty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recoko</td>
<td>ninety</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Higher multiplicative compounds

Higher multiplicative compounds may be expressed as the multiples of hundred and thousand by placing /k↔re/ means ‘hundred’ and /tʰu/ means ‘thousand’ before cardinals.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔rek↔li</td>
<td>one hundred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔rek↔he</td>
<td>two hundred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔rekosa</td>
<td>three hundred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰucia</td>
<td>ten thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰupoNo</td>
<td>five thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰuce↔ro</td>
<td>six thousand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ordinal number

In Mao, ordinal numbers are formed by adding the suffix/-na/ to the cardinal numbers. But there is an exception for the word /k↔rena/ ‘first’. This is a separate word used instead of /k↔lina/.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔rena</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔hena</td>
<td>second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kosana</td>
<td>third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p↔dena</td>
<td>fourth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poNona</td>
<td>fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cokona</td>
<td>ninth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m↔kena</td>
<td>twentieth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Multiplicative numeral
The multiplicative numeral can be denoted by prefixing marker /k↔vu-/ to the numerals. The first syllable of the numeral is loss.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔vu + k↔li &gt; k↔vuli</td>
<td>once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔vu + k↔he &gt;</td>
<td>twice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔vuhe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔vu + kosa &gt; k↔vusa</td>
<td>thrice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above examples, the initial sounds of the numerals are loss morphophonemically when it is combined to form the multiplicative numerals.

Aggregative numeral
Aggregative numerals are formed by suffixing /-no/ ‘together’ to the cardinal numerals.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔he no</td>
<td>two together or both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kosano</td>
<td>three together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poNono</td>
<td>five together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciano</td>
<td>ten together</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Approximate numeral
In Mao, approximate numerals are formed by suffixing /-pha/ means ‘about’ to the cardinal numerals.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔li + pʰa</td>
<td>about one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔he + pʰa</td>
<td>about two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kosa + pʰa</td>
<td>about three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cia + pʰa</td>
<td>about ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m↔ke + pʰa</td>
<td>about twenty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fractional numeral
Fractional numerals in Mao can be divided into monomorphic and dimorphic fractions.

Monomorphic numerals:
Dimorphemic numerals are formed by adding /-hino-/ to the cardinals.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kosa-hino-k↔li</td>
<td>one third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p↔de-hino-k↔li</td>
<td>one forth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poNo-hino-k↔he</td>
<td>two fifth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poNo-hino-kosa</td>
<td>three fifth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indefinite numerals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kotuta</td>
<td>some/few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p↔i</td>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔tara</td>
<td>anyone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ome</td>
<td>group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kʰru</td>
<td>bunch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Restrictive numerals**

Restrictive numerals in Mao are formed by adding the suffix /-likʰri/ ‘only’ to the cardinal numerals.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mao</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k↔likʰri</td>
<td>only one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k↔helikʰri</td>
<td>only two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kosalikʰri</td>
<td>only three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cialikʰri</td>
<td>only ten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

Numeral is an integral part of a language which is used in everyday life. It has sometime been considered as part of core vocabulary. It is also an important role in the construction of syntactic and morphology. The way of constructing higher number is by multiplication and addition. Overall, the numeral system in Mao is a decimal system. However cardinal numbers are more complex and more formal structure than ordinal numbers.
Reference


English and the Language Endangerment: a Study of the Kashmiri Language

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Abstract: At present, the linguistic scenario of the whole world is changing at a rather fast pace with English language reaching almost every nook and corner. People willingly learn and use this language for social, economic and academic benefits throughout the world. The indigenous linguistic communities of the world have received this language or at least its influence consciously or unconsciously to keep pace with the fast changing trends in this new globalised world. Though, the arrival of English language has enriched the native linguistic communities of the world, yet, it has some repercussions also. It has emerged as a great threat to many local/native languages of the world which are now on the verge of extinction.

The present paper aims at showing how has the intrusion of the English language not only benefitted the native Kashmiris linguistically, but how it has has a negative side also, that is, how it has posed a threat to Kashmiri; the native language of the province. How has the competence and proficiency of the natives in their mother tongue been affected under the influence of the English language leading to the gradual decline of the former. The main focus of the paper is to highlight the endangered and dying position of the native Kashmiri language under the all pervading and hegemonic influence of English which has become the most relevant language of the province in socio-economic terms resulting in the negative attitude of the people towards the former.

Key words: Language endangerment, threatened language/s, competence, proficiency, intergenerational translation.

The valley of Kashmir has got a rich social, cultural intellectual, religious and linguistic history which has made this province a point of interest and attraction for people across the globe from time to time. For economic, religious and political reasons, people have come or have been coming to this land which automatically has resulted in the intrusion of different languages or at least their influence over here. Kashmiri, the native language of the province has encountered many languages like Sanskrit, Persians, Arabic, Urdu, and English. The entry of these languages has affected the native Kashmiri language both positively and negatively.
English, at present, has become a link language, a library language, an international language and a *lingua franca* and has made entry into almost all the geographical regions of the world including India. A must for all to excel in the professional and academic spheres of life, English is held to be the language of opportunities globally and its sweep and relevance is such that it has almost lost its nativity. Not only has English language provided people an access to the international/global market, but has also benefitted them economically, technologically and so on.

To India, English language has come with the East India company in 1600, but presently, it has become a vital and significant factor to exploit new technological advancements, gain knowledge and manage economy. Crystal (1997:41) observes:

In terms of number of English speakers, the Indian subcontinent ranks third in the world, after the USA and UK. This is largely due to the special position which the language has come to hold in India itself, where it has been estimated that some 4 or 5 percent of the people now make regular use of English approaching 40 million in 1996.

The English language came to the valley of Kashmir in the second half of the nineteenth century with Christian missionaries who initially faced a lot of opposition and criticism resulting in the negative attitude of the people towards this language (English). War (2008:66) comments, “the approach to English by the Kashmiris was not positive and assumptions like English being the devil’s language and learning English was equivalent to becoming a Christian were prevalent.” In addition to the hostile attitude of the people towards English, some other socio-political reasons responsible for the late development and growth of the English language were Dogra King’s apathy towards education of common Kashmiris, low literacy rate, greater inclination towards education in religious institutions (Darasgahs/Pathshalas/Darulalools, etc.). It became part of the educational system of the state in the post independent period.

‘The devil’s Language’ as English was referred to initially, it has now turned out to be the most dominant language in the valley and has almost overshadowed the native Kashmiri language in all the functional domains. Currently, English language is ruling the roost and is inching towards becoming the most preferred and used language in the province; thereby throwing the Kashmiri language into the background. As for as the educational system of Kashmir at all levels (universities, colleges, high/primary schools) is concerned, English is the medium of instruction. It has intruded into almost all the important domains of Kashmir like administration, upper level judiciary, media, banks, health security, construction and revenue departments (govt./private), etc. In terms of print media, English newspapers rather than newspapers in any other language/s are growing with a phenomenal growth in readership. English language has become a priority not only for the young students and children who for academic purposes are desperate to learn this language, but also for the middle-aged people.
becoming a different professional fields like law, medicine, tourism, banking, etc. who feel a pressing need to be well versed with this language.

The present linguistic scenario of Kashmir reflects that English is an all-pervading language in the most significant and prestigious social domains in the province where natives have accepted this language for economic, social and academic benefits. The functional domains of Kashmir are being occupied by English and not the native Kashmiri language, the use of which is now confined only to the domestic life of the people. The competence of natives in their mother tongue has been impacted tremendously by the growing use and preference of English language. People, especially, children and youth do not feel comfortable with Kashmiri and most of the times, they switch over to the English language while conversing. This problem with the competence of the natives in their mother tongue indicates the withering/dwindling position of the Kashmiri language. As Crystal (2000:11) rightly comments that “But unless it (language) has fluent speakers, one would not talk of it as a living language”. The comparative analysis of both the languages under consideration shows that most if not all the people are proficient in three or sometimes all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) of English; whereas, in case of the Kashmiri language they have proficiency in only first two skills (listening and speaking). Reading and writing are simply not known to them.

With the local native Kashmiris, the use of English language has become an epitome of fashion as its use seems to give a modern, sophisticated and elegant touch to their overall personality. The attitude of people towards English is highly positive because of its tremendous economic and market value. People are keen to learn this language as it seems to open up new doors of the job market. While as, the Kashmiri language has no economic/market value which has unavoidably resulted in the negative attitude of the people towards it. The positive attitude of the Kashmiri people towards English is because of the social prestige that is attached to it. The better one’s acquaintance with this language (English), the more socially and culturally prestigious one becomes. Whereas; people speaking Kashmiri language fail to impress others socially. Therefore, it becomes clear that the Kashmiri people show a fast growing interest in English language for socio economic reasons which has everything to offer to them. Kashmiri language, on the other hand, seems to be at the verge of death and extinction as the attitude of the people is negative towards it for socio economic reasons. As Aitchison (1981:221) rightly observes:

Language death is a social phenomenon, and triggered by the social needs. There is no evidence that there was anything wrong with the dead language itself: its essential structure was no better and no worse than that of any other language. It faded away because it did not fulfill the social needs of the community who spoke it.
Kashmiri language seems to have lost all its social and economic relevance resulting in the loss of interest of people towards learning and using it. Singh’s (2006:11) remarks are very appropriate,

It is difficult to expect people to stick to their language only for sentimental cultural association while, the socio economic environment is favorable to the other language. If the socio economic environment favours the language other than the mother tongue of a person, he is more likely to shift the language”.

In addition, the great motivating factor for learning English and not the mother tongue is its relevance and significance in education where on cannot do without this language. In fact, English education has become a synonym for higher education as Kak (2007) comments, “Higher education as well as good education in Kashmir means English education.” This hegemony of English in education has lead Kashmiri language to take a back seat.

The priority for English language in the valley is supported by the functional, social, economic and academic aspects which are missing in case of the native Kashmiri language. Thus, its withering/dwindling and endangered position. People use English language with confidence and ignore their own mother tongue which has perhaps nothing to offer in social, economic and academic terms. As per Wienrich (1953:78):

Under certain social conditions, the mastery of a language becomes important for an individual not merely as a means of communication, but as a means to social advance …. Sometimes the condition of social advance may even require the ostensible ignorance of another language which may be a person’s mother tongue. The usefulness of a language in social advance usually has a highly significant corollary: the importance of knowing that language well.

People show a leaning towards English language because they expect that it provides them with better opportunities for upward social mobility and economic success. While as, opposite is true in case of Kashmiri language which lacks all the social, economic and academic back-up thereby pointing to the dying and declining nature of this language. In the words of Kachru (2002:45), “A language dies or decays because its users believe that it has no vital uses for them ... and generally shift to other languages ----- languages that provide access to, functionally and attitudinally greener pastures.”

The mushrooming of English medium schools across the valley is again an indication of the significance attached to the English language and not to the Kashmiri language which is not transmitted by people to their younger generation, particularly, the elite-educated class who are desperate to make their children proficient in the English language. Besides, there is to be seen a phenomenal increase in the number in the English language teaching institutions like VETA, LIBRA, MINDMINE, etc. where student are seen thronging to come to terms with this language.
In the backdrop of all the aforementioned facts, it is evident that the indigenous Kashmiri language is just at a verge of extinction under the hegemonic and all sweeping influence of English. Slowly and gradually, the native Kashmiri language is losing its ground and position providing space and way for the English language. Due to the tremendous increase in the growth and development of English, Kashmiri language is heading towards its attrition which is one of the symptoms of a dying language. English language is posing a great threat to the native language which has been thrown out of all the important functional domains, in which people lack competence and proficiency, which lacks inter-generational transmission and which has no socio-economic relevance. All these aspects are symptomatic of the oncoming loss, decay and death of the native Kashmiri language.

In conclusion, it is pertinent to say that if the present linguistic condition continues in the valley, Kashmiri language would surely get entry into the list of the endangered languages of the subcontinent. At present, it seems to possess all the qualities of a threatened/endangered language. With reference to the condition of threatened languages in general, Crystal (2000:22) quotes Johan Van Hoorce; the senior project manager at the Nederlandse Talunie, an organization set up by the Dutch and Belgium government to promote Dutch language which has about twenty-one million speakers at present:

Dutch may not be threatened with extinction in the short or medium term, but it is in danger of losing domains. It could eventually become a colloquial language, a language you use at home to speak with your family— a language you can best express your emotions in --- but not the one you use for the serious things in life; work, money, science, technology.

Bibliography


Subordination: A Perspective of Manipuri Embedded Clause Structures

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Abstract: Manipuri, being one of the Tibeto-Burman languages has a very unique place among the languages of the world. It has its own literatures and grammars and also is the richest preserver of the heritage of old literature than any other languages in Manipur, a north-eastern state of India. The present paper studies the syntactic structures regarding the various forms of embedded clauses prevailing in Manipuri. The analysis exhibits the facts that all the embedded clauses in Manipuri are constructed through the addition of nominalizer, quotative and nominalizer along with case markers. This paper also discusses structural and functional classification of embedded clauses in Manipuri. Structurally, embedded clauses are composed of by adding nominalizers, quotatives and nominalizers along with case markers. Functionally embedded clauses in a matrix sentence perform the function of nouns, adjectives and adverbs.

Subordination

Subordination is a non-symmetrical relation, holding between two clauses- an independent, capable of existing as a complete sentence and a dependent, capable of making up a grammatical sentence only when subordinated to a further clause. Subordination is between the two clauses in such a way that the dependent clause is a constituent or part of the independent clause that is, one of the parts is clearly more salient or important, while the other part is in some sense subordinate.

In subordination, one may see subordination as the ‘downgrading’ of a clause to a clause to the status of a sub-clausal unit (Quirk, et. al, 1972). The device of subordination enables one to organize multiple clause structures.

Embedded clauses

In the formation of complex sentences, a matrix clause consisting of atleast an NP and and a VP and an embedded clause with its various forms, takes part in the construction of Manipuri complex sentences. The embedded clause here always takes subordinators formed by case markers (like, locative -t↔~d↔, genitive -ki↔gi, associative -k↔~g↔ and ablative -t↔gi↔d↔gi), lexical subordinators (such as, phau ‘upto’ and kand ‘at the time of’) and suffix subordinators (such as, demonstrative -ti↔~di, and the suffix -su).
Embedded clauses, in Manipuri are constructed by adding nominalizers to the non-inflected verbal root of the clause, quotatives after the verb of the clause and nominalizers along with case markers after the verb of the clause. Embedded clauses may be classified as structural type, that is, in terms of the elements they themselves contain and functional type, that is, the structural position they have in the super ordinate clause.

**Structural classification**

Structurally, an embedded clause in Manipuri is constructed by three basic forms. The three forms which are significant in embedded clause constructions are as follows:

i) by nominalizers suffixing to a non-inflected verb;

ii) by complementizers suffixing to the nominalized clause;

iii) by nominalizers along with case markers suffixing to the verb.

**Embedded clauses formed by nominalizers**

In Manipuri, verbs in embedded clauses are nominalized in a number of ways and they function as modifying part, or nominalized complements. The nominalizers are the suffix -p↔-b↔ and lexical- jat ‘type’ and pot ‘thing’. The nominalizing suffix -p↔-b↔ has a number of cognates in some Tibeto-Burman languages. This suffix reveals functional similarities with that of Lahu -‘ve’ at least as a nominalizer and as a subordinator. A language spoken in Nepal, Thulung Rai employs -mu, -m, -mim, -kHom as different nominalizers (Lahaussois, 2003). But Angami has a single nominalizing morpheme k↔ (Herring, 1991). A Bodish language namely Chantyal employs -wa nominalizer for multifarious functional (Noonan, 1997). The formation of embedded clauses by adding nominalizers in Manipuri is illustrated as follows.

1(a). n↔N lakp↔ i kH↔NNi

You come-NZR I know-ASP

‘I know your coming’.

(b). m↔hak mi hatp↔gi d↔ndi pH↔Nb↔ni

He person kill-NZR-GEN punishment get-NZR-COP

‘He got punishment for murder’.

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As a fact that the structure of subordinate clauses is first nominalized with nominalizing morpheme -p↔-b↔ as in 1(a), 1(b) and 1(c) and with lexical nominalizers, jat ‘type’ and pot ‘thing’ as in 1(d) and 1(e).

**Embedded clauses formed by quotatives**

Quotatives in Manipuri derived from the verb root hai ‘say’ through the addition of the suffixes such as hai-bo, hai-na, hai-ba-du, hai-ridu, hai-ri-du-bu, hai-nasu, hai-nobu, hai-nobu-dum, hai-du-nasu, etc. take part in the construction of embedded clauses. The quotative is used to subordinate a clause that represents statements made by someone other than the speaker or statements about the desires, wishes, or intentions of someone other than the speaker (Chelliah, 1997). Illustrative examples are given below.

2(a). ram h↔l-l↔ke hai-b↔ ↔i tai
    ram h↔l-l↔k-e hai-b↔ ↔i ta-i
    Ram return-INCT-ASP say-NZR I hear-ASP
    ‘I hear that Ram has returned’.

(b). ransom↔ liNgustiks t↔mbi hain↔ ↔i kH↔lli
Ram-ERG linguistics teach say-ADV I think-ASP

‘I think that Ram teaches linguistics’.

The quotatives -haib↔ and -hain↔ make complement to the subordinate clauses which already have complete sense or thought, i.e. ram h↔li↔ke ‘Ram has returned’ in 2(a) and ramn↔li↔Nguistiks t↔mbi ‘Ram teaches linguistics’ in 2(b) are the complement embedded clauses and they are made complement by the quotatives -haib↔ and -hain↔ respectively; and for this the two quotatives are treated as sentential complements.

**Embedded clauses formed by nominalizers with case markers**

The nominalizer -p↔-b↔ along with case markers enable one to construct embedded clauses in Manipuri. The whole clause gets first nominalized and as a continuing process respective case markers are added as analyzed in the following examples.

3(a). m↔pa lakp↔d↔gi caub↔ cen-kΗre

m↔pa lak-p↔d↔gi caub↔ cen-kΗ↔re

3PP-father come-NZR-ABL Chaoba run-DEF-PERF

‘Chaoba has run away as his father came’.

(b). hek lakp↔g↔ n↔Ngi h↔un↔bidu t↔ur↔br↔

hek lak-p↔g↔ n↔N-gi h↔un↔bi-du t↔u-r↔b↔r↔

just come-NZR-ASS you-GEN nature-DEM do-PROG-NZR-INT

‘Did you do as soon as you just arrive?’

It is clearly noticed from the sentences cited in (3) that the nominalizing morpheme -p↔-b↔ along with different case markers construct various embedded clauses. It is also fact that the whole embedded clause is first nominalized and as a continuing process respective case markers are added.

Case markers such as ablative -d↔gi in 3(a) and associative -g↔ in 3(b) are employed. Again as a nominalized clause sentences given below can be considered.

4(a). mi ↔nidu sire
mi ↔ni-du si-re
person two-DEM die-PERF

‘The two persons have died’.

(b). mi ↔nidu N↔raN pHakHi
mi ↔ni-du N↔raN pHa-kHi

person two-DEM yesterday arrest-PERF

‘The two men were arrested yesterday’.

(c). N↔raN pHakHi↔ mi ↔nidu sire
N↔raN pHa-kHi-b↔ mi ↔ni-du si-re

yesterday arrest-PERF-NZR person two-DEM die-PERF

‘The two persons whom were arrested yesterday have died’.

It signifies that sentence 4(b) is embedded in 4(a) as a modifier of the noun phrase nupa ↔nidu ‘the two persons’ to get the sentence 4(c) where the main clause mi ↔nidu sire ‘the two persons have died’ signifies the focal prediction of the subordinate clause. In sentence 4(c) above, the entire main clause mi ↔nidu sire ‘the two persons have died’ is modified by the embedded clause N↔raNpHakHi↔ ‘who were arrested yesterday’ as a modifier, i.e. ‘who are the two persons died’ is modified by the clause ‘they were the ones arrested yesterday’.

Functional classification

Subordinate clauses are embedded as a constituent of the matrix sentence and they function like a noun, adjective and adverb.

Subordinate noun clauses

Subordinate noun clauses, on the basis of grammatical function in syntactic structures, perform the function of a noun being used in subject and object positions of the verb in the matrix sentences. In the following sentences, embedded clauses occur in the subject position of the verb.

Subordinate noun clauses in subject position

5(a). [m↔hakn↔haib↔du] cumde
m↔hak-n↔ hai-b↔du cum-de-i
he-ERG      say-NZR-DEM   be true-NEG-ASP

‘What he said is not true’.

(b).  [n↔Nn↔NaNli-du] pHe↔j↔i
     n↔N-n↔   NaN-li-du   pH↔j↔i

you-ERG   speak-PROG-DEM  be nice-ASP

‘What you are speaking is nice’.

Evidence is that the clause m↔hakn↔haib↔xdu ‘what he said’ in sentence 5(a) performs the function of a noun being used as the subject of the verb cumde ‘be true+NEG+ASP’. The clause m↔hakn↔haib↔xdu ‘what he said’ is an embedded nominalized noun clause which directly precedes the main verb cumde ‘be true+NEG+ASP’ and functions as a noun that is, the sentence can be as wapHe↔mdu cumde ‘The word is not true’. In this sentence wapHe↔mdu ‘word+DEM’ acts as subject of the verb cumde ‘be true+NEG+ASP’ and the subject can be replaced by the clause m↔hakn↔haib↔xdu ‘what he said’ and hence the clause acts as embedded noun clause. The underlying sentence structure might be as m↔hakn↔haib↔wadu cumde ‘what he said is not true’. The sentence is possible to shorten by dropping the word wapHe↔m however, the very demonstrative -du remains attached to the derived noun haib↔‘say+NZR’.

Subordinate noun clauses in object position

Subordinate noun clauses in object position of the verb are illustrated by the examples given below.

6(a).  m↔hakn↔dakte↔oib↔m↔man↔pammi
       m↔hak-n↔ dakte↔o-i-b↔ m↔ma-n↔  pam-i

he-ERG      doctor   be-NZR   3PP-mother-ERG    like-ASP

‘His mother likes that he becomes a doctor’.

(b).  m↔nin↔ haib↔wadu ↔i tare
     m↔ni-n↔   hai-b↔   wa-du   ↔i ta-re

Mani-ERG     say-NZR    word-DEM    I    hear-PERF
‘I have heard what Mani spoke’.

The embedded clause $m \leftrightarrow \text{hakn} \leftrightarrow dakt \leftrightarrow r \text{oib} \leftrightarrow$ ‘that he becomes a doctor’ functions as noun being used in the object position of the verb $\text{pammi}$ ‘like+ASP’ in sentence 6(a). The whole clause first gets nominalized and it lies also as a complement of the matrix clause $m \leftrightarrow \text{man} \leftrightarrow \text{pammi}$ ‘his mother likes’. In sentence 6(b), the clause $m \leftrightarrow \text{nin} \leftrightarrow \text{haib} \leftrightarrow \text{wadu}$ ‘the word that Mani said’ is the embedded clause functioning as a noun being used in the object position of the verb $\text{tare}$ ‘hear+PERF’.

**Subordinate adjective clauses**

Subordinate adjective clause performs the function of an adjective modifying the NP that lies as a head. The following illustrations can be considered.

7(a). $\leftrightarrow \text{in} \leftrightarrow \text{pamb} \leftrightarrow \text{nupidi} \leftrightarrow \text{Nni}$
\[ \leftrightarrow \text{i-n} \leftrightarrow \text{pam-b} \leftrightarrow \text{nupi-di} \leftrightarrow \text{N-ni} \]
I-ERG like-NZR woman-DEM you-COP

‘You are the woman whom I like’.

(b). $m \leftrightarrow \text{hakn} \leftrightarrow s \leftrightarrow \text{kp} \leftrightarrow \text{is} \leftrightarrow \text{i-du mijamn} \leftrightarrow \text{pammi}$
\[ m \leftrightarrow \text{hak-n} \leftrightarrow s \leftrightarrow \text{k-p} \leftrightarrow \text{is} \leftrightarrow \text{i-du mijam-n} \leftrightarrow \text{pam-i} \]
he-ERG sing-NZR song-DEM people-ERG like-ASP

‘The song that he sang is liked by all’.

In the illustration of 7(a), the clause can be identified as $\leftrightarrow \text{in} \leftrightarrow \text{pamb} \leftrightarrow$ ‘whom I like’ is the embedded clause preceding the NP $\text{nupi-du}$ ‘woman+DEM’. Since this embedded clause modifies the head NP, the clause becomes an embedded adjective clause.

Again considering 7(b), the clause $m \leftrightarrow \text{hakn} \leftrightarrow s \leftrightarrow \text{kp} \leftrightarrow$ ‘that he sang’ precedes the head noun $\text{is} \leftrightarrow i$ ‘song’ and which is modified by the clause. The clause becomes an embedded adjective clause as it modifies the NP.

**Subordinate adverb clauses**

Subordinate clause functioning as an adverb modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb and also modifies the entire matrix clause to which the subordinate clause is embedded.

8(a). $m \leftrightarrow \text{hak sonb} \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow \text{tp} \leftrightarrow \text{N} \leftrightarrow \text{mde}$
He is too weak to go'.

In sentences 8(a) and 8(b), the subordinate clauses functioning as adverb

9(a). t⇌upH⇌m kH⇌Nd⇌b⇌n⇌m⇌hak Naure
t⇌u-pH⇌m kH⇌N-d⇌b⇌n⇌ m⇌hak Nau-re
do-place know-NEG-NZR-ADV he be mad-PERF

‘He is mad as he has nothing to do’.

(b). m⇌se⇌k tHim⇌nb⇌n⇌m⇌hak ikaire
m⇌se⇌k tHi-m⇌n-b⇌n⇌ m⇌hak ikai-re
3PP-face be ugly-excess-NZR-ADV she shy-PERF

‘She feels shy as she is quite ugly’.

In sentence 9(a), it is observed that the clause t⇌upH⇌m kH⇌Nd⇌b⇌n⇌m⇌ ‘as he has nothing to do’ functions as an adverb clause modifying the main verb Naure ‘be made+PERF’. It is therefore, the subordinate clause t⇌upH⇌m kH⇌Nd⇌b⇌n⇌m⇌ becomes the reason for the occurrence of the main clause m⇌hak Naure, that is, the proposition of the subordinate clause is the reason for the proposition of the main clause and therefore modifies.
Similarly in 9(b), the clause $m \leftrightarrow s \leftrightarrow k t H_{im} \leftrightarrow n b \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow \text{‘as she is quite ugly’}$ functions as an adverb which modifies the adjective $i k a i r e \text{‘be shame+PERF’}$ and as well as the clause itself becomes the reason for the occurrence of the main clause $m \leftrightarrow h a k i k a i r e \text{‘she feels shy’}$. It is therefore, the proposition of subordinate clause $m \leftrightarrow s \leftrightarrow k t H_{im} \leftrightarrow n b \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow \text{‘as she is quite ugly’}$ is the reason for the occurrence of the main clause $m \leftrightarrow h a k i k a i r e \text{‘she feels shy’}$ and is modified.

The subordinate clause which functions as an adverb also modifies another adverb in the larger sentence.

Examples:

10(a). $t \leftrightarrow p n \leftrightarrow l a k p \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow m \leftrightarrow h a k k H \leftrightarrow r \leftrightarrow t H e N N i$

$t \leftrightarrow p \cdot n \leftrightarrow l a k-p \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow m \leftrightarrow h a k \cdot k H \leftrightarrow r \leftrightarrow t H e-N \cdot i$

be slow-ADV come-NZR-ADV he some be late-ASP

‘He got something late since he came slowly’.

(b). $s a u-n \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow t k H i b \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow m \leftrightarrow h a k j a m-n \leftrightarrow t H u i$

$s a u-n \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow t-k H i-b \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow m \leftrightarrow h a k \cdot j a m-n \leftrightarrow t H u-i$

be angry-ADV go-PERF-NZR-ADV he very-ADV be quick-ASP

‘He is very quick since he has gone angrily’.

Considering the example in 10(a) it can be noticed that the subordinate clause functioning as adverb shows close grammatical relationships with the main clause itself. The main clause $m \leftrightarrow h a k k H \leftrightarrow r \leftrightarrow t H e N N i \text{‘he got something late’}$ is modified by the subordinate clause $t \leftrightarrow p n \leftrightarrow l a k p \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow \text{‘since he came slowly’}$. It expresses the reason for getting himself late that is, because of coming slowly and hence becomes a proposition which binds a reason for the occurrence of both the clauses.

Similarly, in 10(b), the subordinate clause functioning as adverb clause $s a u-n \leftrightarrow c \leftrightarrow t k H i b \leftrightarrow n \leftrightarrow \text{‘since he went angrily’}$ modifies the main clause $m \leftrightarrow h a k j a m-n \leftrightarrow t H u-i \text{‘he is very quick’}$ expressing the reason why he is very quick, that is, because of going angrily and hence a close relation with each clauses.

It is clear that subordinate noun clauses being used in subject and object positions perform the functions of a noun. Subordinate adjective clauses, on the other hand, are prenominal embedded clauses that modify the NP which occurs in the same sentence. In some other case, the order of the position of the adjective clause is also possible to occur after the NP. But the adjective clause precedes the matrix (main) clause. Subordinate clause functioning as
adverb in Manipuri is found as causal clause, conditional clause as well as permissive clause under semantic classification.

Case markers such as associative (-k↔-g↔), genitive (-ki↔-gi), locative (-t↔-d↔) and ablative (-t↔-gi↔-d↔-gi) derive clausal subordinators following a pattern that is common in Tibeto-Burman languages, as noted by Konow (1909).

The associative case marker -k↔-g↔ is used to create an adverbial clause which signals a temporal sequence of events. The genitive marker -ki↔-gi can be suffixed to a nominalized verb to indicate a clause of purpose. The locative marker -t↔-d↔ may be suffixed to a nominalized verb to indicate a time clause with the meaning of ‘when verb+ing’. The ablative marker -t↔-gi↔-d↔-gi is used to form a subordinate clause which gives an explanation for a current state that has just come into being. It can be translated as ‘resulting from verb’.

11(a). [m↔hak lakp↔g↔] k↔pKRe

m↔hak  lak-p↔g↔  k↔pK↔re
she come-NZR-ASS cry-DEF-PERF

‘She started crying as she arrived’.

(b). [n↔Nn↔haib↔gi] ↔i lakp↔ni

n↔N-n↔ hai-b↔gi ↔i lak-p↔ni
you-ERG say-NZR-GEN I come-NZR-COP

‘I have come as you said’.

(c). [n↔N lakp↔d↔gi] imuNsi nuNNaire

n↔N lak-p↔d↔gi imuN-si nuNai-re
you come-NZR-ABL house-DEM be happy-PERF

‘This family became happy after you have come’.

All these clauses marked with bracket are the subordinate clauses denoting the time to express the matrix clauses. The case markers -g↔, -gi, -d↔ and -d↔-gi as subordinators are held by adding to the clauses such as m↔hak lakp↔g↔ ‘as she has arrived’ in 11(a), n↔Nn↔ haib↔gi ‘as you said’ in 11(b) and n↔N lakp↔d↔gi ‘after you have come’ in 11(c). These clauses signaling temporal of events are first nominalized with the morpheme -p↔-b↔ and then case markers are suffixed.
Conclusion

In the light of the above discussion, it is noticed that subordination in Manipuri takes nominalizers to construct embedded clauses. Nominalizers such as suffixal and lexical playing a significant role take part in the construction of embedded clauses. In embedded clauses formed by adding nominalizer along with case markers, the verb of that clause gets first nominalized and as a continuing process respective case markers are added. The entity that lies as the head NP can be kept disguised in subject and object positions of an embedded clause. Subordinate adjective clauses are prenominal. The verb in the matrix clause is modified by the embedded clause in subordinate adverb clauses signaling causal clause, conditional clause and permissive clause.

Abbreviations

2PP  second person pronoun
3PP  third person pronoun
ABL  ablative
ADV  adverb
ASP  aspect
ASS  associative
BEN  benefactive
COP  copula
DAT  dative
DEF  defective
DEM  demonstrative
ERG  ergative
GEN  genitive
IMP  imperative
INT  interrogative
INCT  inceptive
LOC  locative
NZR  nominalizer
NEG  negative
PERF  perfective
PL  plural
PROG  progressive

References

Role of English for Specific Purposes in the 21st Century-Paths and Challenges

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Abstract: The paper reviews the ever changing significance of English in brief in order to know about the trends of teaching that revolutionized the language learning especially as the Second Language in India. The emergence of increased importance of English language is traced peeping into retrospect with a view to feel the pulse of Higher Education in India. This enables the reader to realize the widened gap occurred on account of fighting for freedom from British English, which was to be replaced by regional languages. The advent of Information and Communication Technology, ICT and its influence exerted globally, made it a language used for various purposes. Visualizing the scenario in the field of Science and Technology, the paper sorts out the problems cropping up there of and furnishes a certain solutions clubbed with experiences of classroom teaching giving scope for further research by exploring the areas open for meticulous and close study through Action Researches.

Introduction:

Language for special purposes in register based enunciation of methods for promoting language skills required in a particular field of study. The language mechanism has to be disseminated in terms of the special purposes bridging the previous knowledge with the abridged grammaticality unlike that of the one exclusively for enjoyment of literature. The communicative aspect has to be safeguarded by a judicious administering of language components. The destiny of empowerment lies in the innovative ways of acquiring language skills.

Role of English:

Retrospect and Prospect

"A University stands for humanism, for tolerance, for reason, for the adventure of ideas and for the onward march of human race towards even higher objectives. If the Universities discharge their duties adequately, then it will be well with the nation and people."

- Jawaharlal Nehru in his address to a convocation of Allahabad University in 1947.

There are three aspects of higher education, which are of relatively recent origin_Social, economic and industrial specialisation. The tendency has been strengthened due to expansion of knowledge since, within given time it is not possible to include vast areas of disciplines or
subjects in the curriculum. For example philosophy gave birth to psychology and many specialisations including various sciences. Because of specialisation today's student in higher education knows more and more about less and less and sometimes special efforts are necessary to create a broader understanding of subjects and disciplines. The second aspect is that societies grew complex, more selective and efficient means of cultural transmission evolved. The curriculum has crystallised into clear-cut papers of courses.

The third aspect is creation of knowledge. There exists a symbiotic relation between research and specialisation of knowledge and skills.

In Europe the trivium (study of grammar logic and rhetoric) and the quadrivium (arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music). These seven liberal arts were added to medicine, law and administration in medieval period. The process of refinement, transmission, and exploration widened the arena of learning.

The Education commission (1964 – 66) by D.S. Kothari says, “The universities should seek and cultivate new knowledge, engage vigourously and fearlessly in the pursuit of truth and interpret old knowledge and beliefs in the light of new needs and discoveries.”

Higher levels of per capita income are also based on higher levels of scientific and technological attainment. Economic development depends upon intelligent and wise consumption Education contributes to both.

"Woods Despatch"(Charles Woods) of 1854 gave support to technical education and women's education.

Making a case for the study of English under ESP:

Calcutta University commission Report (1919) and University Education commission (1948) strengthened the view that sciences, technology and selective institutions remain firmly anchored to English.

In the wake of globalisation and the age of Information Communication Technology (ICT), the working knowledge of English has to be devised in order to cope with the fastly changing scientific development. For instance every few months or even every few weeks we hear of new discoveries and new applications in computers. In order to keep pace with this speed, the educator should devise means for quick acquisition of language skills needed for each area of operation. This raises a curtain for the study ' English for Specific Purposes'

Need for ESP:

The explosion of knowledge has hastened the learner to shift him/herself to pour through a number of books of technical nature in order to up-date his assumptions. Communication is the
medium through which he/she can assert her influence of learning and apt attitudes. He / She must be in a position to communicate with energy. The ‘ACE’ system of technical worthiness to manage things to become a promising youth of career building is the objective of Technical Education. The assumptions are formed as a result of in-depth understanding of the content subject. English language has to be studied for the acquisition of skills. The energy refers to the personality development. With the advent of the emerging urgent needs the age-old method of learning a language for pedantry and argument are not workable. So the objective based programming of the language study is named English for Specific Purposes. The structures, vocabulary and the functional grammar are to envisaged by the teachers / planners of curricula, accordingly. Instant and precise practice - items of language are to be brought to light.

**Content Subjects and Register:**

Every branch of knowledge uses words and phrases particular to the specific branch. It is more so with science and technology, purely literature mode of language is not desirable. The rhetoric has no place in technical studies. As such the straightforward and clear expression in language is of greater importance today. The changes in computer usages have given rise to registers, peculiar to science and technology. Humanities too are studied according to cause and effect mode and so the use of English language has turned to be functional rather than theoretical. They have created a particular way of putting things named as register. Hence the teachers of English have to modernise the very grammatical approach, in line with the needs of the branches concerned.

**Innovative Language Learning:**

To day's classrooms have to be furnished with gadgets useful for communication in addition to the teacher as a programmer. The language lab assistance has helped the teacher in the 21st century. For example exposure to radio and T.V has been replaced by speaking and correcting devices in language learning. In the days to come grammatical rules are to be arrived at by a certain games in the usage. In other words there is more feasibility of exposure to language than it was felt earlier in the last century. Just like the chapters under content subjects English Language learning is going to be conducted in programming process rather than in teaching learning ones. So the teachers of English have to devise their teaching with the help of innovative methods of teaching. In the place of deductive method of rule to explanation, we the teachers have to lead the learners to arrive at the principles after scanning and analysis of the examples to frame rules through inductive method.

**Non-verbal assistance in language learning:**

Now that the scientific terms have gained ground the graphic representation speaks more than the verbal directions. The nomenclature and terminology has to be revamped so as to suit
the concept of scientific presentation. For example the term Affirmative or Assertive has to be known as positive and the opposite sense, opposite to it may as the negative. In the place of subject and predicate division the segmental names like subject(s), verb(v), object(o), and complement(c) can be introduced. This attitudinal change in acquisition leads to realise English for Specific Purposes.

ESP CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

Condensation of learning units:

ESP entails the lessening of burden of students in the wake of pressing overload of content subjects. The competitive examinations are coercive on the part of the students so as to almost neglect the comprehensive knowledge of English Grammar.

Francis Bacon opined that grammar is learnt only once in one's life. Grammar once ingrained cannot be forgotten. But the present day explosion of branches of knowledge does not enable the learner to attain a comprehensive knowledge of the mechanism of the language. The tit bits of pragmatic use of language items are difficult to be earmarked. No frequency tables are available to follow except the basic words to be found in advanced dictionaries. So the learning of language items covered may prove to be inadequate for communication. The proposed ESP poses challenges to be faced by the educator to realise its purpose.

The remedy of this short coming can be met by taking up gradation of structures useful for technical communication and the communication for human relationships and management of enterprises. Now that teaching learning has emerged as an enterprise the teacher of English has to be an explorer cum interpreter of second language, that has got amalgamated with new global culture.

Declensions and Juxtapositions:

An imaginative teacher draws the attention of students towards various forms of categorical words i.e, parts of speech. Instead of giving a wide range of rules for defining each item, the teacher can make the students realise the difference when the form of a particular category undergoes, a change in structure. The learner has to place them in appropriate blocks of a structure. Even the common structures employed in technical text books (eg. active and passive voice, position and its way of stating or the use of be-forms ) can be taken as examples. This will make the language learning an easy task.

Non recognition of a word (modern grammar calls it as 'origin ') and how it inflects is a major hurdle experienced at the tertiary level. For example students cannot distinguish between 'sale' and 'sell' and commit errors in usage.
Common Error Approach:

An error is to be kept away from exposure. In its place a correct form should be repeated intensively. Most of the grammatical enunciations take up errors to give the correct ones later. Errors in English usage are based on the influence of the regional languages. Of course a few errors can be taken up when the students have grappled with the usage to a great extent. It is posing a challenge in that the teacher has to manage both the corrected ones and the mistaken ones.

The utility of a grammatical chapter:

We as teachers ask the student to transform a sentence into another mode e.g: from Direct to Reported speech, from Simple to Compound, Complex and Compound Complex sentences. The purpose of doing so, is not made clear. Language moves from one mode to the other basing on context, aiming at brevity, lucidity and vividity, depending upon the mode of expression. Even the text book of content subject cannot use a stereotyped expression let us say only the simple sentence mode and active voice mode. The challenge of this type can be solved by giving stress on utility of transformation. For example, a sentence in passive voice can avoid the mention of the real doer. It can go on with the assumption of familiar or known doers. For example, in a sentence, ‘The results were announced’, a passive voice is clear to a set of taker of an examination. The importance is attached to ‘results’, the topic of statement and the reference of the ‘time’ here is the past tense. Some other structures of the kind are to be graded in order to make ESP program a success.

Observation of grammaticality by content teachers:

Though English is the medium of instruction in technological (higher educational) institutions, grammar is given a holiday when a teacher of a content subject deals with his own chapter of study. These teachers can be encouraged to follow the rules of grammar. The staff rooms should maintain the decorum of using English for communicative purposes leaving the love of mother tongue aside for the benefit of students. English language is proved to be a bread winner in global village of the world, beside being the part and parcel of new culture of language of the communication and technology.

Notice board and announcement systems:

The officers, heads of departments and Directors release notices with poor management, of statements, paving the way for ambiguity. Even after struggling against ambiguity the taker of the notice, never bothers about the erroneous usages. The official jargon should be well maintained in order to overcome the challenge which seems trivial in the beginning, but it will tell upon the writing skills. Likewise, clear and well managed announcements, orders and appeals on audio recorders too should guard the language aspect.
Assignment evaluation a hurried affair:

The language aspect in ESP is not that serious while we refer to content subjects. Written exercises in content subjects too are to be taken care of as far as its language usage is concerned. “Writing makes an exact man” is the maxim. Writing is a prompt skill to be attained. In the process of writing there lies the knowledge of communication done after a careful self revision the practice of which goes a long way in communication through other means. So assignment evaluation should not become a hurried affair but a calculated one.

Conclusion:

English for Special Purposes is the order of the day, inevitable in its practice and prompt in usage. Though there are challenges as the stumbling blocks, we as teachers of English can overcome with some resourcefulness at our side. Action researches have to be encouraged at the institutional level in order to make the programme a success. Teachers of English have to keep abreast of changing cultural scenario by way of research and development especially regarding the cultural ethos of English in the interest of the taught.

References:


An Investigation of English-Persian Translation of Formulaic Expressions in Electrical Instruction Manuals

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Abstract: Formulaic expressions cover a range of prefabricated linguistic units from idioms and proverbs to conversational greeting, collocations, some phrasal verbs, and many expressions. Although some authors like Britton (1974), Pinchuck (1977), and Cabré (1999) have claimed that technical texts must be written in an objective style which would exclude the use of such expressions, in this study the researcher indicates that formulaic expressions exist in technical fields. This paper investigates in depth the Persian translations of English formulaic expressions in 15 electrical home appliance instruction manuals. The researcher also recognizes different types of such expressions in the corpus. The findings were showed that Persian translations of all formulaic expressions were accurate and there were marked difference between frequencies of different types of formulaic expressions.

Key words: Formulaic expressions, Instruction manuals, Idioms, Technical texts

1. Introduction

Translation is the communication of the meaning of a source language text by means of an equivalent target language text. Because of the needs of business documentation consequent to Industrial Revolution that started in the mid-18th century, some translation specialties have become formulated and developed, with particular schools and professional organization (Wikipedia, 2013).

Technical translation is a type of specialized translation (Newmark, 1988) involving the translation of documents produced by technical writers (owner’s manuals, etc.), or more specifically, texts which relate to technological domain or texts which are about the practicality of scientific and technological information.

In this study, formulaic expressions accepted as a broader concept than traditional idiom. Although, some authors are discussing formulaic language recently, they have not researched the translation of such expressions in instruction manuals, or even in technical subjects in general. In
the study of such expressions has been usually paid attention on everyday written or spoken language (Fernandez-Parra, 2008).

This research tries to evaluate current state of Persian translation of formulaic expressions through a contrastive study and also, finds out that what types of formulaic expressions mostly are used in instruction manuals.

2. Research questions and hypotheses

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. How is the current state of Persian translation of formulaic expressions in electrical instruction manuals?

2. What types of formulaic expressions occur most frequently in instruction manuals?

On the basis of the above research questions; the following research hypotheses are presented:

1. The quality of translation of formulaic expressions in electrical instruction manuals is good.

2. Different types of formulaic expressions in instruction manuals occur with the same frequency.

3. Importance of formulaic expressions

Study of formulaic language is one of the newest areas in applied linguistic. It is an important part of language learning and use. Normal discourse, both written and spoken, has large percentages of formulaic language (Schmitt, 2005). Erman and Warren (2000) measured formulaic expressions in normal discourse and found out that 52-58% of the language they analyzed was formulaic, and Foster (2001) showed a figure of 32% using different procedures and criteria.

If formulaic language formed much of every day discourse, then this suggests that proficient language users know a large number of formulaic expressions (Schmit, 2005). Pawley and Syder (1983, p.213) suggest that the number of “sentence-length expressions familiar to the ordinary, mature English speaker probably amounts, at least, to several hundreds of thousands”. The result of a small corpus study of spoken language in a TV quiz show asserts that people may know at least as many as formulaic sequences as single words (Jackendoff, 1995). Melčuk (1995), who uses the term ‘phraseology’, states even greater overall importance for such sequences.

There is little empirical work to prove the idea that proficient language users know numerous formulaic sequences. However, these claims match with Sinclair’s (1991) view that language as a whole is organized according to two main structuring principles: “an open choice principle and
an idiom principle”, with the latter containing the widespread use of formulaic stretches of words. In addition, this store of formulaic sequence is dynamic and is constantly changing to meet the needs of the speaker (Wray, 2002).

3.1 The fuzzy boundaries of formulaic expressions

Formulacity is not a very clear phenomenon. It sometimes covers lexical forms and may contain other lexical forms. For example, all expressions named idioms may be included as a subclass of formulaic language, but not all formulaic expressions may be idioms. Among formulaic expressions there can also be “collocations (e.g. teething problems), conventionalized greeting (good morning, safe journey), and many other expressions”. Formulaic language may also cover some “phrasal verbs (e.g. carry out [a task])” but some phrasal verbs may not take into account as formulaic “(e.g. take out)”. In technical corpus, some terms could also be considered formulaic “(e.g. terms and conditions)” (Fernandez-Parra, 2008).

3.2 Definition of formulaic expressions

There is a general agreement on basic definitions of what makes formulaic sequence and what features such sequences share that make them different. The opinion that each scholar seems to accept is that “they are multiword units of language that are stored in long-term memory as if they were single lexical units” (Wood, 2002). Here are some other definitions of formulaic language:

Pawley and Syder (1983) refered to formulas as “sentence stems” which are lexicalized, that is which are “regular form-meaning pairings”(p.192), and this notion of lexicalization is echoed by Nattinger and Decarrico(1992) in an influential work that focuses on lexical phrases, an alternate term for formulaic language units:

Lexical phrases [are] form/function composites, lexico-grammatical units that occupy a position somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax: they are similar to lexicon in being treated as units, yet most of them consist of more than one word, and many of them can, at the same time, be derived from the regular rules of syntax, just like other sentences. (p.36)

Hickey (1993) clearly expressed definition of formulaic language in terms of process, referring to multiword or multiform strings produced and recalled as a chunk like a single lexical item rather than being produced from individual items and rules. Wray (2002) defined formulaic sequence as multiword units of language as:

A sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is , or appears to be , prefabricated : that is stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by language grammar. (p. 9)
Based on the above definition, Fernandez-Parra (2008) proposed 5 criteria. She has claimed that when these criteria used together, they can separate formulaic expressions from non-formulaic expressions to a large extent. So in this study a formulaic expression is an expression which:

- is prefabricated,
- has a non-compositional, or partly compositional meaning,
- shows conventionalization,
- allows a restricted exchangeability of component words, and
- shows a degree of fixedness in its word order (Fernandez-Parra, 2008, p. 53).

### 3.3 Classification of formulaic expressions

Formulaic expressions were generally classified to *sentences* (*or pseudo-sentential phrases*), for example proverbs, saying, maxims, prayers, commandments, notices, clichés, social formulae, quotation, etc. and *sub-sentential phrases*. *Sub-sentential phrases* could be divided into *variable* and *invariable expressions*. *Invariable expressions* contain foreign phrases, dual phrases, triple phrases, comparisons, adjectival, adverbial, nominal, participial, prepositional, discourse markers, and other invariable expressions. *Variable expressions* could be classified with respect to the part that is inflectionally variable. There are expressions with variable verb, variable noun, variable determiner, variable pronoun or variable possessive (M. A. Fernandez-Parra, personal communication, November 19, 2013).

### 4. Instructions

Instructions are one of the main parts of technical communication. Technical writers will probably write more instructional documents than any other type of document (Markel, 2002). When talking about instructions, we simply remember user guides. There are, in fact, different types of instructional documents each with its own particular content, format and audience (Byrne, 2006).

#### 4.1 Instruction manuals

Fernandez-Parra states “Instruction manuals have special features in common that set them apart as a subtype of technical texts, and warrant their study as a relatively homogeneous unit” (2008, p. 54). Newmark (1993) states: “Instruction manuals differ from the mass of technical writing in being addressed to a general readership, and with a particular sense of urgency and explicitness” (p.147). They clearly contain technical terms, but they include a large amount of “imperatives, repletion, pseudo-sentential phrases” too (Fernandez-Parra, 2008). “The English
Another feature that is important for writing a technical texts, where instruction manuals can be included, and some authors like Cabré (1999), Pinchuck (1977), Britton (1974), and Gangewere (1972) have claimed is that they should be written in “neutral and impersonal style”, or in other words “objective style” which would exclude the use of many expressions. However, the researchers show contrary to these claims, formulaic expressions play a very important role in the corpus.

5. Results

5.1 Analysis of the first research question

• The first question of this research was as follows:

How is the current state of Persian translation of formulaic expressions in electrical instruction manuals?

• This research question was a qualitative one. The researcher recognized formulaic expressions with regard to 5 criteria proposed by Fernandez-Parra (2008). Fernandez-Parra (2008) has claimed these criteria are useful in separating formulaic expression from non-formulaic expressions in the corpus to a large extent.

For the sake of reliability, data labeling was undertaken by the present researcher, as the first rater, and another expert in translation (holding a Ph.D. degree), as the second rater. Having labeled each piece of data, the whole analysis was passed to the second rater who reviewed the whole analysis and gave it a final check. When the views of the two raters were the same on a specific item, that label was considered as final. In contrast, when their views were different they discussed it together to reach a compromise. Both raters are native speakers of Persian and with the help of their English knowledge they are supposed to be able to judge the accuracy of each translation. No doubt, this sort of evaluation is qualitative and cannot be deemed as mistake-free.

The total number of words in English instruction manuals were 50500, that the researcher extracted 518 English formulaic expressions from these manuals and checked their translations to see whether all Persian translation of such expressions in the corpus were accurate or not. All English translations of formulaic expressions are from Longman Dictionary Online (2013). There are some example below:

1. If the supply cord is damaged, it must be replaced by the manufacturer or its service agent in order to avoid a hazard.

اگر سیم برق آسیب بپیشه، باید به مطور احترار از خطر توسط سازنده یا تعمیرکار آن تعیین شود.
In order to is formulaic expression that is translated correctly into ﺑﻪ ﻣﻨﻈﻮﺭ. Order means “the way that several things, events, etc. are arranged or put on a list, showing whether something is first, second, third etc.”, but in order to [do sth] means “for the purpose of doing something”. Here, the translator identifies the expressions as formulaic and the translation is perfect and natural sounding.

2. Do not disassemble or repair the refrigerator by yourself.

By yourself is a formulaic expression too. The translator recognized it as formulaic, and translated it into ﺧﻮﺩﺗﺎﻥ. Word for word translation of this expression into target text was not natural sounding.

3. In the event of a power failure, call the local office of your Electricity Company.

In the event of is a formulaic expression too. The translation of this expression is correct too, because the translator recognizes it as formulaic and translates it with another formulaic expression.

4. After this, turn on the appliance & clean the dust.

After this is a formulaic expression too. It is correctly translated into سﭙﺲ. In this case, the transparency of this expression might lead a translator to translate it word for word into Persian. Word for word translation of this expression into target text is not natural sounding.

5.2 Analysis of the second research question

In this thesis, the first research question was a qualitative one and hence all the discussions reported there were tentative. In the second research question, however, use was made of non-parametric statistic, chi-square test, to check for significance of differences observed between different sub-classes of formulaic expressions.

• The second question was as follows:

What types of formulaic expressions mostly do occur in instruction manuals?

In this part, in order to classify different types of formulaic expressions, the researcher used Fernandez-Parra’s (M. A. Fernandez-Parra, personal communication, November 19, 2013) classification of such expressions. Frequencies and percentages of different types of formulaic expressions are shown in Table 1.
As illustrated in the above table, among all sub-classes of formulaic expressions, the most frequent one was invariable prepositional expressions with the frequency of 98, and percentage of 18.9%, followed by variable nominal expressions with the frequency of 82, and percentage of 15.8%. Variable verbal expressions and other variable expressions stood at the third position of this ranking, with the frequency of 70, and percentage of 13.5%. Other invariable expressions sat

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Different types of formulaic expressions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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</tbody>
</table>
at the next position of this ranking, with the frequency of 57, and percentage of 11%. The fifth frequent sub-class was multiple variable expressions with the frequency of 55, and percentage of 10.6%, followed by discourse markers with the frequency of 24, and percentage of 4.6%. Then, there were invariable verbal expressions with the frequency of 23, and percentage of 4.4%, and notices and invariable adverbial expressions with the same frequency of 18, and percentage of 3.5%. Participle was another formulaic expression with the frequency of 8, and percentage of 1.5%, followed by invariable nominal expressions with the frequency of 7, and percentage of 1.7%. There were social formulae with the frequency of 5, and percentage of 1%, and clichés with the frequency of 2, and percentage of 0.4%. The least frequent formulaic expression was determiner with the frequency of 1, and percentage of 0.2%.

Chart 1: Frequencies of Sub-classifications of formulaic expressions

To clarify the meaningfulness of the difference observed between the sub-classes, a chi-square procedure was used. The results obtained from the chi-square were showed that the amount of chi-square is 460.52 (df=16), which mean there is a meaningful differences observed between the frequencies of subclasses.

6. Discussion

It is very important to note that a formulaic expression in a source text does not translate with another formulaic expression in target text automatically, especially because there could be an absence of equivalent in another language. And sometimes there could be an equivalent to
formulaic expression in the target text but it is better, the translator paraphrases the whole section of the source text (Fernandez-Parra, 2008).

There was not any error in the translation of a formulaic expression into Persian. In this context, error means a completely unacceptable translation of a particular formulaic expression into target language (Fernandez-Parra, 2008). Although, there are some Persian translations of these expressions that could be better, the researcher does not consider them as error. There are many examples of good translations of formulaic expression in the corpus.

Many formulaic expressions in the corpus have non-compositional, or partly compositional meaning, and literally translation of these expressions become incorrect. In order to, in regard to, in the event of, carry out were examples of formulaic expressions that were correctly translated with formulaic expressions. However, some formulaic expressions had clear meaning (Biber et al., 1999, as cited in Schmitt, 2005). For example, *for future reference* was a formulaic expression that although translator translated it literally; it sounds natural and native-like in the target text. Translations of these expressions, *inside or outside* and *up or down* were word for word too. The first one translated to داخل یا بیرون and the second one translated to بالا یا پایین. Both translations were correct too.

Although there were many outstanding examples of translations across the corpus, in 10 cases, the translator could translate formulaic expressions better. There are some example bellow:

1. There is a risk of death from suffocation if children put them over their head.

   در صورتی که کودکان آنها را روی سر خود بگذارند، خطر مرگ به علت خفگی وجود دارد.

   There is not translation of this formulaic expression in the dictionary. Although the translation seems correct, it is better the translator translates this formulaic expression to دور گردند خود بپیچند with regard to translation of next sentence.

2. It is your responsibility to use common sense, caution, and care when installing, maintaining and operating your washer.

   شما مسئول هستید که در هنگام نصب، نگه داری و استفاده از ماشین لباسشویی، قضاوت صحیح، احتیاط و مراقبت را مد نظر داشته باشید.

   *Common sense* means “the ability to behave in a sensible way and make practical decisions” and in Persian dictionaries translates to عقل سالم. So it is not sensible to translate this formulaic expression to قضاوت صحیح.

   In 19 cases, it seems that the translator omitted the formulaic expressions, for example *as illustrated* which appears in the following passage:
If you stop cleaning for a while, you can store the hose and extension wands by using park position as illustrated.

The finding of the research is equal to what it is hypothesized at the beginning of the research. So the quality of translation of formulaic expressions in electrical instruction manuals is good. Because from 518 instances of formulaic expressions in the corpus only in 10 cases the translator could translates better and other translations of formulaic expressions, expect in 19 cases the translator omitted them, are correct and acceptable.

The second hypnosis that is; Different types of formulaic expressions in instruction manuals occur with the same frequency, is not accepted. Because as illustrated in Table 1, many classes of sentential and pseudo-sentential had no token in the corpus, such as proverbs, prayers, commandments, etc., and only subclasses with tokens are shown in the table, like notices, social formulae and clichés. Under the invariable sub-sentential heading, some sub-classes like foreign phrases, dual phrases, triple phrases, and comparisons had no token in the corpus too. In the variable sub-sentential heading, different sub-classes had different frequency.

7. Conclusions
Despite claims that technical writing inclines to be “neutral and impersonal, avoiding emotiveness”, which implies a lack of formulaic expressions (Britton 1974; Pinchuck 1977; Cabré 1999), in this study the researcher showed that such expressions exist in the texts belonging to technical fields.

In this corpus from 15 instruction manuals, the researcher extracted 518 formulaic expressions. By checking the Persian translation of such expressions, the researcher found that translation of all formulaic expressions into target text is accurate, since the translators (who remain anonymous) only in 10 cases that constituted only 1.93% of all formulaic expressions in this corpus, could have better translation, and just small portions of the source text (only 19 cases that constituted 3.66% of the formulaic expressions in this research) were left untranslated.

Although some formulaic expressions like; as well as, in the event of, in order to, carry out, and by yourself had non-compositional, or partly compositional meaning, Persian translation of formulaic expressions like; up or down, inside or outside, and for future reference were indicated that a translator could translate these expressions literally. Thus, this claim that formulaic expressions must have non-compositional, or partly compositional meaning is not true about translation of all formulaic expressions into Persian.

One feature of formulaicity that is noticeable in the target text and has not been said in literature is its “power”. The correct translation of formulaic expressions in the target texts
seemed to extremely make the overall quality of the target text better. The correct positioning of formulaicity in the target text appeared to make the text much more “native-like” and “natural-sounding” (Fernandez-Parra, 2008). So based on this claim, it seems that overall quality of Persian translation of instruction manual is good, because quality of translation of formulaic expressions in the corpus is good.

References


Literary Translation of Regional Language Fiction for Emotive Cohesion

Dr. V.V.B. Rama Rao

India that is Bharat too has been a land of linguistic diversity. Under this diversity is a strong cultural and literary unity. The different languages of India underscore the implicit oneness of our glorious literary heritage. “Indian literature is one although written in many languages,” said Dr. Radhakrishnan. This idea of literary unity in the midst of linguistic multiplicity is reinforced whenever we read literature produced in various languages of India.

It is an important task to bring to the notice of a larger audience works in contemporary literature in different languages. For effective transmission, the Pan-Indian medium is English. The advantage of an English translation is that it can go beyond our national borders too. This international exposure to our literature is also beneficial.

Translation has been a valuable device for centuries to convey the best literature of one culture to people outside that culture. *The Ramayana, The Mahabharata, Iliad, Aeneid,* and countless other classics have traveled across cultural and temporal space through translations. In a multi-lingual and multi-cultural society such as ours, the need for translations cannot be overemphasized. They contribute to emotive cohesion. Further they bring together the diverse strands of our culture and strengthen national integration.

In this context, I recall my meeting, several years ago, the Tamil writer, Ms Sivashankari, who worked hard for producing, “Knit India through Literature.” She worked on eighteen languages of the VIII Schedule of the Indian Constitution and produced four volumes covering the literatures of the East, West, North, and South. She found many similarities in our literatures and a few dissimilarities also. For instance, the impact of partition is more pronounced in Panjabi, Sindhi and Urdu literatures than in other literatures.

Literary Translation of Regional Languages in India is neither ‘literary criticism,’ nor ‘literary assessment’ of any work of fiction. Rather, he calls his selections ‘pre-reads’ or ‘appetisers,’ in the manner of previews of films. These are sure to whet our appetite for more Indian literature. If “good samples of regional fiction” are made available through English translation to a wider reading public, a greater understanding and hence a deeper appreciation of our literatures can be achieved.

Literature has several functions and creative writing takes many forms called genres. Each genre has slightly different norms for criticism. Literary Translation has come to assume great importance in the context of translation being recognized as a genre. The need for expanding horizons of understanding between various language communities demands literary translation into and from many languages.
Literary translation evolved independent of formal training as an academic discipline. All renowned translators went to literary texts in all languages to import or export literary works in a different language. They did so without any formal training and without the basis of any theory of translation. The translators took the texts they adored and translated them. They forged ahead rendering unto their readers what they thought worthwhile in a language they thought best, to the best of their ability. A new genre “Literature in Translation” came into being.

Literary Translation is not often as formidable a task as it has often been made to appear from a reading of the works of theoreticians and academics on translation theories who are not always translators themselves. In the context of the much needed but unusual spurt in translation activity, it is essential for translators to have something like a set of guiding principles, if not a full-fledged theory in itself. In the absence of a universally valid and accepted theory, translators necessarily follow their own strategies in practice. Though there is nothing like a theory which is immediately applicable to policy, ever since literary translation came to be important in the 20th century context of promoting international understanding, literary translations have been getting reviewed. It would be possible to deduce some principles, which ultimately may yield a complete theory. But it should be borne in mind the theory has to envisage principles to suit each set of source language and target language texts.

If putting an idea into language is one kind of ‘translation’ activity, translating that into another language is another, more difficult, process. In the first instance it is less complex but the second translator poses several problems. In creative writing there is a special significance intended in the use of vocabulary and expressive devices. Aesthetic considerations play a crucial role. This leads to complex problems very frequently. There are so many ways in which a literary text can be rendered into another language. This is not the case in factual, informative writing where the purpose is comparatively narrow and limited. Poetry, for example is imaginative writing, which, usually, lends itself to a wide variety of interpretations. The translator needs to be very clever trying to make his translation as variously suggestive and as variedly communicative as the writer of the original text.

*Sahridaya* is essential for the appreciation of a literary text and it is no less a prime requirement for the appreciation of a translation. For a translator too it is as essential a prerequisite, for he or she has to put across the seen/imagined/felt beauty into the target language. The translator-‘transcreators’ who have ‘rendered’ the texts, for example, into Telugu from Sanskrit centuries ago, were great imaginative artists themselves. They have minds and hearts that could get into that creative frenzy to come up with a version that had been their own in many ways. Their capacity to envision and intuit has earned for them laurels, which they never imagined to accrue to them at all. They must have felt their work a way of redeeming what they believed was *rishirina*

Literary Translation can only be an enthusiast’s craft and can not be a dilettante’s profession. There is no way a person can be knowledgeable of any theory readily applicable for
use for a particular individual text. There is no particular theory for the enthusiast to follow. There are great literary translations which have stood the test of time. But there is none who propounded an all inclusive theory. None has come up with anything like a prolegomena for any theory of literary translation.

A vast country like ours with twenty-four languages (2007) in our constitution cannot take into its ken all the regional variants of those. Our *bhushas*, languages of all the states and regions have a veritable treasure strove of literatures. Indian literatures are not just those in the language listed in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution of India. There are variations not only in language and speech. People’s life styles, customs, food and clothing and, most significantly, all literatures are not the same. To take different literatures into a common and widely known, used and loved language like English, we need a battery of literary translators to put across the beauties of literary artifacts into other languages, and more importantly in English. It is not possible for all to know more than two, three or four regional languages. One has to depend naturally on the widely known and diversely spread English to read and understand more regional languages which is necessary for widening thought and imagination. *Polychromatic phantasmasagoria* is not just a phrase of praise for our literatures in various languages. It is the truth of the essence of our regional literatures.

Literature has an extra-ordinary capacity to cause emotive cohesion. Reading or listening to creative writing can produce health-promoting aspects. Our extensive country with numerous languages and its variations of sub-languages has been producing literary artifacts for centuries. For national integration, among many other things, cohesion of understanding our regional language writings is necessary and the activity of literary translation needs to be cultivated and encouraged.

Regionalism subsists in Nationalism for the regional variants of custom, behavior, tradition and ethos. Regional language novels are unique in the way they depict lives of characters and incidents in the regions of the state. The sad and disturbing conditions of women, the restrictions and constraints imposed in families, areas and regions are given particular emphasis. Poverty, lack of education, backwardness in a number of other things are noticed and treated in depth and detail in our regional language novels. Even ‘modernity’ with its unsavoury aspects attracts the attention of the creative writer in our regional writing.

The hegemony and the hierarchies in different classes and castes are shown in depth and detail in our regional fiction. These are provocative, inspiring, painful or pride-giving in the works of writers in regional languages. Literary translators of these have to be very sensitive and understanding of these aspects while rendering vernacular language writing into English.
Out of the twenty-two languages in the Eighth Schedule, novels in only twelve languages are chosen for inclusion in this book. The numbers of the speakers of different languages are taken into consideration. Twelve languages are included in this volume with fourteen essays. Two items in Tamil and Telugu find presence here because of my personal liking of the novels. All other languages like Bodo, Dogri, Kasmiri, Konkani, Maithili, Manipuri, Nepali, Sanskrit, Santhali and Sindhi would be taken up in the next volume. It would take some time to get the translated English versions of the novels in these languages. There is time constraint for my goal is to bring out the book in the present year, 2012. Then there is constraint on the length of the book.

This is not a book of literary criticism or literary assessment. Just as there are pre-views for films, there can be pre-reads for books. Here are good samples of fiction in our regional languages. The pre-views in his work are good reads for those who cannot read the novels in the regional languages. The articles can be like appetizers to the interested readers to taste and promote understanding of the languages in our country. This attempt is to enhance our activities for national integration.
Discourse Analysis from Two Different Points of View

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Abstract: This paper uses discourse analysis to analyze the linguistic elements employed in how two different newspapers report on a certain event in Bahrain. This paper will address the question of what linguistic structures are employed in the two news stories to influence the perceptions of the reader in opposite directions. The two newspapers are published in countries that hold opposing views about the government in Bahrain and the protests taking place on its streets. This paper uses methods of discourse analysis such as thematic analysis, lexical cohesion, naming and macrostructure analysis to interpret how the inclination, bias and loyalties of the newspaper are being conveyed to the reader. The representation in the Saudi Gazette is mainly neutral while it excludes any information that reflects poorly on the Bahraini government or puts it in a negative light. On the other hand, the Tehran Times uses a lot of references to negative actions of the government to discredit it and make the legal amendment appear as a tool of oppression against the Bahraini protestors.
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Discourse Analysis of Two Newspapers

Introduction

Discourse analysis is a method of critically analyzing discourse or text to identify and interpret how language has been employed to convey power relationships among the individuals and groups being discussed. Discourse analysis employs a variety of techniques to study the power relationships as expressed through the use of linguistic elements and structures. Moreover, the role played by the social and historical context also affects how particular discourse is interpreted. The linguistic elements used in studying discourse include the way in which vocabulary or words are used to communicate certain connotations over others. Similarly, the importance of certain events or actors is conveyed by their particular position in the overall structure and arrangement of other elements of the discourse.

This paper will discuss a common story that appears in two different newspapers which influences the political colour attributed to the two stories. The story is about the legal amendments being pursued in the kingdom of Bahrain in response to the political disturbance following the Arab Spring revolt in several Arab countries. Bahrain has also experienced a number of such incidents by members of the Shia majority protesting against the rule of the Sunni minority Khalifa regime. The regime enjoys support from the Sunni-majority Gulf member states such as Saudi Arabia while the protestors have their sympathizers in Shia-majority Iran.

Early in February, the Bahrain government toughened the penalties for publicly offending the Bahrain king, national flag or any emblem representing the kingdom. These penalties are expected to increase the pressure on the protestors and enforce law and order in the kingdom. This development has been reported in regional as well as international newspapers. The Iranian newspaper Tehran Times published the news story on 5 February 2014 while the Saudi Gazette covered the event on the same day. The proposed study will apply methods of discourse analysis to explore the connotations of the words and sentence structure that have been employed to discuss this event in the two newspapers.

Literature Review

This section discusses the research on media discourse analysis that has already been conducted and will help in the analysis of the selected texts for this paper. Critical Discourse Analysis is a popularly used method of discourse analysis in the media. Based on the Foucauldian concept of knowledge being power, the discourse analysis method analyzes how social and political issues are constructed in media discourse to perpetuate or influence power relationships Van Leeuwen (2009). Language plays a vital role in enabling perceptions to be influenced through the use of lexical elements, syntax and structure. Such use of linguistic terms in media discourse affects how certain individuals or groups in society are perceived in relation...
to other groups or individuals (Van Leeuwen, 2009). This method is useful in the analysis of political news stories as the power relations as well as the inclinations of the news producer are reflected in the discourse.

Lexical analysis is one of the methods that will be used in this paper. Matheson (2005) describes how the method has been used in discourse analysis of media texts. According to Matheson (2005), the principle of lexical choice can help to identify the implicit connections that the source of text is trying to make. He uses the term lexical choice to explain that the implicit assumptions and slant of the text can be interpreted by looking at the vocabulary that could have been used in the text compared with vocabulary that is eventually used and frequently repeated throughout the text.

Machin and Mayr (2012) discuss other methods that will be used to analyze the texts in this paper. These are called speech acts and image acts. Speech acts refer to the inclusion of quoted or paraphrased statements made by an individual whereas image acts refer to the use of particular photographs or images in the text. Machin and Mayr (2012) state that speech and image acts can be analyzed in terms of mood systems. In other words, speech or image acts can convey whether the intention is to state facts, make a request, ask a question or issue a command.

Couldry (2000) describes another useful technique of media discourse analysis that will be used in this paper. This technique is called naming and refers to the way in which media brings about its ‘differential symbolic power (p. 50).’ Naming involves the use of names to generating facts about the social world. Naming affects the degree of trust that the reader reposes in the medium through which information is received. Media can influence the perception of facts by using positive or negative terms during the naming process. The practice of naming by the producer of the media story influences which individual, organization or group the reader eventually sympathizes with. The use of nouns in the two articles will be studied to determine the implicit assumptions and how they are likely to influence the reader.

Another useful technique in media discourse analysis is macrostructure analysis. Van Dijk (2012) describes the utility of macrostructure analysis in media discourse as it aids the interpretation and identification of larger parts of the discourse while naming and lexical cohesion aid the analysis of lower-level structures. This technique aids in understanding the hierarchical schema that forms the structure for the discourse. The technique proves helpful in assessing the coherence of the text such as identification of headlines, leads, introductory sentences, explanatory sentences and concluding sentences (p. 600).

One of the most useful techniques of discourse analysis that will also be employed in this paper is thematic analysis. This method complements other macro-level analytical methods such as macrostructure analysis as it concentrates on identifying the major themes in the discourse and how they are arranged to create a particular effect on the reader (Smith and Bell, 2007). Bryman
(2008, p. 580) identifies some methods used in thematic analysis of discourse. These include repetitions, metaphors and analogies, transitions, linguistic connectors and missing data. These elements will be analyzed in the discourse analysis of the two texts.

Marston (2004) points to other aspects of media discourse which are used to present certain viewpoints about the referents. One of these aspects is presupposition. By identifying the presuppositions in the discourse it is possible to distinguish between what is presented as uncontroversial fact and what may be classified as common sense. Another instance is the use of negative lexicalization where there is an abundance of repetitious terms in the news discourse which case there is an attempt to qualify certain terms used in the discourse (Marston, 2004, p.87). Headlines have been deemed as particularly fertile grounds for the use of negative lexicalization. Analyzing which terms have been used with negative qualifiers as opposed to those with neutral or positive qualifiers helps in identifying the direction in which the news producer desires to orient the reader. Hence, this method will be used to analyze the headlines of the two news stories in this paper.

Transitivity is another useful method employed in media discourse analysis. Bazzi (2009) particularly explains how the method can be used to interpret how authors or editors of news stories in the Arab media employ syntax and other elements of the transitivity system to assign blame or responsibility to certain individuals or groups in a conflict. It involves analyzing how active and passive voice is used in the text as well as the type of agency and nominalization is employed in the discourse.

Opposition is the method used in discourse analysis which studies the way in which linguistic elements are used to stimulate the human tendency to identify individuals and groups as binary opposites. This effect is created by the use of grammatical structures and lexical items such as either…or, neither…nor, etc. Transitions are also used to indicate that the objects being discussed are opposites. This method is particularly useful when covering news stories about political events or conflicts because it is employed to differentiate the parties involved and identify their loyalties.

Problem Statement

This paper will address the question of what linguistic structures are employed in the two news stories to influence the perceptions of the reader in opposite directions.

Research Objectives and Methodology

Following will be the research objectives of this paper:
• To determine how lexical choice influences how the perceptions of the reader are shaped by the two stories.

• To determine how the macrostructure elements are used to project the main argument and bent of the two articles.

• To identify the main themes in the two articles and how they have been presented.

The two stories were selected as they reflect an important political development in the region which can have international repercussions. Not only is it a very important event but it reflects on the image of the region and the country in the international environment. The two newspapers have been selected as Saudi Gazette and the Tehran Times. This choice has been based on their different views and perceptions about the Bahraini government and its relationship with the people.

In order to achieve the research objectives, the methods of thematic analysis, lexical cohesion and macrostructure analysis will be employed. Naming strategies will be analyzed to identify how labeling affects the perception of actors and events in the news articles. The emphasis will be on studying how the producers of the two stories on the same event employ linguistic devices and strategies to further their political affiliations. It is discussed in the introduction section that the Bahraini government is an ally of Saudi Arabia which will be reflected in the way the story is covered in the Saudi Gazette. In contrast, the protestors have sympathizers in Iran which will be reflected in the way the story is presented in the Tehran Times.

Lexical cohesion will be used to determine how the actors and events have been named in the two stories. By using the analysis of opposition, it will be determined which of the two sides are portrayed in a positive light and which of them are presented in a negative light. This will be used to interpret how the reader is likely to be influenced by the two stories and the arguments presented in them. The main actors in the two stories are usually identified as oppressors and victims. The study will compare how each party is presented differently in each story depending on the labels that are ascribed to them.

Macrostructure analysis will be used to analyze the shape of arguments made in each case. The elements such as heading, introductory statement, explanation, transition, etc. will be discussed to identify their effects on interpretation of events. The headlines of the two stories will be compared as they have a lot of clues about the political inclination of the producers. The structural elements of the stories will also be compared to determine the explicit as well as implicit arguments that are being made in the two stories.
Thematic analysis will be employed in the analysis to identify the main themes in the two stories. This will be an important part of the analysis because it will reveal how the presentation of the story is being used to promote specific desired themes among the reading population.

Discussion of Findings

An analysis of the vocabulary used in the two texts shows the assumptions and implicit ideas being communicated by the producer to the receiver. We begin by looking at the wording of the headline. A difference exists in the headlines under which the news items appear in the two newspapers. In the *Saudi Gazette*, the headline reads ‘Bahrain toughens jail time for offending king.’ This headline conveys a neutral or positive impression of the event. In other words, the action to which the news item refers appears to be legitimate and fair and within the authority of the government of the country. The act of ‘toughening’ jail time appears to be fair when compared to the act of ‘offending’ the king. On the other hand, the headline that appears in the *Tehran Times* says ‘Bahrain extremely toughens penalties for protesting king.’ This clearly communicates a different perception about the actor, the action and the receiver of that action. In the headline of the *Tehran Times*, the actor or the Bahraini government comes across as an unreasonable and unfair actor who has taken a harsh or excessive measure. At the same time, the reader is also likely to resent the government because it has taken an ‘extreme’ measure by toughening the penalty. Hence, it may be seen that the Bahraini government is unreasonable and the step it has taken is disproportionate in relation to what it deems to punish. The most interesting part of the headline is when it describes the acts which are being punished. In the *Saudi Gazette* the act is named as ‘offending’ the king whereas in the *Tehran Times* the action is named as ‘protesting’ the king. The word ‘offending’ carries negative connotations and so the government appears to be justified in increasing the punishment for committing such an act. On the other hand, the act of ‘protesting’ does not carry such negative weight. It is seen to be a legitimate act that is part of the fabric of democratic societies. In using such terms, the *Tehran Times* creates an impression that the Bahraini government is a repressive and brutal government as well as vocally intolerant of democratic values and practices. The reader is going to be more inclined to viewing the government as an oppressor and the ‘protestors’ as victims while the headline of the *Saudi Gazette* will likely create support for a government trying to enforce order, justice and decency in the society.

Another interesting part of the discourse is that the *Saudi Gazette* makes no reference to the Arab Spring protests while describing the legal amendment. On the other hand, the Arab Spring is the first thing that is referred to right after describing the legal amendment. This has an interesting effect on the reader. In the first case, the reader would perceive that the law is being amended to enforce law and order and to uphold the respect of the government in the society. But the reader would connect the legal amendment to the attempts of the government to curb
criticism against the government and silence those people who protest against the government for not giving the majority Shia population their equal rights in power and government.

Both the news stories refer to an incident in 2012 when two citizens were jailed by the government. However, there is a clear difference in how the actor is identified in the two stories. In the *Saudi Gazette*, it is the criminal court that jailed two activists for offending the king. In contrast, in the *Tehran Times* it is stated that ‘Bahrain convicted and jailed two activists.’ This extends the impression that judicial institutions in Bahrain are controlled by the state or the government; whereas in the *Saudi Gazette* the criminal court is empowered to hear the case, determine whether to convict the defendant and impose the legal punishment. All these references serve to show that the Bahrain regime is totalitarian, autocratic and oppressive on the one hand, while fair and legitimate on the other.

Furthermore, the action of the government is also coloured differently in the two stories. In the *Saudi Gazette*, the 2012 decision to convict the activists was made after Twitter remarks posted by them were ‘deemed’ insulting to the king. The word ‘deemed’ conveys the idea that the situation was deliberated and thought over before it was concluded that the remarks were offensive. On the other hand, the *Tehran Times* says that the Twitter comments ‘supposedly insulted’ the king. This shows that the producer does not believe in the validity of the conviction and hints that the case might not have been given the due deliberation of facts and contextual factors. Rather, it conveys that the remarks were simply felt to be insulting to the king and hence the activists were punished for their act.

The way in which the king is referred to in the two stories also bears some scrutiny. In the *Saudi Gazette*, the king is referred to by his first name as King Hamad once and later on as ‘the king’ twice. The *Tehran Times* refers to him by his full name King Hamad bin Isa Al-Khalifa once and twice as the ‘king of Bahrain.’ In the first instance, the use of the first name implies affinity and familiarity with the ruler of Bahrain while in the second case, the use of the full name conveys respect and reflects the use of convention in addressing the ruler of a country.

The news stories also convey their implicit assumptions by the use of voice. In the *Tehran Times*, the amendment is presented as a passive act without referring to who made the amendment to the 1976 penal code, thus making it irrelevant who passed the amendment. On the contrary, the *Tehran Times* clearly states that ‘the king of Bahrain has approved a law.’ This use of the active voice clearly identifies the actor who perpetuates this excessively tough penalty on legitimate protestors against the government.

The reports also refer to earlier instances when the criminal court had sentenced other Bahraini citizens to jail sentences for violating the law in different ways. As in reporting earlier parts of the story, the *Saudi Gazette* describes the story in neutral connotations by referring to those who were sentenced as ‘people’ thus implying that no particular aspect of their identity
made a difference to the judgment or ruling of the court. Furthermore, the actions of those 23 people are described as ‘attacks with petrol bombs’ and ‘unlicensed protests,’ thus indicating that the actions were disruptive and violent in nature as well as against the law. In other words, it is implied that the decision of the court was fair and the punishment is legitimate. The Tehran Times paints a different view of the picture. In referring to those who were punished, the term ‘activists’ is used which connotes positive impressions about people becoming vocal and trying to bring about a positive change in their society. While the actions of the activists are referred to in more or less the same terms as in the Saudi Gazette, it is interesting to note the use of the adjective ‘alleged’ to describe the petrol bomb attacks. In this way, the Tehran Times creates the impression that the activists might not actually have carried out the petrol bomb attacks as the allegation could not have been proven in court. Thus, the fairness and justness of the court’s decision comes under suspicion and the credibility of the Bahraini state is undermined.

Another interesting difference in the two stories is the use of photographic images. The news story printed in the Saudi Gazette appears without any photographic image or illustration. On the other hand, the story in the Tehran Times is accompanied by the photograph of the king of Bahrain. This serves the purposes of attaching a face to the story. While it may have been possible to use the picture of the Bahraini flag or a map of the country to identify the context of the story, the use of the photograph of the king identifies the implicit message of the story. It has already been explained that the story is intended to carve out a negative impression about the Bahraini government and its oppressive regime. At the same time, the juxtaposition of the photograph of the Bahraini king serves as a target for directing the negative sentiments of the reader through the power of association.

It is also worthwhile to note that there is considerable difference in the amount of coverage given to the story in the two newspapers. It is clear that the Saudi Gazette wants to give reasonable importance to the event. The story is mainly informative in nature and serves as a narration of what has taken place in the legislative environment of the country. This is illustrated by the fact that only 142 words are used to present the story. On the other hand, the story in the Tehran Times is comparatively more analytical as it brings in multiple perspectives including social justice, democracy, freedom of protest, and so on. Experts and analysts are quoted and their commentary is also included to analyze the situation to promote the negative aspects of the government. This is illustrated by the fact that the newspaper conveys the story and its various dimensions in 410 words.

The story in the Tehran Times uses the technique of an appeal to authority by bringing in a statement from Rodney Shakespeare who is the chairperson of the Committee against Torture in Bahrain. It is interesting that of all the people whose responses could be included in this story, the opinions of a western man who heads a group working ‘against torture’ are included in the analysis of the Bahraini government’s action. This in itself conveys the impression that the
actions of the government raise concern and alarm among those who are against torture, thus suggesting that the new legal amendment is a kind of torture against the Bahraini people. While introducing the statement of the chairperson, the legal amendment is described as ‘tightened restrictions on dissent’ which again suggests that the legal amendment is oppressive and goes against the spirit and values of democracy. The fact that this aspect is not discussed in the Saudi Gazette story is reflective of the fact that Iran is a democratic state while both Saudi Arabia and Bahrain are the quintessential Arab kingdoms of the Arabian Gulf. Hence, it is understandable that the actions of the government are perceived as negative by the Tehran Times.

The comments of Rodney Shakespeare further illustrate that the kingdom of Bahrain is nearing its end and the regime will soon be toppled by continued protest. The king and his government are further undermined by the use of negative adjectives such as ‘ridiculous’ and ‘pompous’ while the ‘activists’ and ‘protestors’ appear to have a legitimate cause for voicing their dissent against the government.

The Tehran Times goes further in discrediting the moral authority of the current regime to rule the country. It states that the current king does not derive his strength and authority from the will of the citizens to allow him to govern. Instead, the authority is extorted from the people by using ‘poison gas,’ ‘lead shot,’ ‘imprisonment,’ ‘torture,’ and ‘bullets.’ Furthermore, it is even suggested that whatever support towards the present king is visible is merely an illusion. Those who appear to be present in support or those who show any loyalty to the king are described as ‘sycophants’ and ‘placements.’ This leaves the king resting on a very thin surface that is supported by a very loose network of self-interested supporters. Moreover, there is also the implied suggestion that these sycophants may be the reason for the eventual end of the Al-Khalifa regime in Bahrain. Rodney Shakespeare concludes with the assessment that it is only a matter of time that the brutal, oppressive and incompetent regime is made to pack up its bags and leave the throne.

Lexical Cohesion

The use of the lexical cohesion in analyzing the two texts throws up some interesting revelations. In the Saudi Gazette report, the fact that the earlier punishment for the same offence was only a few days is placed right after stating the new amendment. This heightens the severity of the new punishment and indicates that the earlier punishment was more lenient and probably that was the reason for its being ineffective. Similarly, the fact of jailing two activists in 2012 is followed immediately by the fact that they were convicted of insulting the king. This also supports the idea that the action was justified because it was a result of a proper trial and judicial process. On the other hand, the lexical analysis of the Tehran Times story is more interesting. A unique pattern runs throughout the story in which each factual statement relating to the legal amendment is followed immediately by some reference to the Arab Spring or the prevalent
dissent in the population. This serves to imply that the amendment has been passed exclusively to curb the right of freedom of speech and dissent in the kingdom. For instance, right after stating that the new law has been approved, the article refers to the fact that it has been three years since people in the kingdom took out protests against the government. In the same vein, right after mentioning the conviction and jailing of two activists, reference is made to the comment by Rodney Shakespeare which suggests that such decisions could bring about the end of the current regime. This pattern is followed again where the report states the sentencing of 23 activists in a Manama criminal court. Here, the statement is followed by describing the ‘brutal crackdown’ of a ‘popular Bahraini uprising’ in 2011 and the role played by Saudi-led forces in suppressing those protests. The report also mentions that 89 people have lost their lives in the course of the resistance and dissent which is followed up by the comment that such laws would actually serve to strengthen the resistance movement instead of discouraging it.

Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis of the texts shows a difference in the themes being pursued by the two sources. The story covered in the *Saudi Gazette* identifies institutions such as the criminal court as the main actors, thereby using the authority of the institutions rather than personalities as the justification for the new amendment. On the other hand, the news story in the *Tehran Times* makes markedly more references to the king of Bahrain, the Bahraini state and the security forces of the monarchy instead of making references to the courts or the government. Furthermore, these actors are juxtaposed with verbs that have negative connotations. For instance, it states that the king of Bahrain has approved the amendment to punish those who publicly insult him, thus suggesting that the amendment is designed to serve the interests of the king rather than the interests of the state or the people. Then it states that Bahrain amended its 1976 penal code when referring to the report from the Bahrain News Agency. It is again mentioned in the story that Bahrain convicted and jailed activists rather than saying that the courts convicted and jailed them, which serves to imply that the judiciary system is controlled by the state and is being used as a tool to punish protestors and activists. Other state agents such as the security forces are also portrayed negatively by stating that they were responsible for ‘quashing’ the 2011 ‘uprising.’ Furthermore, the ally of Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, is also shown in a negative light as being a partner of the brutal regime in using force to suppress the protests in the kingdom. On the other hand, the ‘protestors’ are described as being persistently involved in a fight with the brutal security forces, as a result of which 89 people have been killed.

Macro-Structure Analysis

The macro-structure analysis of the two stories reinforces the analysis in the preceding sections. The macro-structure of the *Saudi Gazette* story is based entirely on official information and the immediate context relating to the legislation such as stating what the previous sentence
for the offence was and an instance of recently convicting activists for insulting the king. Other than this, there is hardly any sentence that presents the other side of the picture or any other viewpoint. There is however, a reference towards the end about the conviction of 23 people for carrying out petrol bomb attacks and unlicensed protests. This helps to convince the reader that the harsh penalty may be necessary in the light of the current situation.

On the other hand, the story in the *Tehran Times* presents a richer mix of neutral statements and negative references in the macro-structure. Each official statement from Reuters and the BNA is juxtaposed with a counterargument that points to the ineffectiveness of the government in satisfying the needs of the people and resorting to legal and coercive measures to curb dissent. Six sentences in the story relate to stating and describing what the legal amendment is and giving its background to the readers. On the other hand, 11 sentences contain implicit references to oppressive actions of the government in order to draw a connection between the new legal amendment and the use of force by the government to suppress protesting voices in the country. This has been done to reduce the credibility of the Al-Khalifa government by presenting more negative references to the government in the report about a legal amendment. The positive aspects of the legal amendment in promoting law and order and respect for symbols of the state in public have not been included in the report. This helps to imply that the legal amendment would most likely be used as another weapon in the arsenal of the current regime in conjunction with military force and discrimination. Overall, both the macro-structures of the news stories are not well-balanced and do not represent both sides of the story.

**Conclusion**

On the basis of the above discussion, it can be concluded that the stories presented in the two newspapers reflect the political affiliations of the two countries. The representation in the Saudi Gazette is mainly neutral while it excludes any information that reflects poorly on the Bahraini government or puts it in a negative light. On the other hand, the Tehran Times uses a lot of references to negative actions of the government to discredit it and make the legal amendment appear as a tool of oppression against the Bahraini protestors. This shows that language can be used in different ways to affect the perception of news by the readers. The techniques of thematic analysis, macrostructure analysis, lexical cohesion and naming all indicate that the effect of linguistic elements has been used to shape the discourse in the desired way.
Appendix

Appendix I: Story published in Tehran Times

Bahrain extremely toughens penalties for protesting king

The king of Bahrain has approved a law imposing a jail sentence of up to seven years and a fine of thousands of dollars for anyone who publicly insults him, Reuters reported.

The news comes just days before the third anniversary of the Arab Spring-inspired protests against the kingdom’s monarchy.

Bahrain amended its 1976 penal code to carry a minimum one-year and maximum seven-year sentence, including a fine of up to US$26,000, for “publicly offending the king of Bahrain, its national flag or emblem,” state news agency BNA reported.

The prison sentence could rise above seven years if the “offense was committed in the presence of the king,” BNA added.

Prior to the law change, the same charges against the monarchy carried a minimum sentence of a few days.

Bahrain convicted and jailed two activists for one and four months, respectively, in 2012 for
Twitter comments that supposedly insulted King Hamad bin Isa Al-Khalifa. Social media comments are included in the new edict.

Rodney Shakespeare, chair of the Committee against Torture in Bahrain, told RT that the tightened restrictions on dissent show a kingdom in its final throes.

“The only thing it will do is make the Khalifa regime even more ridiculous, even more pompous,” he said. “This is something in the last stages of their power, before they get overthrown; in particular, they get overthrown by members of their own side”.

Also on Tuesday, a criminal court in the capital of Manama sentenced 23 activists to five years in jail for taking part in unlicensed protests and alleged attacks with petrol bombs, AFP reported. Another activist received three years in jail.

In mid-February 2011, a popular Bahraini uprising was eventually quashed one month later by a brutal crackdown by the monarchy’s security forces. In addition, Saudi-led forces assisted in suppressing protests in an effort to support the Al-Khalifa kingdom.

Protesters continue to fight with security forces in Shia areas around Manama. At least 89 people have been killed since demonstrations began against the U.S.-supported Al-Khalifa monarchy, according to the International Federation for Human Rights.

Shakespeare told RT that the new offense laws will harden resistance rather than deter further dissidence.

“[The monarchy’s] power comes as a result of poison gas, lead shot, imprisonment, torture, and bullets,” he said. “But there’s no loyalty given by anyone to the Al-Khalifa, not even from their own sycophants and placements. We are getting information that tells us that everybody now wants them out.”

Appendix II: Story published in Saudi Gazette

**Bahrain toughens jail time for offending king**

**MANAMA** – Bahrain announced on Tuesday tougher jail sentences for offending King Hamad. An amendment to the 1976 penal code says that “publicly offending the king of Bahrain, its national flag or emblem” will carry a minimum one-year and a maximum seven-year sentence, as well as a fine of up to $26,000 (19,260 euros), state news agency BNA reported.
The sentence can exceed seven years if the “offense was committed in the presence of the king,” the report added, without providing details. Previously, the same charges carried a minimum sentence of only a few days. In 2012, a criminal court jailed two activists for one and four months, respectively, after their conviction for posting on Twitter remarks deemed insulting to the king.

Meanwhile Tuesday, the Manama criminal court sentenced 23 people to five years in jail for attacks with petrol bombs and taking part in an unlicensed protest. Another person was jailed for three years. – AFP

References

Paradigms and Practices in Improving Writing Skills of Management Students

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Abstract: Improving writing skills in English is an important concern to the teachers and learners at undergraduate level. Good writing skills enable the students to communicate effectively during and after their studies. The learners need to have a certain amount of L2 background knowledge about the rhetorical organizations, appropriate language use or specific lexicon with which they want to communicate to their readers.

A study is conducted among Dilla University students to know their interests, needs and learning preferences. This study also facilitates the teachers to know the pulse of the graduate students which helps them to plan and execute their class work. The researcher collected data from the present and previous students who are employed in various organizations and are using English for communication in work places. This data helps us to know the learners needs, to promote the curriculum of English Writing Skills Course and to advance learners’ writing competence. Against this background, the present paper focuses on the analysis of students’ needs and then suggests a few steps to improve the materials and methods to foster the writing proficiency of undergraduate students. The study tries to enable the learners to take the responsibility to improve their writing skills by analyzing and addressing their needs.

Key Words: Improving Writing Skills, Management students, Needs Analysis, Learning-Centered Approach.

Introduction:

English is an important international language. Presently, it is used as a business, scientific, technological, educational and diplomatic language of the world. It is considered that the success of educational objectives is highly dependent on the adequate knowledge and use of English both by the students and teachers. It needs competence in the four language skills – Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing and in the four aspects – Grammar, Spelling, Pronunciation and Vocabulary. Writing is one of the skills of language learning which is important for students in their academic and future career. Bean added that “Writing is a skill that is not only valued in academia; good writing skills are very important for the enhancement of our students’ and professional lives”. Writing is important productive skill and learners at all
levels in general and at graduate level in particular need a considerable amount of writing for various purposes. Bacha and Bahous opine that writing is very important in working places for effective correspondence and documents such as e-mails, letters, reports, proposals, etc. Keeping this in view, writing courses offered at University level should target on skills related to students’ academic needs and future career to ensure that the learners are well equipped with the required writing skills in order for them to perform in academic and at the work place.

The general aim of English Writing Skills Course is to help students improve their writing skills in following their academic studies and to be competent in their future career. Several efforts have been made at different times to improve the quality and effectiveness of teaching English language skills. Such endeavours resulted several changes in teaching from grammar oriented teaching to communicative language teaching. In spite of these improvements, there are a few concerns to deal with regard to the writing skills of the learners. One of the concerns is students’ low performance in written communication. Teachers, employers and other stakeholders in the area complain about the performance of learners in writing. Against this background, the present study focuses to analyze the needs of Business Management students’ specific English writing needs in relation to English Writing Skills Course offered at Dilla University and to address their needs by suggesting a few steps to improve the materials and methods to foster the writing proficiency of undergraduate students.

Review of Literature

Writing is an important skill in both academic and occupational settings. In EAP – English for academic purpose, from elementary school through university graduate courses, students write to succeed in mastering the subject matter. Academic writing ranges from sentences level to short paragraphs, essays and even research papers. In an EOP - English for occupational purpose context, writing is more concerned with the content and format while in an EAP context, writing focuses more on writing techniques such as process and development of idea and logic (on line). Sidey claims that in an EOP context, emphasizing the difference in writing purposes and the resultant text structure are crucial in order to match the needs of the work place skills. Furthermore, according to Baynham, to characterize the knowledge and skills of a good writer, the need to emphasize the dimension of the required metalinguistic must exist. For example, the awareness of the different types of texts as well as the pragmatics is an important dimension. Thus, in ESP – English for specific purpose contexts, the types of texts have to be explicit and related to students needs. The interests and the needs of the students are necessary for them to realize the significance in acquiring the skill.

Braine claims that students of various disciplines demands a variation of academic information processing sequence, as well as putting more emphasis on the contributory skills. By contributory skills, he means those skills that require the student to use their linguistic abilities as well as their understanding of subject matter to write essays that are acceptable to the reader.
These are skills like summary skills, paraphrase, note making and so on. Thus, Business Management students need to learn both the classroom language and writing skills for future job and the writing skills and activities for the study purposes. Hence, both, EAP and EOP, which are branches of ESP, are essential for them, for the success of the study at the University and as candidate business managers. Writing is the central component of learning and assessment in all disciplines in higher education. According to Bean, nurturing good writing enhances student in learning and develops both their critical thinking and active problem solving abilities. He also added that good writing skills are very important for the enhancement of our students’ personal and professional lives. Writing today is not a trill for the few, but an essential skill for the many. Moreover, Bechard points that writing in the business sector promotes active learning, with students using hands-on activities to apply theory to real world problems. Bechard also added that the writing activities enhanced team skills, research skills, critical thinking skills, and analytical skills.

The ability to communicate effectively is important for everyone who wants to succeed in the business world. Furthermore, as Dobrian added, e-mail and other online services are very widespread, often replacing telephone and face-to-face meetings. Besides, with English becoming the international language of business, more people are writing it and business executives must be able to communicate in this growing international culture. From the above discussion it is possible to say that writing is very essential for business management students to be successful in their academic subjects as well as in their future career. Regarding this, Brown and Paapanen found that graduates of accounting and business need quality writing and speaking communication skills in order to be successful at work.

According to Jordan, TSA – Target situation analysis is rigorously devised model of all in the development of needs analysis in Munby’s communicative Needs, processor ‘which gives the profile of students communicative needs. Munby’s model gives more emphasis in students’ needs at the end of a language program and target-level performance preparing students for later job or for study in a particular context. Here it is apt to say that TSA should take into account the learners’ training and job requirements in order that English course helps them to accomplish different tasks in their specific discipline or prefer in duties or jobs in a good way after the completion of their ESP course. In relation to this, Jordan points out “subject specific language, and its organization, has been subjected to various types of analysis over a long period of time, starting register analysis, followed by discourse analysis and more recently, genre analysis.” And these will be looked at under target situation analysis as it incorporates all of them.

Data Collection and Analysis

An investigation into the students target and present situation needs in both Business Management students and graduates are made with questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and class room observation. This is done through target writing needs of English writing and its
activities in both for their course studies and future jobs. Additionally, the students’ ability in writing skill and activities, their writing difficulties, learning styles/preferences, reasons for taking the writing course would be investigated. The students, instructors and employees questionnaire were adapted from the questionnaire employed by Munby, Dudley-Evans and John, Berhane Demeke and Beyene Wako.

The students’ questionnaire consisted of 11 items with sub sections with some. The questionnaire was made up of different close ended items (multiple question and rating). However, students were given chances to include whatever they thought were needed in the study. The instructors’ questionnaire consisted of five questions for English teachers which consist of sub-questions and seven questions for major area course teachers. The English teachers’ questionnaire consists of questions about the degree of satisfaction they have about the course material they have been using in addition to the questions included in the subject area teachers and the learners. The employees’ questionnaire consisted of five items. The items in the questionnaire were aimed at gathering information on graduates’ writing proficiency, their writing difficulties and their writing needs. A total of 555 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to 70 students, 18 instructors and 15 employees/graduates. Of these 554 copies (a response rate 99.8 %) were properly filled and used for the study. A semi-structured interview questions were used. The purpose of the interview was to validate the data gathered through the questionnaire and further explore students writing needs and difficulties. Therefore, the content of the interview was similar to that of the questionnaire. Dudley Evans and John state that oral interview is extremely useful in needs analysis. The interview questions were adapted and used for this research from Munby, and Berhane Demeke. The semi-structured interview was conducted with 2 English teachers, 3 subject instructors and 6 students. These groups of respondents were selected using simple random sampling method.

The other data collection instrument in this study was classroom observation. The purpose of this instrument was to collect authentic data backing up and giving life of data gathered with the help of other instruments. Regarding the importance of observation, Dudley-Evans and John claim that for needs analysis it can cover a range of activities from watching a particular task being performed to shadowing individuals at work. The observation protocol was adapted from Basturkmen and Dudley-Evans and St John and was conducted on both second and third year Business Management classes. Six periods with three courses (‘Entrepreneurship’, ‘International Marketing’, and ‘Management Information System’) were observed two periods for each course. Data gathered through questionnaires were tallied and then calculated using percentage and analyzed quantitatively. The response of the students and the teachers were compared and contrasted to arrive at sound conclusion. Data gathered through semi-structured interview, classroom observations and text analysis were analyzed qualitatively. Both qualitative and quantitative data were presented and analyzed separately. However, cross-references were
made to different pieces of information gathered through questionnaire, interview and observation.

Analysis of the purpose of taking “English Writing Skills Course” as perceived by the students:

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<td>B Communicate with English speakers</td>
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<td>C Future occupation</td>
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<td>D Pass tests</td>
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Analysis of students’ difficulty in micro-skills as perceived by students and subject area instructors:

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<td>I 1 12.5 2 25 4 50</td>
<td>1 12.5</td>
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<td>%</td>
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<td>Writing in one group</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would you like learning? By:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Writing compositions</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Listening to the teacher and taking notes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Writing everything to my note book</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When you write you like to be corrected by:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yourself</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely used</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never used</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of the Importance of the Four Academic Genre Types in the Context of Business Management Department:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Genre Types</th>
<th>Very frequently Used</th>
<th>Frequently used</th>
<th>Sometime used</th>
<th>Rarely used</th>
<th>Never used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argumentation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the students’ response the most frequently needed writing activities in order of priority are: writing notes from lectures, writing essay tests or exams, writing notes from reference books, summarizing something read, completing formal reports and proposals, writing assignments, writing resumes and application letters, writing dictations, writing direct requests and writing memos. According to the instructors’ responses, writing notes from lectures; writing essay tests or exams; writing assignments; summarizing something read and writing business.
letters; writing notes from books/references and writing business reports; writing semester term papers, writing dictations, writing memos and writing resumes and application letters; writing business proposals followed by completing formal reports and proposals, writing direct requests and writing letters are the most frequently needed writing activities in this order of priority.

The writing ability of graduates/employees as perceived by themselves:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Weak</th>
<th>Very weak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing ability</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assessment of the relative importance of the genre types for occupational settings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing types</th>
<th>Very frequently needed</th>
<th>Frequently needed</th>
<th>Sometimes needed</th>
<th>Seldom needed</th>
<th>Never needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Description</td>
<td>6 40</td>
<td>7 46.7</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Narration</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Exposition</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>7 46.7</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Argumentation</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>4 26.7</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>3 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assessment of the use of writing activities in occupational settings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Very frequently</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Writing memos/minutes of meetings</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>6 40</td>
<td>4 26.7</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Writing notices</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>4 26.7</td>
<td>6 40</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Writing business reports</td>
<td>4 26.7</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>4 26.7</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Writing business proposals</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>8 53.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Writing advertisements</td>
<td>1 6.7</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>9 60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Writing e-mails</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>6 40</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Writing notes from seminars/conferences</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>3 20</td>
<td>5 33.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
<td>2 13.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Employees ranked writing business letters, writing office memos/minutes of meetings, writing e-mails, writing business reports, writing fax messages, writing vacancy notices, writing notes from seminars/conferences, writing resumes and application letters, writing direct requests, writing business proposals, completing formal requests and proposals, writing advertisements and writing letters of order, guarantee, warranty, credit, refusal etc were frequently needed writing activities. The questionnaire analysis corroborates with other findings on the usefulness of the course. The majority of the students found that the course is useful in the enhancement of their academic writing skills. They also found the course is to be improved in a few areas to meet their present and future needs. Besides, students reported some ‘by-products’ of the course, including improvement in their general English skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing emails as well as collaboration with other people.

Discussion and Conclusions

Writing is an individual effort as one composes one’s thoughts often-in privacy and then turn their thoughts to writing, using strict conventions followed in the language. Writing is conscious and is thus non-spontaneous. During teaching writing skill, the discrete nature of linguistic signs should be appreciated consciously. The learner must recognize the sound structure of each word, dissect it and reproduce it in alphabetical symbols, which s/he must have studied and memorized before. This preparation to put words in sentences with a sequence is prominent in the acquisition of the skill.
Writing can be viewed and taught as a developmental process like reading. As Bowen suggested, the skill is developed in four stages:

- **Beginning stage** – developing Mechanics of writing
- **Elementary stage** – developing extended use of language
- **Intermediate stage** – developing writing with purpose
- **Advanced stage** – developing writing expository prose

Raimes classifies approaches to teaching writing into five types: controlled to free, free writing, paragraph pattern, grammar-syntax organization, communicative, and process approaches. In controlled to free approach, students are first given sentence exercises, then paragraphs to copy or manipulate grammatically, like changing questions to statements, present to past, or plural to singular, and changing words or clauses or combine sentences. In free writing approach, students are asked to write freely on any topic without worrying about grammar and spelling for five or ten minutes. Teachers generally read them and perhaps comment on the ideas the writer expressed. In paragraph pattern approach, students copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence and they insert or delete sentences.

In communicative approach to writing, students are asked to assume the role of a writer who is writing for an audience to read. Whatever a student writes something, it is modified in some way by other students for better communicative effect. In the process approach to writing, students move away from concentration on the written product to an emphasis on the process of writing. It is important to use these approaches in a proper blend for better results. For example, the controlled to free approach to writing helps teachers to focus on proper mechanics in the beginning level, whereas communicative approach to writing is very effective once students have some control over the mechanics, have acquired a good number of words besides sentence structures to help them match these with their thoughts. All successful texts and teachers have tried to take the best and relevant aspects of every method to suit the learner’s level and need.

**Correction**: Correction of the students’ scripts is a crucial phenomenon to correct errors / mistakes at all level so that standards in spelling and expression are set for the learners. Raimes suggests that it is always suggestive to use errors / mistakes in the written texts to plan the next classes. It would be always result yielding to give students time and opportunity to correct errors before teacher evaluate the script. If students’ erroneous views of expression are not corrected, they consolidate those faulty means of written communication and a sense of self-sufficiency sets in their minds.
**Speed of Writing:** Though it is very difficult to match speed of learners’ thoughts with their writing speed, at every stage, focus on writing faster and reading faster with comprehension is to be increased. Slow writing is problematic in timed test situations. Dictation exercises with the increase in pace would be helpful in improving the speed of writing. Conduct of cloze tests will give good results. The objective is not to increase the number of words per minute, but to increase the speed of organizing thought in the second language and of judging and producing in a style that will be compatible with the first part of the passage.

Teachers also need to deal with the appropriate rhetoric of the field using English. Rhetoric and logic play a more crucial role than linguistic structures. However, it is always important and useful to refresh the second language learner of English about the spelling, vocabulary, diction and structure errors s/he continues to commit. Students will continue to commit linguistic errors even as they try to master the rhetorical and logical expressions. The following factors that are responsible for the success of the learning environment are identified from the study and are illustrated below:

1. **Description of the Subject Matter:** The accurate description of the subject matter allows to define learning goals and to identify the kind of knowledge / skills that are to be learnt / acquired. This description leads to the learning goal of a differentiated understanding of communicative needs. The subject matter requires the de- and re- automation of the skills that are to be fostered.

2. **Authentic Learning Scenarios:** A basic assumption of situated learning approaches is the authenticity of the learning scenario. The context of learning should be similar to the context in which the acquired knowledge and skills are used in everyday life. The writing orientation and activities need to be embedded into an authentic learning scenario. The execution of materials / methods is conducted based on realistic situations.

3. **Willingness to Participate:** Willingness to practice writing for improvement is crucial as it needs learner’s involvement. Using words for writing practice from the student’s immediate environment and later on from speaking and reading activities is appropriate and useful. The writing skills orientation must be easy to participate and need to create interest to move to the next level of writing.

4. **Obligatory Participation:** Writing texts with peer correction and then teacher correction is to be embedded into the *English Writing Skills Course* curriculum. This provides the climate for obligatory participation to all learners. Once the learners start receiving the profits from the writing tasks, they voluntarily participate in various activities for improving their abilities of communication.
5. **Adaptability of the Material:** No two writing skills trainings are the same. It is important to emphasize different contents to adapt training to the needs / interests of the participants. Thus, it is necessary for a writing skills improvement environment, which is integrated into such training, to be adaptable to the special situation of training. Communication skills through writing needs to provide choice to the knowledge and interests of the learner. The teacher has the possibility to integrate different materials into the training environment and to switch on / off diverse instructional features.

Thus, overall, the course seems to have achieved the objectives it set out to achieve, i.e., in helping students to recognize the general characteristics of academic writing, recognize the grammar and style of academic writing in their own discipline, present well organized ideas in formal English, interpret data and academic texts, write a simple critique, write a data commentary, and write a report. Nonetheless, it is evident that some students still expressed difficulties in the use of words, grammar, and generation and organization of ideas, though it is readily acknowledged that eradication of all these problem areas from our students should not be the task of *English Writing Skills Course* instructors alone. The improvement of language proficiency, in general, and abilities of writing, in particular, is a life-long process. This endeavour may be expedited by a passionate pursuit on the part of learners themselves, targeted language and communication programmes on the part of the class work and outside-of-class institutionalized support systems on the part of the University.

**References**


How Do Authentic Materials Improve Students’ Listening Comprehension?

Sulistyani
Universitas Nusantara PGRI Kediri, Indonesia

Abstract: The aims of this research are to identify whether authentic materials (AMs) can improve students’ listening comprehension (LC) and to describe the classroom situation when AMs are used in teaching and learning process of LC. This is a classroom action research conducted in a university class in Indonesia which revealed that AM could improve students’ LC achievement and motivated them to learn LC. They became more active and paid more attention to the lesson. In short, positive response from the students toward the teaching and learning process of LC with AM is considerably significant.

The students’ LC improvement was revealed in the test scores in which the mean scores increased from 56.67 (pre-test of Cycle 1) to 60.70 (post-test of Cycle 1). It increased again in the post-test of Cycle 2, which was 69.07. The analysis of t-test non independent scores between the pre-test and post-test 1 was 4.226 which was higher than t-table 2.779. The t-test between post-test 1 and post-test 2 was 7.0235, \( \alpha = 0.05 \). Therefore, there is a significant difference between the condition before treatment and after treatment. Thus, it can be concluded that using AM in teaching listening can improve students’ LC.

Key Words: listening comprehension, authentic materials, learning achievement

Introduction

Listening skill is a receptive skill, the way in which people extract meaning from the discourse they hear which must be taught if the ability to understand the spoken form of the foreign language is not acquired naturally. In the university under investigation LC is taught as a compulsory subject. Based on the listening syllabus the students at the third semester should achieve listening comprehension at intermediate level. However, the students have difficulties to obtain this level. Their difficulties in LC are found to be caused by the use of textbook where the lecturer generally only applies the strategies provided in the books which according to Ying-hui (2006:4) actually should be adapted to the students’ needs where in LC they are expected to be able to get the gist of the discourse, understand the main points and important details, and recognize the opinion and attitude of the speaker. The textbooks do not provide any visual cues to help students more aware of speaker’s attitude. Furthermore, they do not provide enough pedagogical support to help students with their lack of actual linguistic knowledge. Because of
the drawback the textbooks possess, the students often show little attention to the material being presented.

So, the problem mentioned above is assumed to be caused mainly by the appropriateness of materials and the teaching techniques which do not arouse the students’ interest and motivation. The techniques are said to be sometimes monotonous that result in students’ boredom. Based on this class situation, a research dealing with the listening materials to improve the students’ LC is carried out.

AM is selected as a solution to this problem. The common reasons of using AM in the classroom practices is that AMs afford examples of real life English where in everyday conversation there are hesitation, false starts, filled and empty pauses, etc., which characterized natural speech. This kind of materials also help learners to become familiar with the real cadences of the target language, and learners need practice in the real-life task of extracting meaning from utterances where much of the language is beyond their current state of knowledge.

Underwood (1989:100) says,” AM allows the students to hear a much more real act of communication with all the interactional features which are normally not found in scripted materials”. If students are given a chance to listen to a range of authentic texts, they will sample many different voices, with various accents. They will also hear people expressing things in a variety of ways, for example, anger that is expressed by shouting or by choice of words or by many interruptions. In short, learners are confronted with ‘real life’ experiences in which they will have to function.

AMs such as movies, songs, and chatting at a party are often entertaining. With the application of this material, students will learn the target language in unconscious process. As they become absorbed in the activity they feel free from any burden like anxiety, fear, being shy etc that they may experience. The latest news, attending a lesson and being tested orally in a subject of study are often informative that students are eager to know any information they contain. In addition, because the language is usually colloquial, the students will be encouraged to be more attentive as long as the task and the purpose of listening are explicitly stated. Furthermore, AMs are often rich in vocabulary. AMs which are carefully selected to be appropriate with learners’ interest are definitely challenging and useful for them.

Moreover, students will realize that to be able to communicate they have to listen to a variety of samples, and be aware of how second language acquisition and comprehensible input plays a vital role in language learning, so, they need some degrees of exposure to AMs in order that they can apply the language in real life situations. Starting with those all, students will be interested to listen to the lesson, and with their firm intrinsic motivation the success of understanding the materials will be satisfactorily achieved. This research, therefore, questions two things: 1). Can and to what extent AMs improve students LC? 2). What happens with
classroom situation when AMs are used in improving LC? To highlight the topic under investigation, some theories presented encompass the nature of LC, listening AMs, examples of real-life listening, and characteristics of real-life listening situations.

**Review of Literature**

**The Nature of Listening Comprehension**

LC is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement (Fang, 2008). It means that the learner should be encouraged to concentrate on an active process of listening for meanings, using not only the linguistic cues but also his nonlinguistic knowledge. He should also know that not every clue is equally important to the message. Therefore, even when he misses a piece of language, he needs not worry because other clues will make him understand the message, or at least, enough of the message for his own aim. Thus, listener as an active model builder could combine the new information with his previous knowledge and experience to reach full comprehension of what had been heard. In other words, the active interpretation and integration of incoming information with prior knowledge and experience is the primary emphasis.

**Listening Authentic Materials**

The listening materials can be divided into two parts: graded and authentic. Because students are expected to be able to function successfully in variety of real life situation, it will be helpful to introduce AMs. It is relatively difficult for foreign learners to understand the discourse, identify the different voices and cope with frequent overlaps. However, this can be overcome with learning strategy and careful selection and editing. This being so, EFL learners will be provided with sufficient input which makes sense to examine first of all what real life listening is, and what sorts of things the listener needs to be able to do in order to comprehend satisfactorily in a variety of situations. Examples of authentic materials are film, song, radio broadcast, news, interviews, lecture and so on.

AMs, as defined in Martinez (2002:1) are materials that have been produced to fulfill some social purpose in the language community. It is material designed for native speakers of English used in the classroom in a way similar to the one it was designed for. For example, a radio news report brought into the classroom so students discuss the report on pollution in the city where learners live. While Harmer (2001:205), defines AMs as language where no concessions are made to foreign speakers. He adds that it is normal, natural language used by native – or competent – speakers of a language.

Another definition of AM is given by Miller (2003:1) that AM are any spoken texts which have not been specially prepared for language learners, and they are often delivered via technologies like radio, television/video, and the internet or CD-ROM. This kind of language is
what students encounter (or will encounter) when they come into contact with target-language speakers in real life, and precisely, because it is authentic, it is unlikely to be made simple, spoken slowly, or to be full of simplistic content.

**Examples of Real-life Listening**

Real-life listening situations can be gathered through making a list of as many situations where people are listening to other people in their own mother tongue. These include, of course, situations where they be doing other things beside listening-speaking, usually- but the essential point is that they need to be able to understand what is said in order to function satisfactorily in the situation. One way of doing this task is to talk ourselves through a routine day and note all the different listening experiences that occur. Some examples of real-life listening situations are interview, instructions, loudspeaker announcements, radio news, committee meeting, shopping, theatre show, telephone chat, lesson, lecture, conversation, gossip, watching television, storytelling etc (Ur, 1994:105).

Taylor and Candy (2006:18) list the types of authentic materials for listening such as: (a) Video/DVD, (b) Television, (c) Radio and recording, (d) Theatre, telephone, talks, cinema, (e) Songs, rhymes and poems. This means that actually there are a lot of things that can be explore to be effective listening materials around students themselves. This makes authentic materials more relevant to students’ life since students are familiar with them.

**Characteristics of Real-life Listening Situations**

From the examples of real-life listening situations above, some features that seem to be common to most of the situations might be associated with the kind of language that is usually used; the kind of interaction; what the listener is doing. For example, in most situations that the speaker is improvising as he or she speaks, which results in a rather informal, disorganized kind of language; and in most situations the listener is responding to what is being said as well as listening.

a. Informal spoken discourse

In everyday life most of the spoken language people listen to is informal and spontaneous. Ur (1994:106) describes the various interesting features of informal speech such as brevity of chunks, slurred pronunciation of words, colloquial vocabulary, somewhat ungrammatical: utterances, a certain amount of ‘noise’, redundancy and non-repetition.

b. Listener expectation and purpose

Thing such as who is speaking or the basic topic being spoken is usually known in advance and the listener links this to his or her purpose or objective in listening. And the listener expects to hear something relevant to his or her purpose.

b. Looking as well as listening

Except listening to radio or telephone call for example, listening is normally done by having something to look at that is linked to what is being said. Listener usually looks at the speaker
his- or herself as well as looking at other visual stimuli such as a map, scene or object, or the environment in general.

c. Ongoing, purposeful listener response
   As the discourse is going on, the listener is usually responding at interval. It rarely happens to listener to listen to an extended speech and responds only at the end.

e. Speaker attention
   When speaking, the speaker usually pays attention to the listener and directs his or her speech to the listener takes the listener’s character, intention etc. into account and often directly responds to his or her reactions. These can be done both verbally and non-verbally, by changing or adapting the discourse.

   Being authentic, the speech used in such recordings is ungraded and the language is often very difficult. The shortcoming of AM in general is that when it is not chosen carefully it will be de-motivating for students as they will not understand it. Anyone who had listened to recordings of natural conversation knows that it is difficult to understand the thread of the discourse, identify the different voices and cope with frequent overlaps. To avoid failure in adapting authentic material for use in the classroom, teacher is suggested to carefully select it.

   However, AMs in the semi-controlled environment of multi-media, where learners can sometimes play it again, provide them with the chance to evolve their own succession and to fashion their own communication assistants. Harmer (2001:205) also suggests that students should be let to listen to things they can understand. But, it is essential that such listening texts approximate to authentic language use. The language may be simplified but it must not be unnatural. It is stated in Harmer (2001:205) that concocted made-up language can be perfectly viable but it should be modeled on naturalistic samples. With regard to recorded materials: if the texts are carefully enough graded, prepared and administered, then the final transition from imitation of authentic speech to genuine authentic speech should take place smoothly.

Methodology

This research is undertaken as Classroom Action Research (CAR) in collaboration with two English lecturers in the second year class of the English Department in Teacher Training and Education Faculty in Indonesia. 30 students attend LC class once a week with the duration of 100 minutes each. The spiral model of action research developed by Kemmis and McTaggart (1998) in Wiraatmadja (2007:67) which consists of four essential moments namely: planning, action, observation, and reflection are applied.

The research is conducted in two cycles with each cycle consists of four steps (planning, acting, observing, and reflecting). The first cycle is designed based on the reflection of the previous condition. The data of the research are collected through some techniques including observation, interview, questionnaire, and test. The qualitative data are analyzed through the
steps consisting of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification as proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994:10-12).

Meanwhile, the quantitative data are analyzed by checking the students’ answer on the written test that is carried out the implementation of cycles whether they are right or wrong, computing the students’ correct answers, calculating the students’ score on written test is done as follows, calculating the percentage of the correct answers of each student by using percentage correction to measure the students’ listening comprehension.

**Findings**

The problems identified are the students’ LC which is low and the students’ interest and motivation which are low as well. The researcher proposed a solution to the problems that was using AMs in teaching listening. The implementation of AM in listening class consisted of two cycles; the first cycle consisted of four meetings and the second cycle consisted of two meetings. In each meeting the students’ LC gradually improved and their motivation to listen was higher. Two major aspects in students’ improvement are: 1) the students’ competence in LC, 2) the classroom situation when the AMs are used in listening class. The result of the research can be seen in table 1.

**Table 1.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Summary of Research Findings</th>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Students listening comprehension</th>
<th>After the implementation of authentic material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before the implementation of authentic material</td>
<td>After the implementation of authentic material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students could not identify the pragmatic units.</td>
<td>• Students can identify the pragmatic units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students could not connect linguistics and other cues</td>
<td>• Students can complete the exercises quicker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students could not use background knowledge.</td>
<td>• Students can use background knowledge</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Students can complete the exercises quicker</td>
<td>• Students can complete the exercises quicker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. Classroom situation when authentic materials were implemented</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before the implementation of authentic material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students can connect linguistics and other cues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students can use background knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students can complete the exercises quicker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The improvement of students’ LC and class situation in table 4.8 is because the students pay more attention and interested in listening materials which have connection with their lives so they are familiar with the materials.

The mean of score in pre-test is 56.67, the mean of score in cycle 1 is 60.7, and the mean of score in cycle 2 is 69.07. Based on the result of t-test for independent scores, the improvement of scores from cycle to cycle is significant. The computation of the result of Cycle 1, Cycle 2, and Cycle 3 showed that the improvement of students’ score in LC was in significant condition. The t of computation in Cycle 1 was 4.226 and in Cycle 2 were 7.0235. The improvement of the listening scores was illustrated on Graph 1.

Graph 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>material</th>
<th>material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students did not show interest in the materials</td>
<td>Students were interested in the materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students did not show high motivation</td>
<td>Students show high motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students talked about unrelated topic</td>
<td>Students talk about related topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students could not answer questions.</td>
<td>Students can answer most questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students did not participate in listening activities</td>
<td>Students participate in listening activities eagerly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students did the tasks reluctantly</td>
<td>Students do the tasks on time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The class was not alive</td>
<td>The class becomes alive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N= 27

The Result of Pre-test 1, Post-test, Post-test 2
Discussion

The classroom action research done in LC class has been to determine whether AMs can bring about any improvement in classroom pedagogy. This research result has led the author to state two major points as described below:

1. **AMs can improve students’ LC**
   a. **AMs improve students’ competence in identifying pragmatic units (answering inference questions)**

   Identifying pragmatic units is one of the listening skills that needs to be developed in order that language learners can easily process the messages they hear. This skill focuses on communication, purpose, and meaning in which the goals are linguistic in nature. They are not linguistic in the traditional sense of just focusing on grammar or phonology; but by maintaining the centrality of functions like greeting people, expressing opinions, requesting information, etc. These are the discourse that happens in everyday life, the functions which are and encountered by language learners. In fact the principle of language learning is to function successfully in real communication. This is why students must be exposed to real language.

   Brown (2001:244) suggests that classroom practitioners organize the classroom around those practical tasks that language users engage in “out there” in the real world. He adds that the use of authentic text help students further develop their communicative skills. Because of the features of authentic materials which provide examples communicative functions or language use, it is the right choice to use authentic materials to promote students’ communicative competence. It is important, therefore, to take the opportunity wherever possible to expose students to examples of real language usage to help them become more communicatively competent.

   b. **AMs improve students’ competence in connecting linguistic cues (answering information questions)**

   There is a significant improvement for students in this listening skill. This can be shown by the students’ state of being active in class participation. They can answer information questions well especially after being presented authentic materials which is still on the news for example, the report dealing with crime, financial/oil crisis or film. Using film is obvious that students get a lot of environmental clues such as speakers’ gestures, facial expressions, place, time, etc. which help them understand the content of the story better.

   Good listeners are often indicated by their ability in answering comprehension questions. One is considered to be competent listener if he/she can understand the content or the message contained in a spoken text. To achieve this goal, language learners need to be able to master this skill, connecting linguistic and paralinguistic to non-linguistic cues which is usually measured by
their ability to answer questions about the content or information of a text. Through this skill students must be able to activate their linguistic competence supported by other cues like situation, participants, setting etc. Linguistic competence has been proved to be significant in enhancing students’ LC. Mahdavy (2008:10) has proved that linguistic intelligence plays a statistically significant role in listening performance.

Kilickaya (2006:1) comments, “AMs enable learners to interact with the real language and content rather than the form. Learners feel that they are learning a target language as it is used outside the classroom.” This statement shows the weakness of using AMs. This gives information that students are not exclusively taught language rules but this problem can still be easily overcome by language instructors for example by giving students some pedagogical support. She suggests, “To make my students comfortable with AMs, I do provide necessary pedagogical support for complicated sentences and unfamiliar phraseology.” Despite the lack found in AMs, she suggests that learners are exposed to real language and they feel that they are learning the real language. “These are what make us excited and willing to use AMs in our classroom.” Therefore Mahdavy (2008:10) also suggests, “Teachers should provide language learners with low levels of linguistic intelligence with further assistance and support and motivate them to perform more linguistic task so that they can better improve their listening skills.”

c. AMs can improve students’ competence in using background knowledge (guessing meaning from context)

AMs have proven to be effective in improving students’ skill in guessing meaning from context as comprehension will occur when listener’s background information match with new information. Using AMs in listening class has proven to support this idea. It is reasonable that students will be able to predict or guess meaning of words because students’ concept about things spoken by speakers so the students have expectation to what they will hear about a topic. This will lead students to be easier to guess meanings of words.

AMs that are close to students’ life will help them improve their skill of guessing meanings from context because students have the knowledge about the topic. Besides, they will find something useful as their knowledge about the topic expands by the new information that they probably have not known. Therefore the use of authentic listening materials is an important factor to take into consideration when designing LC materials.

Brown (2001:258) suggested using AMs because authentic language and real world tasks enable students to see the relevance of classroom activity to their long-term communication goal. He says, “With the use of authentic listening materials, students learn to comprehend double meaning, predict meanings, and make allowance for performance errors committed by other speakers. Thus, it is obvious that AMs improve students’ competence in using background knowledge to predict meaning.
2. AMs can improve classroom situation

Authentic materials can improve students’ interest and motivation in learning listening.

The research findings show that the use of AMs can improve the students’ learning interest and motivation in the class. Before the application of AMs the students did not show high interest in learning listening although they realize that this subject is very important. They did not show high motivation to learn listening. In addition, the class was not alive and paid little attention to the lesson. They did not participate actively in class activities, but they often talked about unrelated topic with their friend, and even not willing to do listening tasks.

The situation changed after the research, just to be the opposite. The students show their interest and motivation in learning listening. During the teaching learning process of LC using AMs students’ response toward the teaching learning process appear to be different from what it was before the action research. They look so enthusiastic in doing class activities. They mostly become more serious in paying attention to the lesson. They become serious in joining the class by participating in every class activities, answering questions, talking about the topic seriously. In short, the class becomes alive.

The reason that supports the change in class situation is the change in the kind of materials. Kilickaya (2006) states, “The use of AMs stimulates and motivates learners to comprehend the content of an oral text because the practical benefits of understanding such authentic language material are obvious.” Furthermore, she adds that the materials like song as an example, is relevant to students’ life and area of personal interest. It creates a non-threatening environment.

3. Other Findings:

Teacher Improved on Material Selection for Listening

Other finding in this research is dealing with teacher. When the researcher implemented the AMs for listening class, she improved in many ways. First, she was better at selecting AMs since not every authentic material is suitable for students. Second, she become more familiar with them since she discussed a lot of things during the implementation of AM such as: what kinds of topic they want, what they suggest her to do when they find difficulty in understanding the lesson, whether they also practice listening to English outside the classroom, etc. She noticed her students’ interest and problems in listening so that she can find a suitable way to help them improve their LC.

Conclusion

The action research by using AMs to improve students’ LC in Nusantara PGRI Kediri University has been conducted and it is found that there is a significant improvement in LC achievement and a change in classroom situation.
AMs are in fact what the students need. When they were carefully selected, they were really beneficial. The students looked relatively more engaged in all activities. The students were more active than before. They commented that the materials were interesting, entertaining, informative, and up to date. They gave model how language was used in real communication and also introduced the culture of the speaker of that language. Thus, they could motivate the students to learn LC and are still the best choice to apply.

Suggestions and Recommendations

Based on the previous experiences that the researcher got during the action research, the researcher could give suggestions particularly for English teachers to:

a. Use AMs to teach LC to students especially the intermediate students
b. Pay attention to six of LC skills; discriminating sound, recognizing words, identifying grammatical units, identifying pragmatic units, connecting linguistic cues. Using background knowledge to be improved simultaneously.
c. Select and present material according to the students’ level and need.
d. Be ready to give necessary assistance whenever students find difficulty
e. Encourage students to learn LC not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom to make them more familiar with spoken English.

With all of the strength of AMs teachers can take the benefits that AMs can overcome the problems arising in listening class. So, using AMs in listening class is strongly suggested but not to forget with some pedagogical support on linguistic knowledge for students. Students not only learn the contents of the text but also aware of what is going on around us.

References


Fostering Language Learning Ambiance in Mixed - Ability Classes Using Appropriate Instructional Strategies

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Dilla University, Dilla, Ethiopia, Africa

Abstract: Generally ESL class is an amalgam of students with different learning styles, different paces of learning, variations in motivation and varying analyzing capacities. Psychological orientation of students and Organizational orientation of the class are directly related to their achievement in language acquisition. The class needs to bring the feeling of success and appreciation to every student with everyone’s contribution for the achievement of the class through collaborative learning. This paper focuses to address day to day challenges of a mixed-ability class by providing a few strategies to teachers for effective language teaching / learning as stated below:

• Creating ambiance conducive for language learning to motivate everyone to participate in the class within a common curriculum framework

• Send a strong message to all learners that achievement and progress of every learner is equally valuable in the class

• Plan every class based on the prior learning and attainments of the learners using appropriate continuous evaluation.

Thus the teacher orchestrates the groups of mixed abilities with in the class and devises materials and activities suitable for various levels of learning. The students own the responsibility for their learning with a positive competitive spirit among peer groups.

Key Words: Language Acquisition, Mixed-Ability Class, Collaborative Learning, Instructional Strategies

Introduction

Generally ESL class has students with mixed abilities. Two or more distinct levels of ability present in a class with the same desired level of language skills. These groups of students have different learning styles, different paces of learning, variations in motivation and varying
analyzing capacities. Naturally, this is a challenge for a teacher to solve and simple solutions cannot meet such a complexity. This paper tries to explore effective strategies and techniques for mixed-ability classes focusing on the nature of a group and psychological aspects of language learning.

Most of the English language classes are heterogeneous in terms of students’ capacities, interests and pace of learning. As they came from different backgrounds, they have differences in learning styles, learning speeds. The language teacher facing such a diverse class with two or more distinct levels of ability has to address the problem of how to meet the needs of everyone in the class. Students have differences in their linguistic competence. Differences can be made between specified levels of ability and between different skills namely, Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, Phonology, Grammar and Vocabulary. Besides these variations, all students have a complex of personal characteristic that influence their approach to the acquisition of a foreign language. These variables involve in the development of second language skills.

Learners of Mixed-Ability in a Class

Ireson & Hallam suggest teachers need to recognize that a class is mixed ability because children have different strengths and weaknesses and develop at different rates. They have different preferences for learning and displaying their work. A mixed ability class does not just consist of a range of abilities but also a range of learning styles and preferences. Harris and Snow express their concern that the drive to raise achievement may have left Modern Languages teachers feeling they should be drawing yet more different activities or differentiated material. They suggest that an alternative approach would be to focus on helping pupils to become more effective learners. They recommend giving pupils more ownership not only in the choice of content but also how they go about learning. Teaching a mixed ability class will work if all pupils are allowed to experience success and to learn as individuals. It is less likely to be successful if teachers insist on whole class teaching and teaching to the average child. It is unrealistic to expect any group of pupils whatever the ability to work through a body of work at exactly the same pace. Two thirds of pupils will be working out of their learning style unless the type of task is varied.

Slow learners can be divided into two groups. The first group of students does not learn successfully due to general socio-cultural problems, frustrating former language classroom experiences, inadequate use of strategies, or lack of interest. The second types of students are formally diagnosed as "learning-disabled" by specialists in child psychology. Struggled learners often lack self-esteem. They are also very sensitive to exaggerated or artificial praise. They require individual attention and recognition for any work they do. The weaker students reflect deficient learning skills and strategies. They use rote memory rather than reasoning. Difficulty in transferring knowledge from one area to other influences their lack of fluency, clarity and
precision in using language. The weakest skills of slow learners are generally writing and reading.

On the contrary, effective learners can learn a language faster as they have a tremendous memory for vocabulary, which they seem to be able to pick up in class merely by paying attention. They have a sound understanding of the structures of the language and very quickly develop the ability to use them in a great variety of patterns. They express themselves at a much higher level than the average students, who simply follow the given pattern. Moreover, they imitate new sounds quickly and correctly. Students of this sort find it frustrating to limit them to a given context, and they try to break out of it. Most are highly competitive. There is the danger that they will lose interest or patience when slowed down by peers who cannot learn as quickly, or when there are too many repetitions of the material they have already learned. They may try to manipulate class proceedings in order to get most of the teacher's attention. They are very sensitive and tend to be embarrassed when corrected.

Psychological Orientation of Mixed-ability Learners Class

Psychological orientation of students is directly related to their achievement in language acquisition. Their emotions, attitudes and personalities affect their reasoning processes as well as willingness to learn and succeed. Cognitive style refers to the predispositions individuals have for using their intellect in specific ways to learn. Some students prefer oral learning which includes listening and speaking, while others base on their visual memory and prefer reading and writing. Individual approach to learning relates also to personality. Introverts are centred on themselves; they tend to be shy and reticent. They are conscientious and dedicated to the task. Extroverts are more outgoing and aggressive. They participate more actively in class with less fear of risk-taking. Some students have no problems with grammar or phonetics. Others suffer from language-learning disability. Despite great effort they put in learning they can't achieve satisfactory results. These different capabilities are mentally conditioned by personal traits that handicap language-learning but they don't mirror intelligence. Learners who lack self-confidence are not willing to prepare and participate in lessons. They tend to adopt defensive procedures to protect themselves from the discomfort and failure.

The study of second language requires a sustained commitment. Skills that are developed at one level must be retained for all subsequent study and use of the language. Students may feel that learning a language is impossible or that it prevents them from devoting time to a more interesting subject. They will be full of apprehension and hostility. Positive classroom experiences can change their attitudes; however it will not happen spontaneously. Motivation is strictly connected with interests and needs of students. They arrive in class with a variety of attitudes about language, the people who speak it, and their culture. A high regard for them as well as belief that knowing the language will be beneficial in the future make learners expend the
time and energy to develop communication skills. Students who think about their future professional careers know that ability to communicate is a predicament nowadays. They learn more and tend to remember longer the material that relates most closely to their interests. Besides, they try to increase their knowledge outside the school and attempt to use it whenever possible.

Valid objectives for some learners are good grades. They give the class their serious attention not because they like to learn the language, but because they want to be good at all subjects. Sometimes it is connected with expectations of their parents and willingness to satisfy them. Finally, learners are likely to have certain attitudes about the teacher and the class. Their willingness to cooperate or not is based on rumours about the teacher, his/her expectations and requirements. The pressure of peers very often influences the motivation of students and their views. The desire to succeed can be changed into negative attitude towards the subject and vice versa.

**Organizational Orientation**

Teacher aims to reach all students through effective teaching learning. Their needs as learners differ, there are good students, average students and below average students and it are difficult to meet all their needs. Rural students become another problem in a mixed ability class and a gap can easily be detected between rural and urban students. Materials, Participation of students and their interests are the major areas to be concerned to create a culture of learning through organizational orientation.

- If there are individual differences, then the material in a mixed ability class must also differ. For teachers it is not possible to collect material accordingly and teachers are in a fix how to deal such a class. Selected material can be boring and very hard for some students, whereas some find it interesting and very easy

- Some students participate eagerly in the class presentations, discussions and dialogues while others are passive and just listening and observing all the activities. They don’t pay heed to the presentations and discussions and they believe let them do.

- As the students come with diverse backgrounds; their interest is not the same due to their knowledge of language; and their personality. For instance, some students find lessons boring, as the topic has no familiarity with their own life or their interests. Students remain uncommunicative and shy if the teacher is talking too much in the class.

Learners’ achievement in language acquisition largely depends on their surroundings. Teachers and their professionalism, parents and their support and social situations of learners are
of a considerable importance and influence their approach. Students’ awareness about their society has an impact on the process of learning. Learners who reached certain level in developing skills in their native language are likely to have fewer problems in acquiring those skills in other languages. Many parents want their children to have contact with second language as soon as possible. They do not think of the present levels of their wards’ language abilities but expects them to possess the best of the language abilities in the possible least time. This is the reason why teachers in ESL classes deal with students on different levels of ability.

Teachers execute various pedagogical approaches analytic / synthetic and different methods like behaviouristic, cognitive and communicative during various activities according to the needs of the particular groups of learners. They encourage students to access to cable and satellite TV, radio, available books and magazines that provide them exposure to the use of authentic language and help them master it. Computer-Aided Language Learning classes provide individualized and independent opportunities of learning and practicing facilities for the learners. Learners who could not get exposure to the effective usage of the language are provided with the authentic material for motivation besides the process of acquisition. Adapted and adopted authentic material provides ambiance conducive for language acquisition.

A Few Instructional Strategies for Differentiated, Mixed-Ability Classes

One of the most common problems of mixed-ability classes is cohesion. It does not depend only on the content of the lesson, but also on the way the content is presented and practiced. Classroom management affects an environment in which students are expected to learn. It refers to social relationships and conditions that exist in the class. It shapes the dynamics of mixed-ability lessons and influences their integration.

Time: The learners differ in concentration span and the speed in which they are likely to apply their knowledge. That is why the teacher should not plan to do too much in a lesson, but prepare "extra" materials e.g. an anecdote, joke or game. Throughout the lesson the students should be aware how much time they have for each activity, so that they would be able to complete the task. The sense of rhythm and shape of the lesson can be gained by alternate arrangement of short, light activities with long and more intense ones.

The Use of L1: There are no hard rules concerning the use of L1. The most important principles are to make the students comprehend the target language, raise their self-esteem, help them to personalize their learning and acquire a new language of self-expression. It is important that the students can learn a lot from hearing instructions and explanations in L2, as the main objective is to expose them to as much L2 as possible. However, it frequently evokes strain and difficulties in understanding, especially among the slower learners. Therefore, the teacher must be consistent in the usage of management language, reinforcing the meaning of that language through the use of
mime, gesture or visuals. It is useful to say in L1 what has already been said in L2. Moreover, L1 can provide support and security for the less confident learners when explaining grammatical rules, abstract vocabulary items and concepts.

**Cross–Checking:** Attention in the class can be focused and held if the teacher involves the students in what the others are saying. This is especially useful when particular students are trying to express themselves, and the rest of the class has stopped listening. Reporting back the answers their peers have given can reduce discipline problems and encourage the students to be more responsive to the content of other learners' presentations.

**Pair-Work and Group-Work:** The use of pair and group work is essential if you are to involve all the members of the class. A fundamental technique here is the use of questionnaires and interviews. By pairing off weaker and stronger students and involving both in the preparation and implementation of the questionnaire you should ensure maximum participation of all the students. The teacher then gets the weaker students to interview the stronger ones and vice-versa. Of course, this may be frustrating for the stronger ones, but if they are able to see their role as that of “helper” or even mentor, it may also have a positive effect. Teacher needs to devise such activities that suits to the needs of the particular class.

The second area of activity that can be productive in mixed-ability classes is project work. Again, this can work successfully using mixed groups where the stronger help the weaker, but another approach is to form groups that are at approximately the same level and assign different tasks that are appropriate to the level of each group. By adjusting the complexity of the task, the teacher can ensure that each group has a task that it can carry out successfully, thereby providing the correct level of challenge for the higher level students and not demotivating the weaker ones.

**Teaching Material:** Although modern textbooks contain topics and vocabulary that are of greater interest of contemporary students, it seems justifiable to introduce authentic sources. The teacher should prepare extra materials that satisfy different demands and expectations. Audio and video recordings, articles from magazines and newspapers usually evoke enthusiasm and relieve the monotony of lessons. Being attracted and more involved in the target language environment the students are more aware of its culture and different aspects of life. Diversified classes can encourage and stimulate even the most passive students.

**Self-Education:** The students' different motivations, abilities and level of proficiency create the necessity to self-study. As the teacher cannot teach the students everything during lessons he/she has to train them to teach themselves and take charge of their own learning. The learners should develop personal learning strategies that are effective for them. They achieve more when they make most of their own resources. The basic dictionary skills and the understanding of meta-
language enable them to expand their knowledge. Working on their own the students select structures, expressions and vocabulary that they feel they will use in the future. That is why whatever they learn in the process of self-education constitutes more active part in their minds. The learners can be involved in self-study from the very beginning of the course. It should not be confined only to advanced students. Even young children can prepare simple projects which require the minimum of the language knowledge. They become accustomed to self-dependence and responsibility for their education.

**Activities:** In mixed-ability class students’ work in a different pace and with varied effectiveness. That is why special emphasis should be put on tasks which do not require immediate and identical responses. Setting activities that challenge all learners intellectually is essential. They can be tasks with graded level of difficulty: easier, less complicated activities for slower learners and more demanding for more advanced. All the students are able to complete them at the same time. During project work students focus on presenting information on a subject relevant to themselves, work at their own pace in an uncompetitive environment. It brings the feeling of success and appreciation as every student is able to contribute in some way to the completion of the task. Grading difficulties combined with pair-work or group-work make it possible to maintain a high level of interest and cooperation.

**Evaluation:** The main aim of evaluation is not only to test students’ knowledge but also to raise their motivation through emphasizing their achievements in the language. It includes informal subjective estimates of student work and formalized testing procedures. Both of them are components of the total picture of classroom performance.

Both forms of evaluation are valid but they are used in different ways. Informal subjective evaluation of student performance in the classroom serves primarily as feedback to the teacher. It enables to make adjustments that will improve weaknesses in teaching procedures but also provides students with immediate feedback on their progress in the class. Test results, on the other hand, give statistics upon which grades are based. They also show students’ strength and arrears in the language. Good grade on a test is a positive reinforcement and an incentive to work harder.

**Conclusions**

Mixed ability classes are a fact of not only language classes but of all courses. Since no two students can be the same in terms of language background, learning speed, learning ability and motivation, it is a utopian view to think that our classed could be homogeneous in terms of these aspects. The key strategy for teaching English to mixed ability classes is probably developing a positive and collaborative working atmosphere and providing a variety of work suitable for different levels. The use of pair and group work is essential to involve all the
members of the class. Project works can work successfully using mixed groups where the learners work together supporting one another in improving their linguistic expertise. Assigning more challenging home works to the stronger students in the group should ensure that they remain motivated and continue to make progress. Choral drilling can be an effective way of involving weaker or shy students. Teachers need to be diplomatic in your questioning techniques. Manifesting these issues in day to day class work, a few instructional strategies are provided to teachers for effective language teaching/learning in mixed ability classes.

1. Creating ambiance conducive for language learning to motivate everyone to participate in the class within a common curriculum framework

   The class culture is vital to facilitate the ambiance conducive for learning. In this respect the learners are to be placed in sets to enable the work can be done more purposeful and focused. Motivating particular groups of learners is difficult in both mixed ability and set arrangements. It is perceived that it was easier to motivate learners who work more slowly than others through mixed ability arrangements; however, the motivation of fast learners is more difficult within mixed ability classes. The teacher needs to have extra materials with open ended activities within the curriculum to address such situations to engage fast learners. Lightbown and Spada agree: “Varying the activities, tasks, and materials can help to avoid this [boredom] and increase students’ interest levels”. For Tomlinson “the teacher assumes that different learners have differing needs”. Therefore he or she has to plan a variety of ways in an effort to come to meet all learners’ needs. Thus every student’s need is to be addressed by creating effective class culture.

2. Send a strong message to all learners that achievement and progress of every learner is equally valuable in the class

   The class culture need to consistently focus on the point that the cooperation amongst the learners and support for one another rather than competition between them. There are implications for how learners perceive that their progress and achievements are valued if the focus for teacher is on the more formal procedures of recording and monitoring progress of each individual. The teacher needs to indirectly refer to tests as a means of letting learners know about their achievement and progress in improving their proficiency in using the language. Individualization was a reality for those learners who had chosen learner autonomy. It was only within that context that students could plan, carry out, and evaluate their own tasks. These students sought feedback only when they needed it. Other students followed a more traditional structured learning pattern. Tomlinson as well, comments on the benefits of giving particular or individual feedback, she means that “what is helpful for one student may not be for another” Each student in the class need to feel that his/her progress is observed and valued by the teacher which motivates him/her to advance language skills.
3. Plan every class based on the prior learning and attainments of the learners using appropriate continuous evaluation

The notion of building on prior learning was generally acknowledged to be an essential feature of effective learning and teaching. However, it became apparent that some issues exist in relation to this principle. Continuous assessment is the only way teachers can keep up-to-date information about every learner’s academic situation. That information can, and should, be used as guidelines to prepare individually directed lessons with the purpose of meeting everyone’s needs. Continuous assessment can help us to detect learner profiles and adjust instruction in order to, through variation, come to satisfy all learner styles. Needless to say, in order to give grades, a teacher cannot work only with processes. The instruction process has to result in a final or summative product that teachers have to evaluate. It is preferable to assess their improvement of communicative skills by placing them either in small groups or in pairs. If teacher knows the learners’ attainment well it will help to plan and work as per the needs of individual class. Thus the Knowledge of learner’s is certainly very important to improve the quality of the mixed-ability class.

To sum up, teaching mixed-ability ESL classes is never easy, especially in ESL class where individual care is necessary for sharpening various elements of the language. The classroom management is a challenge and the teacher needs to do prepare suitable material and method beforehand. Students need to be aware the reasons for the group work. Learners need to understand various instructions given to various groups, so they have to listen carefully and the teacher needs to verify that all instructions are understood at the suitable point of the activities. In order not to lose entirety, the sense of a whole class, the beginning and concluding activities should be for the whole class. Thus the teacher orchestrates the groups of mixed abilities with in the class and devises materials and activities suitable for various levels of learning. The students own the responsibility for their learning with a positive competitive spirit among peer groups.

References


Recognition of Cognitive Development Stages in Students with Reference to Pagetian Cognitive Stages

Afsheen Yousaf¹, Tenzila Khan², PAKISTAN

ABSTRACT: Present study sets out to investigate into the cognitive developmental stages of students of class VIII in Pakistan. Out of sixty students of section C of class VIII, odd baring thirty students were systematically selected as subjects of study. Five Piaget tasks i.e. conservation of mass, conservation of volume, conservation of continuous quantity, conservation of number, conservation of volume displacement and three inquiry activities i.e. control of variables, combinatorial reasoning and proportional reasoning were brought into practice. Piaget tasks were used to measure the concrete operational stage while the inquiry activities were administered in order to determine the formal operational stage of class VIII students. These tasks and activities were administered to the subjects one by one and students’ performance was evaluated.

While evaluating students’ performance, the characteristics of concrete operational stage were identified in most of the students. Almost 75% students performed the Piagetian tasks correctly while only 25% students were unable to perform certain tasks showing the presence of characteristics of concrete operational stage in class VIII students. While administering the inquiry activities, it was observed that through some of the characteristics of formal operational stage were present in few students, yet most of the students were unable to solve these activities accurately. Only 11% students solved these activities correctly while 89% students could not perform them.

It was concluded that class VIII students were in concrete operational stage while some features of formal operational stage like control of variables and proportional reasoning were also demonstrated by a few students. But on the whole, class VIII students were found in concrete operational stage.

INTRODUCTION

Development is a progressive change occurring in a progression with passage of time in human beings. Its speed or pace differs in different age groups. The human beings go through physical, social, emotional and cognitive development in their life span. All these developments have their own significance but, here, our focus of attention is cognitive development of students in the same school class and almost the same age group. According to Driscoll (1994) the change from child’s incapability of differentiating cognitive abilities to acquire competence in getting concepts and problem solving ability is actually termed as cognitive development.
Jean Piaget (1952), the educationist and biologist, later turned into a psychologist, has given a comprehensive theory of cognitive development. According to Jean Piaget, cognitive developmental stages are physical and mental actions that can be seen in different stages of a development from child into adult. He considered the difference between humans and animals that animals do not possess reasoning while human have this quality to think and act logically. Moreover, children act and behave differently in different age from adults as they answer in a different way. After observing his and his friends’ children of different ages, he concluded that children go under a process known as process of cognitive development. He was interested in determining how children adopt the surroundings and the way to learn new information (behavior and schemata); and organize balance systematically between environment and schemes that is the equilibration. He believed that children possess reflexes called schema by birth and make understanding with environment by them and then constructed schemata are developed. He introduces assimilation and accommodation that means that individual adapts more complex way to cope with environment. He came to a conclusion by observing developing stages of various age group children for many years that all children went to four stages of development in the same sequence all over the world. The first stage starts from birth to two years when children show motor reflexes. This stage is called as sensori motor stage. In the age of seven months the children start to get about object permanency and with the realization about control of their movements they learn to get new intellectual abilities. They also start to discern that what are the appropriate actions and how to produce sounds and then words to convey message. They see and try to copy their parents and care-givers what they do and say. The second stage is termed as pre-operational stage that starts at about two to six or seven years old. During these years, children recognize the use of language and about mental imagery. They are egocentric and concentrate on one view rent about things happening around. At this stage they are not able to assume logically. The third stage is concrete operational that starts at the age of six or seven and ends at eleven or twelve. Here, children are no more egocentric and they are able to take point of views of other people. Although they can do reasoning with concrete knowledge, yet they are not capable of seeing abstract factors of things. They can understand and perform these seven kinds area, conservation of weight, conservation of length and conservation of number. The last and final stage is formal operational that starts at the age of eleven and twelve and lasts through adulthood. Children at this stage are logical and can do reasoning and their thinking involves abstract side things. As children are self-motivators, therefore they need to revise things for getting knowledge and finding new ideas. It is worth noting that Piaget is of the view that every individual is not necessarily required to be at the same stage.

In Pakistani school system, the knowledge of the cognitive developmental stages is not taken into consideration. Teachers do not pay attention to the cognitive level of students and result is that they adopt the activities to teach them which do not match the characteristics of that particular stage in which young learners are expected to be. Consequently, when students reach the next grade, they find it difficult to understand the new concepts they are taught. During
school years, it is often seen that even those students are promoted to the next grades whose thinking may not have fully developed to cope with coming stage. The cognitive developmental stages of learners have not been given the significance as they should have been. The cognitive level of the students at every step should be kept in view. According to Piaget, children have the capability to exhibit and display the characteristics of that particular stage to which they belong. And they can perform the activities that teacher assigns to them. Everything matching with the mental capabilities of students is appropriate, avoiding asking them to do those tasks that are not matching their existing mental and cognitive level. A teacher with this knowledge in hand, i.e. of cognitive development, actively involves students and presents challenges before them.

Cognitive development is immensely important, related to the abilities and efforts of children to perform according to their age. If mental capabilities of the children are well understood by the teachers, according to their age, children can attain all the characteristics of their specific age and subsequently can perform all the activities they are expected to do.

In school years, it is often observed that students are considered as passive recipients of instruction. This happens when teachers have no practical consideration for cognitive developmental stages of children. Curriculum factor is another facade of this picture that shows the incompatibility of children towards the cognitive developmental stages. The concepts of curriculum do not have the capability to cope with mental level of students. Teacher should also keep in mind the practical considerations of cognitive developmental stages of students. This knowledge helps students in forming the accurate concepts of what they are taught. So, in order to bring forth the characteristics of that particular stage of students, the knowledge of cognitive developmental stages is found helpful for a teacher.

There is a support from western cultures, in many cross sectional studies of children that they pass from these stages of cognitive development stated by Piaget (Renner, Stafford, Lawson, McKinnon, Friot & Kellogg, 1976). Piaget, when discusses assimilation and accommodation, he concentrates on relation between environment and organism responsible for both (Piaget, 1952). The children start to raise object permanency and the realization about control of their movements. They learn to get new intellectual abilities. It is through trial and error that they understand object handling and the world around them in sensori motor stage. The initial show of intelligence is started at this stage (Anderson, M. 2003). Piaget worked on students of pre-school and elementary in the early stages of moral reasoning (Bee, 1989). The children in pre-operational stage, have limited thinking that needs to be widened (Ginsburg, Herbert & Sylvia). Piaget’s formal operational stage where individual can do logical reasoning is a stage that cannot be attained by all children because different settings need different needs (Berk, 2000). The children are not having the same stage in performing characteristics of Piaget’s stages of cognitive development theory. The performance of children may vary due to some reasons (Berk, L.E. 2000). It is observed that in common class room, students are kept according to their age, since their level may significantly differ (Weinert & Helmke, 1998). Data that obtained in many similar cross- sectional researches showed that it is not necessary to enter in the next stage.
automatically with biological maturation (Jordan & Brownlee, 1981). Data that was collected from adult individuals rendered the results that 30-35% of the high school seniors were there in formal operational stage because to get this stage needs a specific environment for individuals (Kuhn, Langer, Kohlberg & Haan, 1977).

The children’s minds have the ability to grow naturally well if their capabilities are planted in fertile soil (Brainerd 1978). The basis of mental functions is schemas that are central to the cognitive development theory (Gruber and Voneche, 1977). There is a support from western cultures, in many cross sectional studies of children that they pass from these stages of cognitive development told by piaget (Renner, Stafford, Lawson, McKinnon, Friot & Kellogg, 1976). Piaget, while arguing about assimilation and accommodation, concentrates on relation between environment and organism responsible for both (Piaget, 1952). The children start to get about object permanency and the realization about control of their movements. They learn to get new intellectual abilities. It is through trial and error that they understand object handling and the world around them in sensori motor stage. The initial show of intelligence is started at this stage. (Anderson, M. 2003). Piaget worked on students of pre-school and elementary in the early stages of moral reasoning. The children in pre-operational stage have limited thinking that needs to be widened (Bee, 1989). Piaget’s formal operational stage where individual can do logical reasoning is a stage that cannot be attained by all children because different settings need different needs (Ginsburg, Herbert & Sylvia). Berk (2000) believes that children are not having the same stage in performing characteristics of Piaget’s stages of cognitive development theory. The performance of children may vary due to some reasons (Berk, 2000). It is spotted that in common class room students are kept according to their age, since their level may significantly different. (Weinert & Helmke, 1998). Data that was obtained in many similar cross- sectional researches showed that it is not necessary to enter in the next stage automatically with biological maturation (Jordan & Brownlee, 1981). Data that was collected from adult individuals rendered the results that 30-35% of the high school seniors were there in formal operational stage because to get this stage needs a specific environment for individuals (Kuhn, Langer, Kohlberg & Haan, 1977). Saettler (1990, p. 77) identifies the importance of Piaget’s theory in teaching as it gives teachers a new approach of dealing children while teaching. If the teacher is a good facilitator, then he can make the minds of students can be made to those of the experts (Zahorik, 1997).

OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this study was to find the cognitive developmental stages of class VIII students with reference to Jean Paget cognitive stages.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF RESEARCH

SAMPLE SELECTION
Government Comprehensive Girls High School Wahdat Road was selected for the research purpose. There were six sections of class VIII and total strength of that section was 497. The section C of class VIII was selected by balloting. There were sixty students in section C. From all the sixty students of that section, odd baring roll no. students were systematically selected as sample in order to collect data for research.

SAMPLE DESIGN

INSTRUMENT OF RESEARCH

Five Piagetian tasks were used to measure the Concrete Operational Stage and three Inquiry activities were used to measure the Formal Operational stage of class VIII students.

Task 1 was related to conservation of mass.
Task 2 was related to conservation of volume.
Task 3 was related to conservation of continuous quantity.
Task 4 was related to conservation of number.
Task 5 was related to conservation of volume displacement.
1st inquiry activity was related to control of variables
2nd activity was related to combinational reasoning.
3rd activity was related to proportional reasoning.

PROCEDURE

The study was designed to find out the cognitive development stages of class VIII students of Govt. Comprehensive High School Lahore. Five Piagetian tasks of concrete operational stage were performed by the subjects one by one. The Piagetian tasks were asked in their mother tongue Urdu.

TASK1
CONSERVATION OF MASS

After showing two equal balls A and B,

\[ \text{A} \quad \text{B} \]

The subject was asked, “Which is bigger A or B?” after receiving response from the subject, clay ball B was rolled out.

\[ \text{A} \quad \text{B} \]

TASK 2

CONSERVATION OF VOLUME

At first, two cylinders having equal level of water and with two clay balls immersed in the cylinder were shown to the subject.

\[ \text{A} \quad \text{B} \]

And the question was put up, “Is the level of water equal in both cylinders?” after receiving the response from the subject, the balls were taken out from the cylinders and rolled out into a sausage. Before putting rolled clay ball B into the water cylinder, the subject was asked, “In which cylinder will the level of water be higher?” the response of the subject was noted.

\[ \text{A} \quad \text{B} \]
TASK 3

CONSERVATION OF CONTINUOUS QUANTITY

At first, two cylinders having equal level of water in them were shown to the subjects.

The subject was asked, “Is the level of water equal in both cylinder A and B?” After receiving the response, water was poured from cylinder A into the empty beaker C.

Then the subject was asked, “Is the level of water equal in cylinder B and beaker C?” the response of the subject was noted.

TASK 4

CONSERVATION OF NUMBER

Two bars A and B having the equal number of buttons were shown to the subject.
Then the question was asked to the subject, “Is the number of buttons equal in both bars A and B?” the response of the subject was noted. Then the buttons on bar B are dispersed.

Then the question was asked, “Which bar has more buttons A or B?” and the response of the student was noted.

**TASK 5**

**CONSERVATION OF VOLUME DISPLACEMENT**

A cylinder having some water and a hanging bob in it was shown to the subject.

The subject was asked, “What is the water level in cylinder?” after receiving response of the subject, bob was taken out of the water.
Then the subject was asked, “What is the volume of the metallic bob?” the response of the student was noted.

The criterion that was used for evaluating the subjects’ performance is as follows:

Each task was given two marks, one for the correct response and one for the correct justification. The subjects who gave the right response and correct justification were given two marks and they were assumed to be in concrete operational stage. The subjects who gave the correct response but wrong justification were given one mark and they were considered in transitional stage while the subjects who produced wrong response and wrong justification were given zero mark and they were assumed to be in pre-operational stage.

**INQUIRY ACTIVITIES**

After the completion of the piaget tasks, three inquiry activities of formal operational stage in written form were given to the subjects to solve.

**ACTIVITY 1**

**CONTROL OF VARIABLES**

The activity that was administered was in written form and was in students’ mother tongue (Urdu).

Activity was as follows:

Five cows are brought to the cattle show. Their colour, race, weight, age and scores are given in the following table. Select two appropriate cows showing that the age of cows has influenced the judge’s decision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SERIAL NO</th>
<th>RACE</th>
<th>AGE(years)</th>
<th>WEIGHT (kg)</th>
<th>COLOUR</th>
<th>SCORE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>Brown</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Australian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>Brown</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write the number of cows ________ and _______ that you find the best.

Elaborate your answer.

This activity was given to each subject to solve in 10 minutes.

**ACTIVITY 2**

**COMBINATORIAL REASONING**
This activity was about combinatorial reasoning. The activity that was administered to the subjects was as follows:

I have four kinds of food (A, B, C, D). How many kinds of meals you can make from them.

(i) Write down the alphabets of these food ingredients.
(ii) If we combine at least two food ingredients in each meal, how many kinds of meal can be made.

\[ \begin{array}{cccc}
A & B & C & D \\
\end{array} \]

This activity was administered to each subject to be solved in 10 minutes.

**ACTIVITY 3**

**PROPORTIONAL REASONING**

The activity about proportional reasoning was as follows:

This drawing is of Mr. Small. For given purpose we used paper clips that were kept side by side to measure the height of Mr. Small. The measurement of the height of Mr. Small was made by placing paper clips from the floor between his feet to his head. His height was found to be four paper clips. After that a new figure of Mr. Long was introduced. In this case, measurement was taken in the same manner again with those same paper clips.

While measuring the height Mr. Long using those paper clips, the task was to perform measurement by keeping paper clips in a chain.

The height of Mr. Long is ______________.

Explain your answer.
The criterion that was used for evaluating subjects’ performance is as follows:

Each task was given two marks, one for the correct response and one for the correct justification. The subjects who gave the right response and correct justification were given two marks and they were assumed to be in formal operational stage. The subjects who gave correct response but wrong justification were given one mark and they were considered in transitional stage while the subjects who gave wrong response and wrong justification were given zero mark and they were put in concrete operational stage.

**FINDINGS**

**PIAGETIAN TASKS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TASKS</th>
<th>STUDENTS IN PRE-OPERATIONAL STAGE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>STUDENTS IN CONCRETE OPERATIONAL STAGE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Mass</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.67%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Volume</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Continuous Quantity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Number</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation of Volume Displacement</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56.67%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43.34%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INQUIRY ACTIVITIES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>STUDENTS IN CONCRETE OPERATIONAL STAGE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>STUDENTS IN FORMAL OPERATIONAL STAGE</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control of Variables</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>76.67%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combinatorial</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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CONCLUSIONS

It was concluded:
1. In 1st Piagetian task “Conservation of Mass”, 93.3% students were in concrete operational stage while 6.67% students were in pre-operational stage.
2. In 2nd Piagetian task “Conservation of Volume”, 80% students were in concrete operational stage while 20% students were in pre-operational stage.
3. In 3rd Piagetian task “Conservation of Continuous Quantity”, 70% students were in concrete operational stage while 30% students were in pre-operational stage.
4. In 4th Piagetian task “Conservation of Number”, 90% students were in concrete operational stage while 10% students were in pre-operational stage.
5. In 5th Piagetian task “Conservation of Volume Displacement”, 43.34% students were in concrete operational stage while 56.87% students were in pre-operational stage.
6. In 1st Inquiry activity “Control of Variables”, 76.67% students were in concrete operational stage. The students in formal operational stage were 23.33%.
7. In 2nd Inquiry activity “Combinatorial Reasoning”, 90% students were in concrete operational stage. The students in formal operational stage were 10%.
8. In 3rd Inquiry activity “Proportional Reasoning”, 100% students were in concrete operational stage. There was not any student in formal operational stage.

It was concluded that class VIII students were in concrete operational stage and there were some characteristics of formal operational stage like control of variables and proportional reasoning were present in few students. But on the whole, class VIII students were in concrete operational stage.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended:
1. Educationists must devise a plan that enhances logical as well as growth related to conceptual learning and it must ensures developmentally appropriate curriculum responsible to achieve the set goals.
2. Teacher should adopt the activities according to the characteristics of the cognitive developmental stages of the students in which they are expected to be because children do not provide the same explanations of same events at different stages of cognitive development.
3. Teachers should keep in mind the practical consideration of the subject they are teaching, because this will help the students in forming concepts correctly.
4. Individual differences all the students should be the first priority of the teachers because all the students do not belong to the same cognitive level.
5. Learning aids and activities that are provided to the different grade students should have the appropriate motor or mental operations for them according to their age.
6. Teachers should avoid asking students those actions that do not match their current cognitive capabilities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

GRAMMAR AS A BUILDING BLOCK OR A HINDRANCE IN ESL CONTEXT

Shumaila Kiran\(^1\) (Lahore Leads University)

Tahira Rehman\(^2\) (University of Central Punjab)

Tenzila Khan\(^3\) (Lahore Leads University)

**ABSTRACT:** Present study addresses the role of grammar associating to ESL in Pakistani educational institutions. The study is also expected to define whether grammar teaching is helpful or not in the erudition of English language by analyzing the beliefs of teachers and students regarding the teaching of grammar as per the attitudes of these two important pillars of education system can affect the effectiveness of any learning, especially in ESL context. It also reports the difficulties faced by teachers in the teaching of grammar to ESL students and also those faced by students in the same scenario with the help of quantitative and qualitative analysis as the detailed statistical description was used to interpret the data.

**Key Words:** Grammar Learning And Teaching, ESL Learning, Learning Hindrance, Facilitating Agent.

1. **INTRODUCTION**

The role of grammar is a controversial issue in ESL context where ESL instructor is somehow depicted as an "unattractive grammar mongers whose only pleasure in life is to point out the fault of others" (Baron, 1982, p.226). In current study, role of grammar in learning English language is observed from two sides of the coin: building block or hindrance. The research also aims to explore the views of teachers and learners about role of grammar in learning ESL. The way of teaching grammar to students is fundamental in making it either a building block or a hindrance. Conscious learning of grammar helps the students in learning English because conscious learning becomes learners’ competence. But change doesn't happen overnight, language learning is a long and complex process so, it requires constant effort from teachers and learners in learning/teaching a language and grammar that play a decisive role in the accomplishment of this process. Disparity among teachers' and learners' perceptions opens new dimensions for learning grammar in ESL context.

1.1. **Objectives of the Study**

The objective of the current study is to explore the role of grammar in language teaching/learning and to examine the complexities of a cross-section of university English as second language instructors and their discernment about ESL learners' obscurities and problematic areas regarding grammatical system instruction. In this respect, it is intended to investigate if conscious learning of grammar helps the students in learning English and secondly
to observe if there exists any divergence in language instructors and students discernment about the complexities and difficulties encountered by them in learning grammar in ESL context.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part justifies the rationale for reviewing history of grammar teaching because it is a common belief that "history provides us perception" (Titone, 1968:2), furthermore, this historical review enables us to investigate and identify the current trends in ESL instruction. Conventionally, grammar is believed to be the boon of language teaching. Rutherford (1987) asserts that for centuries the education of grammar has recurrently been regarded identical with foreign language instruction. Existing outlook regarding grammar instruction and learning dates back to nineteenth-century philosophy of language education. It is supposed, for example, that a good deal of understanding of grammar directs to obvious philosophy while relieving scholarly line of work. Its vital status has never been argued on, nevertheless, numerous L2 researchers and instructors have been probing into the function of grammar for several precedent decades. In the context of grammar teaching Widdowson (1990: 86) believes that grammar acts not as a restraining nuisance rather as a therapeutic and energizing force that liberates learners from contextual dependence and merely lexical classification of authenticity and reality. As a common practice, lots of students and instructors consider grammar a multitude of margins regarding permissible and unacceptable structures in a given language application - 'a linguistic straitjacket' in Larsen- Freeman's words (2002: 103) - the notion of grammar as ‘something that liberates rather than represses’ is worth exploring.

Morelli (2003) is of the view that pupils presuppose that they are displaying an enhanced behavior towards grammar education in given state of affairs where enhanced linguistic execution comes from familiarity with traditional method grammar instruction. Elkilic and Akca (2008) illustrated optimistic and encouraging behavior of students learning English grammar at a primary EFL classroom towards grammar education. Though, more than half of subjects viewed their experience of grammar learning as enjoyable yet about 10% of them described their experience of having faced a number of obscurities in studying and practicing grammar. In this context of grammar teaching Borg (1999a, b) argues that countless language trainers have claimed students' prospects of traditional and overt grammar instruction. In this respect, Burgess and Etherington (2002:440-441) relate that most of the language instructor consider overt and direct instruction of grammar as preferential and favored by learners. For last fifty years or so, a shift in interest from methods of grammar instruction to the correspondence and involvement of students has been observed. Grammar has always maintained its status as an influential deflation and discouraging compel in the perspective of second language students. In the same connection, when it comes to level of motivation and learners achievement, grammar has always been discerned as a dilemma and an obstacle in the process of facilitating students to correspond effortlessly. It has been also been observed that many language instructors encounter that language learners repeatedly find rules of formal structures of a language tricky and intricate for
their supple application in language practice and use in real life situations. Learners may have a
good deal of knowledge of grammar rules, but they find themselves incompetent of affecting and
applying them in their actual exploitation of the language in real life situations. Burgess and
Etherington (2002:442) have given reference to experience of numerous language teachers in this
regard. Haudeck has stated that many learners face problem in comprehension of system of
structures of grammar though taught rigorously in classroom (1996, cited in European
Commission, 2006). Language trainers deem their learners perceiving system of grammatical
formal structures quite effectively and experiencing no specific complexity in its application
(Burgess & Etherington, 2002:444). Grammar teachers also admit the fact that language is not
static rather it is a go-ahead vibrant. Its applications are always arbitrary, though not in key
aspects. Morelli (2003:333-34) observes that, "Grammar can be taught traditionally or
contextually, but students' assumptions should be measured by teachers in the decision-making
process. Students need to feel confident that experts have met their requirements . . . and
educators should be willing to consider the approaches and perceptions of students while making
decisions about how to teach grammar”.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

This study was mainly Qualitative and Quantitative in design. The research instrument is
questionnaire on which the participants were supposed to reply to statements on a five-point
likert scale. The participants also provided background information on gender, age, recent
institute name, residence and schooling background. The second instrument was interview which
has been conducted from 10 ELT experts, who were the part of different educational institutions.
The participants of the study were 100 students from two universities of Lahore, studying at the
undergraduate level and aged around 20 years old. The rationale for conducting this research
study at this level was that the students were still confronted with teacher-fronted classrooms
whose primary focus is on teaching grammar. Therefore, investigating the attitudes of
undergraduate students was supposed to provide the researchers with a representative sample of
students’ perspectives. The Quantitative section contained 15 items in order to explore ESL
learners’ beliefs about the teaching of grammar. These items covered a range of aspects of
grammar instructions as building block or hindrance in English language learning scenario.

3.1. Procedure

As mentioned above, the data was collected from undergraduate students. The questionnaires
were distributed among the respondents and they were requested to respond the statements in the
closed-ended sections on the basis of their familiarity and experience of language class. The
respondents were facilitated by researchers by answering to their queries or ambiguities they
found in questionnaire. In order to explore the beliefs and expectations of ELT experts about
grammar teaching as a building block or a hindrance, 10 ELT experts from multiple universities
were targeted. The interview was semi-structured and interviews were tape-recorded for better interpretation.

### 3.2. Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed in two phases: quantitative and qualitative. In the quantitative phase, the data drawn from the Likert scale type of questions was put into descriptive analysis. At the qualitative phase, the responses of ELT experts, generated on open-ended questions, were thematically analyzed.

### 3.3. Quantitative Analysis

The following section presents the findings emerging from the students' questionnaires.

**The role of grammar as building block . . . .**

Most of the students' responses consider that grammar helps them in learning English. More than two thirds (87%) agree that grammar teaching is like a framework for the rest of the language. Only (7%) disagree with this point (see Table 1.1 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Va Strongly disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.1. Students’ perception about the role of grammar as building block.

On the basis of the role of grammar teaching on the performance of the students, 79% are agreed with this positive contribution of grammar and support the function of grammar as a building block (see Table 1.2 below). Only 13% are negating this aspect of grammar.
Table 1.2
Grammar teaching affect the performance of the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.2. Students’ perception about the role of grammar as building block.

Majority of the respondents (67%) agree or strongly agree with the role of grammar in enhancing their reading skill and only (12%) disagree with it (see Table 1.3 below).

Table 1.3
Grammar teaching supports learners in reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.3. Students’ perception about the role of grammar as building block.

With regard to the fifth research question whether they like grammar teaching or not, 59% of the students are in strong favor of it as the results shown in Fig. 1.4 and only 16% are not willing to get grammar teaching.
Table 1.4
I like studying grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.4. Students' perception about the role of grammar as a building block.

Again, two thirds (62%) of the respondents strongly favor the belief about the role of grammar as far as the required knowledge of the target language is concerned. It suggests that, in the perception of students, grammar support as a building block in the language learning process. Only 19% are found against this viewpoint (see Table 1.5 below).

Table 1.5
Good learners of English do know a lot about grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.5. Students' perception about the role of grammar as a building block.

Knowledge of grammar helps a lot in effective communication as results in Fig. 1.6 specify that 70% of the respondents agree or strongly agree with this point and only 16% of them do not favor this point.
Table 1.6
Knowledge of Grammar helpful in effective communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.6. Students' perception about the role of grammar as building block

More than half (52%) of the respondents admit the role of grammar teaching in the syntactic analysis of text but (24%) negate this role of grammar (see Fig. 1.7 below).

Table 1.7
When I read text in English language, I try to figure out grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.7. Students' perception about the role of grammar as building block

All the above mentioned statistical description strongly favor the role of grammar as building block.

The role of grammar as a hindrance . . .

With regard to 10 to 15 statement of research questionnaire that whether grammar teaching creates hindrance in English language learning or not, the respondents do not strongly favor the point and express their beliefs in the following part.
As the result in Fig. 2.1 shows that (57%) of the respondents disagree with this point but (25%) agree with this lacking element of grammar.

**Table 2.1**

**I can communicate in English Language without Knowing the Grammar rules**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid strongly disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1. Students' perception about the role of grammar as hindrance

With regard to forgetting grammatical rules in communication, (55%) of the respondents strongly disagree or disagree with this point and (31%) of them agree with it (see Table 2.2 below).

**Table 2.2**

**I often forget grammatical rules while communicating in English Language**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid strongly disagree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2. Students' perception about the role of grammar as hindrance

With regard to the confusion in grammatical restrictions, 52% of the respondent disagree with it and only 26% of them agree with this false notion (see Table 2.3 below).
Table 2.3
I found myself confused while considering the grammatical restrictions in English language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>92.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3 Students' perception about the role of grammar as hindrance
With regard to another prompt about grammar as hindrance, (61%) of the participants disagree with this willingness and only (24%) of the respondent agree with this point (see Table 2.4 below).

Table 2.4
I am not willing to learn grammar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>92.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4. Students' perception about the role of grammar as hindrance
With regard to this prompt as grammar teaching does not support in speaking English, 63% of the participants disagree with this notion and 25% of them agree with it (see Table 2.5 below).
Table 2.5

Grammar learning makes no difference for me in speaking English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.5. Students' perception about the role of grammar as hindrance

On the whole, the statistical results do not support the belief about grammar as a hindrance.

3.4. Qualitative Analysis

In this section, in order to further explore the general beliefs and expectations about the role of grammar, the data is collected from ELT experts. The language of the interview was English.

In response to the question that which belief about grammar teaching they preferred as EL teacher: grammar as building block or hindrance, almost all ELT experts came up with the same response with minor differences. They felt that grammar teaching was like building block because when teachers taught the reduction and expansion patterns of sentences to students while teaching English language, the students comprehended the pattern and learnt the language in the same sequence of applying expansion process with the help of adjuncts and adverbial phrases. So, with this, they developed the generative skill in the target language. They also liked grammar due to its relationship with other components of language, which is solely because a bundle of words cannot help to derive the exact meaning of the text. In order to acquire it, grammar was there to help them. Several experts also considered the way of teaching grammar and learning as a vital factor in making it as a building block or hindrance, as our students lack the natural environment or prior knowledge of target language so knowledge of grammar supported them in ESL context. They also commented on the importance of other factors such as; objectives of teaching, level of students, nature of learning and particular settings in tagging grammar as building block or hindrance.

Based on what discussed above, it can be seen that expert comments range from intrinsic to extrinsic reasons. Some relate the benefits of learning grammar to better understanding of a piece of text and some to use language for communicative purpose. To sum up, almost all experts
emphasize the integral role of grammar instructions and its contribution to other aspects of language. Regarding the second prompt that whether grammar should teach directly or in embedded situations the experts expressed varied views. Some of them reacted to the out of context teaching of grammar without relating the rules to some sentence based examples. They felt that this method of grammar instruction could not help them in the real world context. They supported it with the view that teaching grammar direct method is not harmful if the students are weak. Some others expressed that if the students had prior knowledge or basic knowledge of grammar, the teacher could ask them to infer the rules from some presented examples or by using movies, literature, dramas etc. According to these responses, the nature of grammar teaching varied on the basis of teaching objectives and learners’ capacities.

Regarding the prescribed stage of learning, maximum experts supported the notion that it is based on competence as per Threshen idea: our conscious learning becomes our competence which is unconscious performance. Others also elaborated that grammar teaching at later stage became a part of fossilized errors which ELT experts tried endlessly without any fruitful results. Some expressed that it is not the matter of early stage or later rather how much grammar knowledge is required at a particular stage of learning. So, we can sum up that the crucial phenomenon of grammar teaching is not bound with the academic stages of the learners but with the proficiency skills of the students. If they learnt grammar at early stage, a time will come the same learning would become the competence while they will use the grammatical knowledge indirectly and unconsciously.

In response to the prompt that what does influence or restrict learners to learn grammar, most of the experts favored the motivational and said teaching elements were worth considering in influencing the learners to learn grammar. They expressed that it should be in case of teaching to teach the learners lightly and put them in the result oriented activities. They also shared that interaction between teachers and students and among students must be there in class for the sake of teaching of grammar. But if the situation was vice versa, this would only create restrictions for them in learning of grammar. So, we conclude that grammar as whole entity will create problem for them in learning language and restrict the potential of students.

When asked that do teachers and students' expectations vary with regard to grammar teaching in ELT context? This prompt derived multiple responses from experts; some related that in ESL context, grammar teaching was based on the expectations of teachers and teachers also expected from their students that they must be taught some portion of grammar. As it was based on expectations and expectations were varied from teacher to teacher, class to class and level to level. Students were heterogeneous; they did not come to you with your level so differences prevail regarding the expectations of teachers and students.

4. CONCLUSION
Generally speaking this study looked into how, both teachers' and students' perceptions with regard to grammar teaching in ESL context could be usefully analyzed and might have implications for language learning and teaching. It also highlights the importance of the way in which grammar teaching is conducted and suggests that the good or bad effects of any strategy are lying under the way you propagate it according to given context. So, it is necessary to take a deep and critical monitoring of the scenario which English teachers are experiencing and maintain their level of expectation, as examining of L2 teachers' beliefs and preferences cannot be disregarded in any teaching education program, since these are the foundation of it. Thus, study illustrates the importance of grammar learning and belief of students who assume that grammar improves their writing and reading skills but it becomes a hindrance when it is applied for fluency of their spoken skills in real life situations.

**Implications**

The findings of the current research highlight the following implications:

- Grammar should not be taught as an isolated entity.
- Grammar teaching should be embedded with authentic text of syllabus.
- Teachers should adopt moderate strategy towards grammatical errors of expressions of learners at early stage.
- The curriculum designers and authorities in Educational system must understand the difficulties faced by the students and the teachers and should facilitate them by providing sufficient guidance to the teachers with the help of documents like teachers guide. They should also help the teachers in planning their teaching activities according to their classroom needs which indirectly targeted the expectations of the learners.

**References**


Morelli, J. A. (2003). *Ninth Graders’ Attitudes toward Different Approaches to Grammar*


Attribution Theory and L2 Writing Processes: Results and Implications

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Department of Special Education
University of the Punjab Lahore, Pakistan

Abstract: This article discusses that attribution theory can be helpful in interpreting how L2 student writers view the writing process. Attribution theory has its roots in the field of social psychology which describes the way people interpret the reasons of happenings, their own behavior, as well as other people’s behavior. This article also describes the basics of this theory, the results of research that was conducted on the attributional styles of Inter, F. Sc (Pre-Med, Pre-Engg) students are presented. In the end, general suggestions of attribution theory for the ESL composition teaching are presented for writing instructors in Pakistan.

Key words: Attribution theory; Second Language Writing; ESL

Suppose you are a student and discussing with some class fellows the results of class tests. One student in your class, good friend of yours, name him Ahsan, got excellent marks in the test. You and your class fellows are thinking about how he got such excellent marks in test. One class fellow firmly insists that the test was easy, another emphatically states that your friend was simply very lucky, yet another says Ahsan just studied hard, you then impatiently announce that they are all wrong and that Ahsan did well because he is extraordinarily talented.

Theory of Attribution

One frequently encounters such a form of analysis about outcomes in life is an example of attribution theory at work. Attribution theory has its roots in the field of social psychology that is concerned with how people interpret the reasons of events, individuals or their own behavior. It hypothesizes that we try to reflect on our actions at a fundamental level just like amateur reflective practitioners in our daily life, constantly trying to logically and systematically piece together evidence so that judgments about events or behavior can be made. The purpose of this paper is present a short general introduction to attribution theory and to argue that the theory also clings to the possibility of helping to interpret, in part, why students are successful or unsuccessful in producing a well written, coherent piece of writing, as well as pointing to ways in which teachers can directly facilitate the process of writing.

Fritz Heider a well known social psychologist, is in general, considered to be the father of attribution theory. He believed that the manner people perceive or think about events has a much more important cause upon their behavior than the events in themselves (what really happened).
Specifically, Heider focused on what people believed about the causes of success and failure. He further described that when people are questioned about why events or a certain type of behavior has occurred, they usually refer to a set group of external (situational, environment) and internal (dispositional, from inside the individuals) factors. (Heider 1958).

The psychologist, Bernard Weiner, (1986), substantiating Heider's views, has suggested that people, in general, use four kinds of attributions for interpreting why success and failures crop up in life. These four can be evidently seen in the test example about Ahsan: task difficulty (“The test was easy.”), luck (“Ahsan was just lucky.”), effort (Ahsan tried really hard.”), ability (“Ahsan did well because he is exceptionally talented.”).

The types of effort and ability are obviously internal attributes in that both are personal and come from within the individuals, while luck and task difficulty are external, that is, environmental. Weiner also speculated two other variables, stability and controllability. Stability refers to whether the perceived cause of the behavior is stable, in other words, whether it will be stable in the future or whether it will change or disappear over time. For example, will Ahsan study hard for the next exam? Controllability means whether the perceived cause can be controlled by the individual or is it something that ultimately can’t be controlled. Good luck is clearly something that is not controllable.

Putting all of this together, Appendix 1 shows all the components, according to Weiner, involved in the process of making an attribution (using Ahsan as our example). In essence, Weiner declares that making an attribution about the cause of an event involves three decisions: First, an individual has to decide whether the attribution that is being made is internal or external. Then, they need to determine whether or not it is controllable. Finally, they have to judge whether the cause is a stable or unstable happening. After these decisions are made, a final attribution of success or failure can be determined.

While all of this calculating may initially appear to be excessively complicated and abstract, the experimental validity of the theory has been extensively verified see any standard social psychology textbook, which will have a section on attributions). If examined carefully, the main ideas do make intuitive and practical sense. In fact, this scheme for interpreting our daily attributions made for success and failures is not new and actually has a long legacy. For example, Shakespeare, in 1602, in act no two of his comedy Twelfth Night elegantly caught the heart of attribution theory, when Malvolio reads a forged love letter which advocates him to “be not afraid of greatness. “Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.”

Student Writers and Cross-cultural Differences
Individuals differ in both the way in which they perceive attributions and in the ways they combine attributional categories when applying them to situations. These differences in turn result in different outcomes. For example, if a student believes that writing in English is just too difficult to write, and this belief is a stable, internal factor, then he or she will have little motivation to write. If a student thinks that if they work hard and are persistent, they can write in English, and that this effort is a stable, internal factor, and then they will probably be highly motivated to work hard if they want to write in English. Attributional studies have also revealed that there are significant differences in how casual attributions are made between cultures. The researchers, for example; Smith & Bond, 1993, Nisbett 2003, and Brow, 2004, have beautifully highlighted these factors.

**Attribution Theory and Writing L2 (English)**

One of the major problems involved with doing research on writing processes has been the methodological problem of not being able to find out what goes on in a writers mind when writing. Attribution theory holds the possibility of tentatively interpreting what happens. For the decisions individuals make about process of writing is a product of how they perceive their writing. If we are in a position in which we can understand how student writers perceive themselves as writers, how they attribute their failures and successes, what reasons they give for their attributions, and whether they feel they are in control of their composing experiences, then we might be able to help them successfully manage their writing skills. Unfortunately, little has been written upon the topic of attribution theory and L2 Writing processes. This study would prove an initiative for future research in this area.

As we have seen in the case of Ahsan, students give a range of reasons for successful writing outcomes. For the past two years, I, have been investigating the attributional styles of Pakistani student writers at intermediate level.

Makin use of a series of self-report questionnaires, open-ended questions, and a vignette, I have been interested in the attributions students make regarding writing in English.

In one of three questionnaires I employed, I asked 104 Inter Part-II(FSc) Pakistani student writers and 71 Inter Part-I(FSc) Pakistani student writers to consider a simple pair of scenarios describing two students, one of whom received high scores on two tests of English, the other who did not. The students were asked to select the most possible cause for success and failure in the first case, and failure in the second. (The possible causes were based on responses to an open-ended questionnaire that was given earlier in the term).

The Inter Part-II(F.Sc) Pakistani student writers results concerning the most possible causes for success were as follows:
64% of the respondents choose effort as the cause, 26% thought success was due to high motivation, 5% believed good luck was key, 3% thought that the student had a talent for languages, and 1% credited the teacher.

The Inter Part-II (FSc) Pakistani student writers results concerning the most possible causes for failure were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Motivation</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad Luck</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of ability to write well</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Role</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65% for effort, 26% thought it was the result of lack of motivation, 5% blamed bad luck, 3% a lack of talent for languages, and 1% blamed the teacher.

The Inter Part-I (F.Sc) Pakistani student writers’ responses were different.

The Inter Part-I (F.Sc) Pakistani student writers results concerning the most possible causes for success were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Motivation</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad Luck</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Role</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65% for effort, 26% thought it was the result of lack of motivation, 5% blamed bad luck, 3% a lack of talent for languages, and 1% blamed the teacher.
For success: 44% choose effort as being key, 24% thought it was due to high motivation, 21% thought the student had a talent for languages, 7% credited the teacher, 3% picked good luck as the cause, and 1% believed that general conditions contributed to success.

The Inter Part-I(FSc) Pakistani student writers results concerning the most possible causes for failure were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effort</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Motivation</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad Luck</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of ability to write well</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Role</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For failure: 45% believed it was due to a lack of effort, 25% attributed it to a lack of talent for languages, 21% cited poor motivation, 6% thought it was just bad luck, and 1% cited the teacher and conditions.

Research has shown that in developing countries like Pakistan effort is very important because “by trying hard or appearing to do so no one challenges the existing order or shows a lack of loyalty” (Smith & Bond 1993, 189). This is contrary to developed societies, where much stress is placed on ability. According to Stevenson & Lee (1990) there are influential elements in
the Asian educational system, Asian believe that school success is a product more of effort than ability while Americans think on the contrary. The results of the present study support these results that Pakistani students weight effort, although the student writers of Inter Par-I, put less emphasis on effort, and more stress on ability, than the Student writers of Inter Part-I. But this is not to say that Pakistani students simply believe that effort guarantees success. According to Brown (2004, pp.21) “Perseverance is not enough to ensure success; it simply increases the possibility of success by reducing the probability of failure as the result of giving up prematurely. Quitting, after all, makes task completion and success impossible”.

**Implications for ESL Writing Teachers**

Attribution theory describes that what a person perceives to be the causes for their past failures or successes will have a major impact upon their expectations, and hence, achievements. Studies by psychologists have indicated that it is possible to change individuals’ perceptions about performance outcomes. The most important educational insight that attributional studies show is that the way people see causes has consequences for responsibility, and that people can, by changing the explanations they make about their failures and successes, create new attitudes concerning achievements results. Furthermore, when external causes are changed into internal ones, in the case of positive occurrences, and internal causes are changed into external ones, in the case of negative events, an individuals self-esteem and performance is greatly helped (Seligmann 1991).

What things can an ESL writing instructors/teacher do to help improve their novice or unskilled student writers, attribution styles? It needs to be immediately addressed that I am not arguing that teachers should, in addition to all the pressing duties they now have, also become psychotherapists or professional counselors. Rather, it is being claimed that there are a few general techniques that teachers can use or experiment with that could have important consequences for how their pupils see L2 writing processes and results. As I have mentioned earlier, cross-cultural differences exist in how attributions are made. Furthermore, developmental stage and the social context of a student in which they make their attributions are also important (Williams & Burden 1999). Consequently, the first thing a teacher needs to do is get an idea of the general attributional profile of their students. This can be done by employing a simple questionnaire for testing attribution of the students by ranking reasons for their writing processes successes and failures (see Appendix 2 for an example of this type of questionnaire). With the results from this survey, it is then possible for teachers to see if their classes are generally effort, ability, luck, or task difficulty oriented and whether these factors are considered stable or unstable, and controllable. With this information in hand, appropriate activities and feedback can then be constructed.

For example, if the questionnaire reveals that the classes general attributional style stresses ability, tasks and techniques which build up a sense of mastery and agency in students should be
employed. The teacher needs to establish a clear, natural, and firm connection between effort and results, and show that failure is both controllable and unstable. Research has revealed that rewards, marks based on merits, and even simple praise, can motivate problematic learners. If the general attributational style emphases effort, immediate rewards for good efforts should be instituted. Excellent efforts should be praised and displayed. In the views of Williams and Burden (1997) the “extent to which learners are in control of a language will have a pronounced effect upon their motivation to be continually involved in learning that language”. The same can be applied to writing and writers.

Educational psychologists frequently recommend several things that teachers can do to change their students’ negative attributions. First, they believe that a planned set of modeling, practice and feedback experiences are very useful (Brophy 1998). Teachers need to design tasks in which the student can focus on without the fear of failure. Examples of this could be classroom activities where the students are not graded but only monitored. Tasks need to be carefully broken down into not too taxing undertakings, specific to the level of the student so that they feel like they have control over the language learning process. Secondly, when a student is unsuccessful at some writing activity, the processes used by the student need to be retraced or analyzed to find other possible ways of solving the problem. This can occur in or out of class. Examples of skilled writing should be emphasized but these models should not be individuals who were easily successful, but rather models of those writers who labored and made some mistakes before they succeeded. Teachers can also use pertinent examples from their own lives or the lives of people they know or have read about. By using these types of models, students can learn how to cope with difficulties and mistakes and learn how to persist. Lastly, all writing failures need to be attributed to the students from a lack of effort and not to a lack of ability. Throughout all of these approaches, proper feedback in terms of praise (not indiscriminant which can be counterproductive), not pity, and constructive feedback (which is informative, not controlling, and related to performing the task at hand) is fundamental.

Clearly there is a great deal of further research that needs to be done on the implications attribution theory holds for successful writing and process outcomes. Specifically, large sample investigations need to be conducted on how culture and social context impact upon attributional styles concerning successful writing outcomes, and on the way teaching methods can positively influence how students understand language performance outcomes. Teachers interested in attribution theory should investigate the topic in their classrooms. While the application of attribution theory is not new for the field of teaching and learning L2 writing. The theory has the added advantage of fitting into the cognitive-constructivist view of writing as a process approach which takes into account writers intentions, interests, and choices.

How individuals in general make sense of, and interpret, their writing experiences, has been one of the most puzzling and persistent problems in the field of teaching of writing. By
focusing on how writers perceive their successes and failures, I may, in part, reach an understanding of how this complex process occurs.

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Web Source,

Appendix (A)

This questionnaire aims to investigate the L2 writers’ attributional attitudes towards the causative relation in their ability to write well. I would be thankful if you could answer the following questions. The information provided will be of great help in my research. Your identity will never be disclosed. The data will be used only for the purpose of this study.

1- Personal and Background information:

Name: ------------------------------------------ Age: ---------------------------

Group. Fsc. Pre-Engg/Med etc------------------------

Years of writing in English: ------------------------ First Language: ----------------------

2- Background Information about English Writing:

1. For how many years you have been writing English?

2. How frequently you write in English?

3. What type of writing you like for example; essay writing, story writing etc.

4. In which language do you prefer to think while writing, English or Urdu?

5. When you write, do you translate your ideas from Urdu to English?

--- Questionnaire to Assess attributional Styles ---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When you are not successful in writing in English it is because:</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 You are not talented to write in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 You did not work hard to enhance your skills in writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 You believe that writing is a gifted process and you are not lucky enough to write skillfully

4 The topic of writing that was assigned to you was very difficult

5 The teachers did not properly teach you about how to write

6 You were not interested in writing especially in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When you are successful in writing in English it is because:</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 You are talented enough to write in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 You work hard to enhance your skills in writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 You believe that writing is a gifted process and you are lucky enough to write skillfully</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The topic of writing that was assigned to you was very easy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 The teachers guided you properly about how to write</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 You were very interested in writing especially in English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which of the following things are under your control when you try to write:</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The difficulty of the topic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Your ability to write on the given topic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 How you work hard to learn skills to write good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Your interest in the task of writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 The time you have been given to write on a topic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Brief Review of Writing Processes in the Light of the Holy Quran

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Abstract: This paper gives a brief review writing processes in the light of the holy Quran. The holy Quran is a Divine Book that is beyond any error. This position paper is an attempt to shed some light onto the writing strategies in the light of the holy Quran. Particularly it does not aim at rejecting or challenging the existing strategies but it is an initiation into the understanding of the Quran and its approach towards modern research of writing processes. For providing instances of writing process in the holy Quran this paper presents the preface (Moqadama) of Tafheem-ul-Quran, written by “Allama Moududi a well known Islamic Scholar. This preface (Moqadama) of Tafheem-ul-Quran, has been presented to elaborate that the writing processes that are unanimously supported by the writing theorists and researchers are focused by the holy Quran as well. The very style of the holy Quran is recursive and non linear although it is not written by a man, it fits to the world very adequately.

Keywords: writing processes, rhetoric, teaching of writing, the Holy Quran, Allama Moududi, Tafheem-ul-Quran

Introduction:

Writing as a skill is very complicated and since the notion researchers have been striving to find out a unanimous model for writing. Although it is very difficult to come to a single point but efforts are being made to reduce the frictions. There are a lot of factors that affect the process and product of writing both in L1, L2 and FL. A big treasure of research on these factors is available in Literature. Among these factors, writing strategies seem particularly remarkable because many researchers (Arndt, 1987; Beare, 2000; Raimes, 1985; Victorri, 1995; Zamel, 1982, ) claim that it is the writing strategies that primarily separate successful from less successful writers (Congjun ). Although there is a considerable body of research analyzing the way writers compose both in L1 and L2 (see Flower & Hayes, 1981; Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Sondra Perl, 1987; Zamel, 1983; Raimes, 1985; Silva 1993; Cumming 1989, among others) effort has not been made either to validate or explore more strategies of composing from the Holy Quran which is a Divine Book. It is an ideal source of integrity and unanimity among diverse schools of thought. All of the Prophets have been the source of an ideal teaching and learning and they all addressed social, cognitive and individual needs of the people.
The Muslims believe the holy Quran to be the book of divine help and path for mankind, considering the original Arabic text to be as the final revelation of Allah Almighty. Muslims also view the Quran as the end of series of divine messages that started with those revealed to Adam, regarded in Islam as the first prophet, and continued with the Scrolls of Abraham, the Torah of Moses, the Psalms of David and the Gospels of Jesus.

Islamic outlook regarding these books is different from the Biblical views. To a Muslim, all of these books are divine revelations, devoid of any distortion by human error at the time they were revealed. They have all come from the same source, i.e., from a Divine, heavenly source. Muslims believe that the Quran, an expansion of these books that seals them and rules over them, was revealed to Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) in parts and not as whole. Thus, the Quran was revealed at intervals on different occasions during the Prophet’s life because it addressed not only the issues related to faith but also other issues related to life events and incidents that serve as general declarations for Muslim life.

In the beginning, the Quran was communicated by the word of mouth; only toward the end of Muhammad’s(PBUH) life it was documented by his companions. The text of the Quran was compiled in the time of Abu Bakr, the first caliph, and was standardized in the time of Uthman, the third caliph (Al-Sindi 2009).

“The present arrangement of the Qur'an is not the work of later generations, but was made by the Prophet under Allah's directions. Whenever a surah was revealed, the Prophet summoned his scribes, to whom he carefully dictated its contents, and instructed them where to place it in relation to the other Surahs. The Prophet followed the same order of Surahs and verses when reciting during ritual Prayer as on other occasions, and his Companions followed the same practice in memorizing the Qur'an. It is therefore a historical fact that the collection of the Qur'an came to an end on the very day that its revelation ceased. The One who was responsible for its revelation was also the One who fixed its arrangement. The one whose heart was the holder of the Qur'an was also responsible for arranging its order. This was far too important and too subtle a matter for anyone else to become involved in.

Since Prayers were obligatory for the Muslims from the very beginning of the Prophet's mission (It should be noted that while five daily Prayers were made obligatory several years after the Prophet was commissioned, Prayers were obligatory from the very beginning; not a single moment forgotten when Prayers, as such, were not obligatory in Islam) and the recitation of the Qur'an was an obligatory part of the Prayers, Muslims were committing the Qur'an to memory while its revelation was continued. Thus, as soon as a fragment of the Qur'an was revealed, it was memorized by some of the Companions. Hence the preservation of the Qur'an was not only dependent on its verses being inscribed on palm leaves, pieces of bone, leather and scraps of parchment - the material used by the Prophet's scribes for writing down Qur'anic verses. Instead those verses came to be inscribed upon scores, then hundreds, then thousands, then hundreds of thousands of human hearts, soon after they had been revealed, so that no scope was left for any devil to alter so much as one word of them.

When, after the death of Prophet, the storm of apostasy convulsed Arabia and the Companions had to plunge into bloody battles to suppress it, many Companions who had
memorized the Qur'an suffered martyrdom. This led 'Umar to appeal that the Qur'an ought to be preserved in writing, as well as orally. He therefore impressed the importance upon Abu Bakr. After slight hesitation, the later agreed and entrusted the task to Zayd ibn Thabit al-Ansari, who had worked as a scribe of the Prophet (For an account of the early history of the Qur'an see Subhi-al Salih, Mabahith fi 'Ulum al-Qur'an, Beriut, 1977, pp. 65 ff -Ed).

The procedure decided upon was to try and collect all written pieces of the Qur'an left behind by the Prophet, as well as those in the possession of the Companions (There are authentic traditions to the effect that several Companions had committed the entire Qur'an, or many parts of it, to writing during the lifetime of the Prophet. Especially mentioned in this connection are the following Companions of the Prophet: 'Uthman, 'Ali, 'Abd Allah b. Mas'ud, 'Abd Allah b. 'Amr al 'As, Salim the mawla of Hudhayfah, Mu'audh b. Jabal, Ubbay b. Ka'b, and Abu Zayd Qays b. al-Sakan.) When all this had been done, assistance was sought from those who had memorized the Qur'an. No verse was incorporated into the Qur'anic codex unless all three sources were found to be complete agreement, and every criterion of verification had been satisfied. Thus an authentic version of the Qur'an was prepared. It was kept in the custody of Hafsah (a wife of the Holy Prophet) and people were permitted to make copies of it and also to use it as the standard of comparison when rectifying the mistakes they might have made in writing down the Qur'an.

In different parts of Arabia and among its numerous tribes their existed a diversity of dialects. The Qur'an was revealed in the language spoken by the Quraysh of Makkah. Nevertheless, in the beginning, people of other areas and other tribes were permitted to recite it according to their own dialects and idioms, since it facilitated its recitation without affecting its substantive meaning. In course of time, in the wake of the conquest of a sizeable part of the world outside of the Arabian Peninsula, a large number of non-Arabs entered the fold of Islam. These developments affected the Arabic idiom and it was feared that the continuing use of various dialects in the recitation of the Qur'an might give rise to grave problems. It was possible, for instance, that someone hearing the Qur'an in unfamiliar dialect might pick a fight with the reciter, thinking that the later was deliberately distorting the Word of Allah. It was also possible that such differences might gradually lead to the tampering of the Qur'an itself. It was also not inconceivable that the hybridization of the Arabic language, due to the intermixture between the Arabs and non-Arabs, might lead people to introduce modifications into the Qur'anic text, thus impairing the grace of the Speech of Allah. As a result of such considerations, and after consultations with the Companions of the Prophet, 'Uthman decided that copies of the standard edition of the Qur'an, prepared earlier on the order of Abu Bakr, should be published, and that publication of the Qur'anic text in any other dialect or idiom should be proscribed.

The Qur'an that we possess today corresponds exactly to the edition which was prepared on the orders of Abu Bakr and copies of which were officially sent, on the orders of 'Uthman, to various cities and provinces. Several copies of this original edition of Qur'an still exist today. Anyone who entertains any doubt as to the authenticity of the Qur'an can satisfy himself by obtaining a copy of the Qur'an from any bookseller, say in West Africa, and then have a hafiz (memorizer of the Quran) recite it from memory, compare the two, and then compare these with the copies of the Qur'an published through the centuries since the time of 'Uthman. If he detects
any discrepancy, even in single letter or syllable, he should inform the whole world of his great
discovery (Syed Abul A'ala Maududi 2006, Translated by Dr. Zafar Ishaq Ansari)”.

After a brief review of the revelation, compilation and authenticity of the Quran it is clear
now that this is not an ordinary reading book in sense it is just for reading but it is for deliberation and
comprehending the principles it has. Also alike the other Divine books its preservation is in safe hands
and the companions and the Muslim Ummah very consciously took measures to memorize it so it can be
claimed that this the only book in the world that has been memorized on such a large scale.

Although most of the Muslims researchers believe that Quran is not a human book, little attention
has-been paid to explore writing strategies described in Quran. Secondly Since now the theorists vary in
defining process of writing. According to Faigley(1986) there are two major perspectives on composing,
an expressive view including the work of “authentic voice “which is proposed by, William Coles, Peter
Elbow, Ken Macrorie, and Donald Stewart and a cognitive view including the research of those who
analyze composing processes such as Linda Flower, Bay Kroll, and Andrea Lunsford. Lee Odel and Dixie
Goswamilt(1985) edited a collection of essays in which they stressed upon the third perspective on
composing they called it a social view. They proposed that processes of writing are social in character
instead of originating within an individual. Finally the Marxist studies of literacy can be included as a
fourth social position on composing (Faigley,1986). Marxist view of writing can be summed up as any act
of writing or teaching of writing must be understood within a structure of power related to modes of
production (Faigley, 1986).

Before I present a comparison and contrast of these four views on composing with the goal of
presenting the Quranic views on the process of writing, it would be suitable to understand the underlying
assumption of all of the existing views on writing. The underlying assumptions are summed up by
Faigley(1986) in an article as “ the study and teaching of writing should aspire to disciplinary status.
According to Aronowitz and Giroux(1985,cited in Faigley,1986), the development of writing program as
a part of a more general trend toward a theoretical and skill-oriented curriculum that regards teachers as
civil servants who dispense pre-packaged lessons. This assessment truly illustrates the goal of education
in the world driven by pragmatic approaches. In Islamic view any program that is to be introduced must
not be confined to a limited trend that deprives one group from the right it deserves so it must be an
embracing term covering theory, action and education. According to Aronowitz and Giroux(1985,cited in
Faigley,1986),

“We wish to suggest that schools, especially the colleges and universities, are now
battlegrounds that may help to determine the shape of the future. The proliferation of
composition programs at all levels of higher education may signal a new effort to extend
the technicization process even further into humanities. . . . The splitting of composition as a
course from the study of literature, is an attack against critical thought and because it results
in demoralization of teachers and their alienation from work”(52).

According to Faigley (1986) they allow for the possibility that teachers and students can resist
domination and think critically, thus leaving open the possibility for historically aware theory and
pedagogy of composing. But Faigley too ignores the Islamic thought that has a very prominent status in
the world. If the technicization of composing process is mere related to Marxist theory and historical
perspective then what is the place of Islamic views and philosophy that emphasizes wisdom. According to the Islamic point of view education helps learners differentiating between good and bad and prepares them for resisting domination of the oppressive and think freely within the limits. This position paper is an attempt to shed some light onto the writing strategies in the light of the holy Quran. Particularly it does not aim at rejecting or challenging the explored strategies but an initiation into the understanding Quran and its approach towards modern research of writing processes.

“Allama Moududi(2006) asserted in the preface(Moqadam) of Tafheem-ul-Quran, We are accustomed to reading books that present information, ideas and arguments systematically and coherently. So when we embark on the study of the Qur'an, we expect that this book too will revolve around a definite subject, that the subject matter of the book too will be clearly defined at the beginning and will then be neatly divided into sections and chapters, after which discussion will proceed in a logical sequence. We likewise expect a separate and systematic arrangement of instruction and guidance for each of the various aspects of human life.”

In above lines the characteristics of a well accustomed book are a true illustration of a linear model of writing and written product. A linear model of writing stresses upon three constant stages of writing: pre-writing, writing, and re-writing.

Allama further illustrates, “However, as soon as we open the Qur'an, we encounter a hitherto completely unfamiliar genre of literature. We notice that it embodies precepts of belief and conduct, moral directives, legal prescriptions, exhortations and admonition, censure and condemnation of evildoers, warning to the deniers of the Truth, good tidings and words of consolation and good cheer to those who have suffered for the sake of Allah, arguments and corroborative evidence in support of its basic message, allusions to anecdotes from the past and the signs of Allah visible in the universe. Moreover, these myriads subjects alternate without any apparent system; quite unlike the books to which we are accustomed, the Qur'an deals with the same subject over and over again, each time couched in a different phraseology.

The reader also encounters abrupt transitions between one subject matter and another. Audience and speaker constantly change as the message is directed now to one and now to another group of people. There is no trace of the familiar divisions into chapters and sections. Likewise, the treatment of different subjects is unique. If an historical subject is raised, the narrative does not follow the pattern familiar in historical accounts. In the discussion of philosophical or metaphysical questions, we miss the familiar expressions and terminology of formal logic and philosophy. Cultural and political matters, or questions pertaining to man's social and economic life, are discussed in a way very different from that usual in work of social sciences. Juristic principles and legal injunctions are elucidated, but quite differently from the manner of conventional works. When we come across an ethical instruction, we find its form entirely differs from anything to be found elsewhere in the literature of ethics. The reader may find all this so foreign to his notion of what a book should be that he may become so confused as to feel that the Qur'an is a piece of disorganised, incoherent and unsystematic writing, comprising nothing but a disjointed conglomeration of comments of varying lengths put together arbitrarily.”

Before illustrating a consolidated summary of the writing strategies mentioned in this preface I have made an attempt to extend writing model of Flower and Hayes (1980a) onto the writing processes
described by the holy Quran. Flower & Hayes (1980a) developed a model of the writing process by observing college students and expert writers. They were seeking to describe features common to all writers and needed a way to identify the processes writers used and how these processes were organized in order to produce a text.

Flower & Hayes (1980a) argued that composing processes were best seen as cognitive processes and used cognitive theory to analyze the process of writing as a set of distinctive thinking activities. Thus, they studied writing as a process of discovering and problem-solving in which ideas are actively constructed to satisfy communication goals. Accordingly, writing involves using and coordinating different processes in order to satisfy goals that vary due to content, task, and audience. Flower & Hayes (1980a) looked at the processes which contribute to understanding the types of cognitive problem-solving processes used by mature writers.

The Flower and Hayes’ model consists of three interacting components: the task environment (the writing assignment, text produced so far, physical environment, intended audience), the writing process (the sub processes of planning, including generating and organizing ideas, as well as setting goals; translating, which included generating written text from internal representations and reviewing, which included reading, evaluating and revising), and the writer’s long-term memory (knowledge of topic, audience and genre). They proposed that these are all controlled by a “monitor” that determines when the writer moves from one process to another, thus, the writer is able to switch back and forth among processes. A great part of skill in writing is the ability to direct one’s own composing process. This may also vary from writer to writer and from writing task to writing task.

Through their work, Flower & Hayes (1981a) identified four features of composing:

1. Writing consists of distinctive processes (planning, translating, and reviewing).
2. The processes of writing are hierarchically organized and embedded in other processes (processes are recursive).
3. Writing is a goal-directed process (global for affecting an audience and local that guided the act of writing).
4. Writers continually create new goals and sub goals.
   This theory considers writing a dynamic, recursive process of developing and editing text within various constraints.

The theory of Flower & Hayes (1980a) can be summarized that writers do not write in a linear fashion meaning that they do not typically write by planning first, then drafting, and finally revising. They used the described writer as a switchboard operator dealing simultaneously with the constraints of knowledge, written speech, and the rhetorical problem. These constraints shape the writers’ goals, influencing both what they write and how they write it. Accordingly writers must juggle many constraints in order to satisfy the demands of the writing task, the audience, and their personal goals.

After a brief review of the writing process model summary of writing processes would help elaborating process of writing in the light of holy Quran:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Repeating</td>
<td>Repetition of key words and phrases is an activity which often seems to provide impetus to continue composing. (Arndts 1987)</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Qur'an deals with the same subject over and over again, each time couched in a different phraseology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This [RHETORICAL ASPECT] explains the repetitions we encounter in the Qur'an. The interests of a message and a movement demand that during a particular stage emphasis should be placed only on those subjects which are appropriate at that stage, to the exclusion of matters pertaining to later stages. As a result, certain subjects may require continual emphasis for months or even years. On the other hand, constant repetition in the same manner becomes exhausting. Whenever a subject is repeated, it should therefore be expressed in different phraseology, in new forms and with stylistic variations so as to ensure that the ideas and beliefs being put over find their way into the hearts of the people.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition as Purpose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>At the same time, it was essential that the fundamental beliefs and principles on which the whole movement was based should always be kept fresh in people's minds; a necessity which dictated that they should always be repeated continuously through all stages of the movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizing</td>
<td>In this process the writer organizes the general ideas (Sasaki 2000)</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Moreover, these myriads subjects alternate without any apparent system; quite unlike the books to which we are accustomed, the Qur'an deals with the same subject over and over again, each time couched in a different phraseology. (ORGANIZING)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The reader also encounters abrupt transitions between one subject matter and another. There is no trace of the familiar divisions into chapters and sections. Likewise, the treatment of different subjects is unique. If an historical subject is raised, the narrative does not follow the pattern familiar in</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sense of readers</th>
<th>In this process the writer adjusts expression(s) to the reader(s) (Sasaki 2000)</th>
<th>Rhetorical</th>
<th>Audience and speaker constantly change as the message is directed now to one and now to another group of people.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Insofar as it seeks to explain the ultimate causes of man's success or failure the subject of the Book is MAN. (AUDIENCE, INDEFINITE)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Qur'an also addressed itself to those outside the fold of Islam, to the People of the Book, the hypocrites, the unbelievers, the polytheists. Each group was addressed according to its own particular circumstances and attitudes. Sometimes the Qur'an invited them to the true faith with tenderness and delicacy; on other occasions, it rebuked and severely admonished them. It also warned them against, and threatened them with punishment from Allah. It attempted to make them take heed by drawing their attention to instructive historical events. In short, people were left with no valid reason for refusing the call of the Prophet.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>The writer decides and finds a focus that what he should write (Andt 1987)</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>In the discussion of philosophical or metaphysical questions, we miss the familiar expressions and terminology of formal logic and philosophy. Cultural and political matters, or questions pertaining to man's social and economic life, are discussed in a way very different from that usual in work of social sciences. Juristic principles and legal injunctions are elucidated, but quite differently from the manner of conventional works.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is why the Qur'an mentions everything only to the extent and in the manner necessary for the purposes it seeks to serve. The Qur'an confines itself to essentials thereby omitting any irrelevant details. Thus, all its contents consistently revolve around this call.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>The writer refines the</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>When we come across an ethical instruction, we find its [Qurans] form entirely differs from anything to</td>
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<tr>
<td>Refining</td>
<td>rhetorical aspect(s) of an expression so that it might not give the impression of repetition or in other words to create a sense of uniqueness in expression (Sasaki 2000).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canons of Rhetorical Mechanics</td>
<td>The writer uses words that directly appeal the reader that is not any oration but a natural style of the writer.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Moreover, the various fragments of the Qur'an which were revealed in harmony with the growth of Islamic movement were not published in the form of written treatises, but were spread orally.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Their style, therefore, bore an oratorical flavour rather than the characteristics of literary composition.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Furthermore, these orations were delivered by one whose task meant he had to appeal simultaneously to the mind, to the heart and emotions, to the people of different mental levels and dispositions. He had to revolutionize people's thinking, to arouse in them a storm of noble emotions in support of his cause, to persuade his Companions and inspire them with devotion and zeal, and with the desire to improve and reform their lives. He had to raise their morale and steel their determination, turn enemies into friends and opponents into admirers, disarm those out to oppose his message and show their position to be morally untenable. In short, he had to do everything necessary to carry out his movement through to a successful conclusion. Orations revealed in conformity with the requirement of a message and movement will inevitably have a style different from that of a professional lecture.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>It[Quran] embodies precepts of belief and conduct, moral directives, legal prescriptions……….,</td>
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<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOBAL PLANNING</td>
<td>The writer plans his goals on broad level and makes efforts to accomplish those set goals.</td>
<td>Meta-Cognitive</td>
<td>If we study the Qur'an with these facts in mind it is bound to strike us that the Qur'an does not deviate one iota from its main subject, its central theme and its basic objective. All the various themes occurring in the Qur'an are related to the central theme; just as beads of different colour may be strung together to form a necklace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>The writer leaves not a single point uncovered and described.</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>The Qur'an speaks of the structure of the heavens and the earth and of man, refers to the signs of reality in the various phenomena of the universe, relates anecdotes of bygone nations, criticizes the beliefs, morals and deeds of different people, elucidates supernatural truths and discusses many other things besides.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
<td>The writer leaves not a single point uncovered and described.</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>All this the Qur'an does, not in order to provide instruction in physics, history, philosophy or any other particular branch of knowledge, but rather to remove the misconceptions people have about reality and to make that reality manifest them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>This is the problem writer efforts to solve.</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>Allah chose a man in Makkah to serve as His Messenger and asked him to preach His message, starting in its own city (Makkah) and with his own tribe (Quraysh). At this initial stage, instructions were confined to what was necessary at this particular juncture of the mission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>This is the problem writer efforts to solve.</td>
<td>Rhetorical</td>
<td>For thirteen years the Islamic movement strives in Makkah. It then obtained, in Madina, a haven of refuge in which to concentrate its followers and its strength. The Prophet's movement now centered in its third stage. During this stage, circumstances changed drastically. The Muslim Community succeeded in establishing a fully-fledged state; its creation was followed by prolonged armed conflict with the</td>
</tr>
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</table>
representatives of the ancient Ignorance of Arabia. The community also encountered followers of the former Prophets, i.e. Jews and Christians. An additional problem was that hypocrites began to join the fold of Muslim community; their machinations needed to be resisted. After a severe struggle, lasting ten years, the Islamic movement reached a high point of achievement when the entire Arabian peninsula came under its sway and the door was open to the world-wide preaching and reform. This stage, like the preceding one, passed through various phases each of which had its peculiar problems and demands.

It was in the context of these problems that Allah continued to reveal messages to the Prophet. At times these messages were couched in the form of fiery speeches; at other times they were characterized by the grandeur and stateliness of majestic proclamations and ordinances. At times they had the air of instructions from a teacher; at others, the style of preaching of reformer. These messages explained how a healthy society, state and civilization could be established and the principles on which the various aspects of human life should be based.

| Translating | The writer makes effort to generate text pure and stylistic. | Cognitive | Short verses, couched in language of uncommon grace and power, and clothed in a literary style suited to the taste and the temperament of the people to whom they were originally addressed, and whose hearts they were meant to penetrate. The rhythm, melody and vitality of these verses drew rapt attention, as such were their stylistic grace and charm that people began to recite them involuntarily. |
| Clarification: Hypothesizing. | The writer leaves not a single point un- | Rhetorical | The local color of these early messages in conspicuous, for while the truth s they contained were universal, the arguments and illustrations used |
Defining Terms, Comparing

| covered and described. | to elucidate them were drawn from the immediate environment familiar to the first listeners. Allusions were made to their history and traditions and to the visible traces of the past which had crept into the beliefs, and into the moral and social life of Arabia. |

Purpose

| The writer decided the reader for whom he/she intends to compose. | Rhetorical | All this was calculated to enhance the appeal the message held for its immediate audience. In short, they were being trained to serve as the successors of the mission of the Prophet, with the task of carrying on the message of Islam and bringing about the reform in human life. |

Rationalizing Appropriate Format

| The writer organizes the produced text in a well formed, coherent organization. | Cognitive | The different parts of the Qur'an were revealed step by step according to the multifarious, changing needs and requirements of the Islamic movement during these stages. It therefore, could not possibly possess the kind of coherence and systematic sequence expected of doctoral dissertation. |

**Conclusion**

The writing strategies discussed in the holy Quran have opened a debate for the initiation into the understanding of the Quran and its approach towards modern research of writing processes. Generally while reading the Holy Quran we assume that it presents information, ideas and arguments systematically and coherently. As usual books are divided in chapters and sections under specific headings and sub-headings. But the study of the Qur’an exposes that writing is a recursive and non-linear process and the writer does not revolve around a definite pattern, for example a defined beginning, sections and chapters, after which discussion will proceed in a logical sequence. Through the literature and the study of the Quran I have associated the teachings of the holy book to support the idea that the writers cycle back and forth while composing. Likewise each and every verse of the Holy Quran is described in a separate individual context that also supports the ideal process.

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Deploying a Sense of Plausibility in Language Choice: The Role of English-Shona Code Switching in Zimbabwean Classrooms

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Abstract: Despite calls for the upgrading of Shona and Ndebele into languages of learning and teaching in secondary schools in Zimbabwe, and for the teaching of the so-called official minority languages, things have virtually remained unchanged in terms of the language of learning and teaching being used in the schools. English continues to dominate the role of medium of instruction. It is becoming more and more apparent in Zimbabwe that government calls for the use of indigenous languages as languages of learning and teaching in secondary schools have not been complemented by practical action. However, appealing to their sense of plausibility, teachers have reined in the indigenous languages into their classroom practice, through code switching, realising positive results in the process. The teaching of previously marginalised so-called minority languages is also steadily growing, particularly at tertiary level. Through observation of classroom practice and interviews in 10 secondary schools in the Masvingo District of Zimbabwe, it emerged that English-Shona code switching helped teachers achieve content transmission and classroom management goals. It emerged that the teachers have innovatively carved a momentous niche in a language policy environment that continues to effectively marginalise indigenous languages from the classroom.

Key words: Zimbabwe, code switching, language of instruction, sense of plausibility, Shona,

1. Introduction

Determining the language to be used as a language of instruction (LOI) is one of the key decisions that have a huge impact on the success of the learning process (Babaci-Wilhite 2013, Rea-Dickins and Yu 2013, Madiba 2012, Alemu and Tekleselassie 2011, Rezvani and Rasekh 2011, Roy-Campbell 2003, Barkhuizen 1995, Bamgbose 1991, among others). In most countries in Africa, such decisions are made by politicians who may not be interested or conversant with the nitty-gritty of language choice on the learning process, being more concerned with the political expediency dimension of the policy (Alemu and Tekleselassie 2011, Crystal 2003, Francis and Kamanda 2001). Such an approach by politicians has invariably ruined chances for the development of indigenous languages. In Zimbabwe, changing from the colonial language of learning and teaching policy that favoured English, to one that recognises the important role of the indigenous language, particularly in the schools, has eluded government policy planners for
over three decades now. Even at the height of the Zimbabwean crisis in 2007/2008 when the government churned out a barrage of anti-British vitriol, the position of English remained untouched (Ndhlovu 2011). It is important to explore how classroom practitioners have reacted to this stasis in the language of instruction policy.

2. Review of literature

The issue of language of instruction in the classroom belongs to the field of language planning in general and to that of language in education in particular. Subsections 2.1 to 2.4 give the background to the study by discussing language planning in the context of education, outlining the current language of instruction policy in Zimbabwe, defining the concept ‘sense of plausibility’ and reviewing some studies of code switching in the classroom context.

2.1 Language planning and education

According to Bamgbose (1991:162) “the question of what language to use in education is a problematic one in any multilingual country, particularly one that has also been subjected to the inevitable imposition of a foreign official language arising from colonialism”. To a great extent, this description fits Zimbabwe as well as many other African countries.

Bamgbose (1991:69) observes that many African nations bear the brand of what he terms the “inheritance situation”, a situation whereby African nations pretend to make policy in education; when in fact all they actually do is carry on the logic of the policies of the past. Such a phenomenon is evident “in the very languages selected, the roles assigned to them, the levels at which languages are introduced and the difficulty of changing any of these.”

McNab (1992:2) also views the education system as an important field for the implementation of government policies. He goes on to elaborate that such policies include the reinforcement of national integration, popular legitimation of government, economic development and national cultural authentication. Tollefson (2002:179) notes that “in multilingual states, language policies in education play a central role in state efforts to manage language conflict”. For example, in a situation where competing language groups seek to further their social, economic and political agendas within the educational system, language policy in education may be a crucial component in state efforts to favour one language group over another, or to reduce the potential of social conflict.

There are a number of definitions of language planning put forward by such scholars as Cooper (1989), Crystal (1997), Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), Francis and Kamanda (2001), Crystal (2003), Batibo (2005), Fishman (2006), Liddicoat (2007), among others. Focusing particularly on the African context, Batibo (2005:117) however proposes that language planning should be confined to “the formulation of a set of principles that allow an optimal utilisation of the language(s) in a country for the benefit of all its citizens and to manipulation of the relevant language(s) so that
they have the capabilities required to fulfil all the communicative and other needs of the speakers”. Batibo goes on to propose two types of planning; ideological planning and technical planning. There are also other types of planning such as corpus planning, status planning and acquisition planning (Cooper 1989). However, in order to understand the proper context of code switching in Zimbabwean classrooms, it is important to describe the prevailing medium of instruction policy.

2.2 The current medium of instruction policy in Zimbabwe

Many scholars (Makanda 2013, Nhongo 2013, Ndhlovu 2009), for example, have observed that Zimbabwe has not developed formal language policies. Nevertheless, there exists an act of parliament that regulates how languages should be used and taught in the education sector in Zimbabwe. Inherited from the pre-colonial system and reconstituted without any alterations in 1996, the act that currently regulates language use and teaching in education was amended in 2006. The amended act is quoted verbatim below:

*Languages to be taught in schools*

(1) Subject to this section, all the three main languages of Zimbabwe, namely Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught on an equal-time basis in all schools up to Form Two level.

(2) In areas where indigenous languages other than those mentioned in subsection (1) are spoken, the Minister may authorise the teaching of such languages in schools in addition to those specified in subsection (1).

(3) The Minister may authorise the teaching of foreign languages in schools.

(4) Prior to Form 1, any one of the languages referred to in subsection (1) and (2) may be used as the medium of instruction depending upon which language is more commonly spoken and better understood by the pupils.

(5) Sign language shall be the priority medium of instruction for the deaf and hard of hearing.

Critics have identified a number of weaknesses in this amended policy, among them the fact that the policy is silent on the language of instruction to be used in secondary schools, thereby silently perpetuating the 1996 policy where English is the language of instruction. It is the constraints posed by the use of English as LOI that perhaps force teachers in the secondary schools to recourse to English-Shona code switching.

2.3 Defining sense of plausibility

Prabhu (1990:172) defines sense of plausibility as a teacher’s subjective understanding or personal conceptualisation of the teaching activities she carries out in the classroom and their envisaged effect, more or less a pedagogic intuition. Prabhu argues that a teacher’s sense of plausibility arises from any or all of the following: a teacher’s experience from the past as a
learner, a teacher’s earlier experience of teaching, exposure to one or more methods of teaching during training, what the teacher knows or thinks about other teachers’ actions or opinions and a teacher’s experience as a parent or caretaker.

An important dimension of a teacher’s sense of plausibility is that it varies from teacher to teacher and may be viewed as a teaching theory in a dormant state. Prabhu (1990:173) goes on to say the following about the consequence of engaging the sense of plausibility:

“It is when a teacher’s sense of plausibility is engaged in the teaching operation that the teacher can be said to be involved, and the teaching not to be mechanical. Further, when the sense of plausibility is engaged, the activity of teaching is productive: There is then a basis for the teacher to be satisfied or dissatisfied about the activity, and each instance of such satisfaction or dissatisfaction is itself a further influence on the sense of plausibility, confirming or disconfirming or revising it in some small measure, and generally contributing to its growth and change”. Prabhu says in conclusion that an engagement of the sense of plausibility is a major condition for teacher-learner rapport; a highly regarded condition in the classroom.

In an introduction to a book on writing, Tribble (1997: x) states: “We believe that advances in language teaching stem from the independent efforts of teachers in their own classrooms. This independence is not brought about by imposing fixed ideas and promoting fashionable formulas. It can only occur when teachers, individually or collectively, explore principles and experiment with techniques”. He goes on to argue that “if language teaching is to be a genuinely professional enterprise, it requires continual experimentation and evaluation on the part of practitioners whereby in seeking to be more effective in their pedagogy they provide at the same time – and as a corollary – for their own continuing education” (Tribble 1997:xii).

It is this continual experimentation and independence that constitutes ‘sense of plausibility. It should also be pointed out that teachers do not engage their sense of plausibility only in terms of methodological choices. This paper argues that language choice is a significant realm in which teachers and students, consciously or subconsciously, deploy the sense of plausibility in order to deal with the hurdles emanating from the existing LOI policy.

2.4 Code switching in learning and teaching activities

Code switching may be understood as an attempt to recognise the potency of mother tongues as languages of instruction. Defined as “the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode” (Eastman 1992:1) code switching is interesting in that some scholars argue that it must be encouraged while others feel that it must be discouraged in the classroom. Eastman adds that code switching encompasses borrowing, mixing and switching all of which have the same rhetorical effects though they are structurally different. According to Myers-
Scotton (1993) code switching can be classified as marked (where the language used would not be normally expected in a given context) or unmarked (where the language used is one that would be expected in that context). Researchers on code switching (e.g. Nwoye 1992; Adendorf 1993; Canagarajah 1995; Slabbert and Finlayson et al. 2002; Myers-Scotton 2005; Holmarsdottir 2007; Ahmad 2009) largely concur that it carries out important functions both in and outside the classroom. According to Adendorf (1993:141) “code switching is a communicative resource, which enables teachers and pupils to accomplish a considerable number and range of social and educational objectives”. In Myers-Scotton’s (2005:3) view, code switching “better expresses the semantics and pragmatics of the speaker’s intentions” than either of the separate codes singly.

In the classroom situation, code switching is also invaluable both in content transmission and classroom management (Canagarajah 1995). Adendorf (1993) concurs with this notion when he asserts that code switching plays both an educational and a social function. Code switching is important to the second language learner, not only because it augurs well with the communicative classroom (Faleni 1993, Canagarajah 1995) but indeed because students learn the values behind respective codes; how to negotiate meaning through code choice; how to negotiate identities through alternations in appropriate situations, the metalinguistic and metacognitive skills (Canagarajah 1995). Through exposure to code switching, students also learn to be communicatively competent and to practically benefit from their bilingualism.

Keane (1999) as well as Shumba and Manyati (1998) also report on how code switching resulted in improved levels of motivation and participation in the classroom. Furthermore, code switching gives the L2 learner an opportunity to use his or her mother tongue, thereby enabling him to enjoy this fundamental human right (Skutnubb-Kangas 1990, Babaci-Wilhite 2013) and leading to a reduction of the cultural and language shock of the minority language learner who is faced with a foreign language of instruction.

There are also micro-functions of code switching. Canagarajah (1995) gives examples such as negotiating directions, opening the class, managing discipline, expressing encouragement, complements, commands, admonitions and mitigation within the classroom context. There are of course scholars who argue that code switching takes away from the L2 learner an opportunity to experience vicariously how certain messages are communicated in the target language. Kgomoeswana (1993) says that paraphrasing learning content using the learner’s L1 should be discouraged because no two words or phrases from two different languages mean the same, such that translating, as it were, is bound to mislead the learner.

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that despite some shortcomings that the use of code switching may have, it is by and large an important resource which teachers must not feel ashamed to use.
3. Methodology

The data for this study was collected through observation. Observation is a research technique that involves the collection of data without the researcher attempting to manipulate it. The researcher simply observed on-going activities, without making any attempt to control or determine them (Wray et al. 1998:186). However, Wilson (1987: 161) observes that though observation may give researchers naturalistic data, “in observing or recording everyday interaction, one is contaminating that very interaction by the procedures of observation”. This is what is known as “the observer’s paradox”. Either a participant or non-participant observer can execute observations. A non-participant observer “records in detail as an outsider, all the behaviours which take place” while a participant observer is “an integral part of the observed situation as one of the subjects without the other participants being aware of the fact” (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:161). For this study, the observation was carried out by a non-participant observer. Non-participation freed more time for the observer to concentrate on the task of observing and taking notes.

Observation focused on the actual LOI practice of secondary school teachers. Table 3.1 shows the subjects in which observations were carried out. Four teachers from each of the ten schools, one from each subject discipline, were observed.

Table 3.1: The subjects in which observations were carried out

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Subjects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commercials</td>
<td>Commerce, Accounting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>Literature in English, History, Religious Studies, Geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicals</td>
<td>Agriculture, Fashion and Fabrics, Computer Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>Integrated Science, Physics, Chemistry, Biology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observations vary in explicitness, with structured observations being of high explicitness and open or unstructured observations being of low explicitness. Data from structured observations are in the form of checks, tallies, frequencies, and ratings while those from open observations are in the form of impressions, field notes, tapes or transcripts.

In this study, an observation schedule (extrapolated from the one used by Meyer (1997, 1998) was used to elicit information on the LOI that was used in the classroom:

- when the teacher spoke to the students
- when the students spoke to each other.
- when the students spoke to the teacher.
- when the teacher wrote on the chalkboard.
- when the teacher wrote in the scheme book.
when the teacher wrote in students’ exercise or note books.
when the students wrote in exercise or note books.
when the students wrote on the chalkboard.
in subject core textbooks.
on charts and other audiovisual learning aids.

4. Patterns and effects of code switching in the classroom

As indicated in Section 2 above, classroom observations were meant to explore the reasons for the teachers’ thinking and practice regarding the official medium of instruction policy. It was also indicated that the official language of instruction in Zimbabwean secondary schools is English. Against this background, the effects of English-Shona code-switching could be explored mainly through paying attention to those instances that teachers and learners departed from that official policy.

It emerged from the classroom observations that the disharmony between the language of instruction policy and practice was only minimal. Most departures from the official policy also seemed off the record but were in fact integral components of classroom instruction. However, it was interesting to note that the classroom sessions that were observed contrasted with lessons shown on the ‘Extra Lesson’ programme on ZBC Television in which teachers painstakingly used only the English language throughout their lessons. It must also be noted that the lessons beamed on television appeared more formal and rather artificial than the live lessons that were observed for this study.

Confirming Meyer’s (1998) findings, it was observed that both teachers and pupils departed from the LOI policy only in the oral modes of communication. However the critical question was not whether or not disharmony between the LOI policy and practice existed and to what extent, but focused on the factors that give rise to a departure from the official LOI policy.

It was observed that departures from the prescribed LOI policy were mainly in the form of code switching. The observations revealed that switching was an act of engaging the teacher’s sense of plausibility in terms of LOI choice. Broadly speaking, the functions that were observed could be grouped according to Canagarajah’s (1995) taxonomy, which consists of classroom management, social and pedagogical functions. I discuss each of these broad functions below illustrating them with evidence from the observation data. Where actual quotations from the research participants are used, a code name for the participant is always given in brackets at the end of the quotation.

4.1 Classroom management functions

Many of the observations showed that teachers adopted the modality splitting strategy i.e. the reservation of specific codes or channels of communication for distinct functions (Canagarajah 1995:179) between Shona and English. It was evident that departures to Shona were mainly used
for maintenance of classroom management while English was mainly used for content transmission. The following example from a Form 2 (Grade 9) Accounting lesson on three-column cashbooks illustrates that:

**Example 1:**

Now the first thing that we want to do is divide our page into relevant columns. You should remember from yesterday how we go about drawing the columns. We shall do this in groups. Division of labour-*ka. Vamwe vachiita izvi, vamwe vachiitawo izvi.* [You should appreciate the importance of division of labour. Some will do this and others will do that] (MT 1).

This example shows that the teacher (MT 1) departs from the official LOI policy and switches to Shona when he is giving instructions on how the class is going to conduct itself in carrying out classroom activities. This is a typical classroom management strategy informed by modality splitting as the large proportion of the lesson is conducted in English.

It can also be argued that in this example, the teacher is also trying to clarify to the students the concept of ‘division of labour’ that he feels learners may not have understood. Thus he goes on to render the Shona equivalent of ‘division of labour’ ie ‘*vamwe vachiita izvi, vamwe vachiitawo izvo*’. This confirms Canagarajah’s (1995) observation that code switching can be used as a vehicle for clarifying, explaining, exemplifying, reformulating and qualifying during the transmission of learning matter. It is evident here that the teacher has a hunch that these functions cannot be best accomplished in English which is a second language for the learners even if it is the official LOI. Thus he circumvents the obstacles posed by the official LOI and engages his sense of plausibility through switching to the learners’ mother tongue. In the process, the teacher achieves the nobler goal of ensuring understanding in the learners. Though we will notice later that students’ switches to the mother tongue might be a result of linguistic limitations in the official LOI, here it is evident that teachers’ switches are not a result of linguistic incompetence.

Another episode in the same lesson that shows that the teacher was reserving Shona for classroom management purposes and English for transmitting the learning content was when he said, some five minutes into the group activity, to a straggling student:

**Example 2:**

*Hausati watanga?* [You haven’t even started?] (MT 1).

*Kana tichirula torula takaita sei?*[How do we go about ruling the page?] (Learner A1).

*Uyo akwanisa wani kurula. Zvokurovha ndozvandisingadi.* [But your colleague there has successfully ruled the page. You are in the habit of bunking classes. I don’t condone that] (MT 1).
In this episode, the teacher switches to Shona when he chides a student for being slow. The teacher proceeds to condemn, in Shona, the tendency of the student to absent herself from classes.

There are of course scholars (e.g. Kgomoeswana 1993) who argue that code switching prevents the learners from experiencing how certain messages are communicated in the target language (usually the LOI). This is a sound argument in the sense that, in Example 2 above, if the teacher had used the English version to chide the learner, the class in general and the errant learner in particular, could have learnt how to chide in English. However, by switching to the learner’s mother tongue, the teacher foregoes the opportunity of speaking in English in favour of the more pressing need to discipline the learner.

We also note in this example that the student asks the teacher a question in Shona. It can be argued that the student resorts to Shona because that is the language in which the teacher has initiated the exchange with her. Furthermore, it is equally plausible to argue that the student believes that if she asks her question in the mother tongue, the teacher, who in turn may also offer an explanation in the same language, will understand the question unambiguously. In such a scenario it becomes evident that some learners resort to the use of the mother tongue because they are conscious of their limitations in the official LOI. Such limitations were actually witnessed, even in Form 6 (Grade 13) students. (See examples 3 – 6 below)

*Example 3*

Sunshine will be short [for the concept that crops will be competing for sunshine] (Learner G1).

*Example 4*

The government must also chip in with subsidiaries [for subsidies] so that farmers do not buy inputs at market rates (Learner G2).

*Example 5*

The Agribank is useful to farmers like… like to… giving loans to farmers (Learner G3).

*Example 6*

Fertilisers add more manure [for fertility] to the soil (Learner G4).

There were some sniggers from some sections of the classroom whenever such grammatically incorrect sentences were uttered. Inspection of the learners’ exercise books and examination scripts showed similar linguistic inaccuracies. However, something that seems to perpetuate such linguistic inaccuracies is the fact that in the interviews with the teachers who were professional examiners, they said that students’ examination answers that were fraught with language errors would pass for correct answers as long as the answers communicated the desired content.
Another example in which code switching was used to control disruptive behaviour in the class was witnessed in a Form 6 (Grade 13) Geography class in which the teacher said:

**Example 7**

Those who are chatting to themselves *vasingingateereri zviri ku-present-wa ndichakukiyai chaizvo* if you get less than 14 pa-test ye-Friday. [Those who are busy chatting to themselves and not listening to what is being presented, I’ll deal with you effectively if you score less than 14 on the test coming on Friday] (RM 4).

**Example 8**

*Chitoitai zveshamhu chaiyo,* Sir. [Better use a whip, Sir] (Learner G 1).

These examples also show, just as Example 1, that some learners depart from the official LOI once they notice that the teacher has switched from it. Slabbert and Finlayson (2002) make a similar point. It would be tenable to argue here that learners read a switch from the official LOI as a toning down of the formality degree of the lesson and they also thus adjust accordingly.

The reservation of the mother tongue for classroom management purposes, this time not necessarily to check disruptive behaviour or maintain classroom discipline, was also evident in a Form 3 (Grade 10) Mathematics lesson in which the teacher (MD 11) asks the class to clap hands for a learner who has successfully worked out a solution to an algebraic problem on the chalkboard. The teacher says:

**Example 9**

*Maoko panonakidzirawo kani* [Come on, we should always clap hands after a good showing from our colleagues] (MD 11).

After another laudable performance from a different student, the teacher also said:

**Example 10**

*Aha, maoko iwayo.* [Yes! Come on, let’s clap hands for her as usual] (MD 11).

The same teacher also switched to Shona to create emphasis and humour. After a student had asked a question, the teacher replied:

**Example 11**

*Zvativoita apa* is very simple. *Minus sign yako inyore ruviri. Munoziva,* Maths yose iri paminus sign. *Ukainyora ruviri, inopfavisva zvinhu zvako. Zvinopfaya kuita semambava ekiti.* [What we do here is very simple. You have to write your minus sign twice. You know, all Mathematics rests
on the minus sign. If you write the minus sign twice, it renders your task very soft (meaning simple). As soft as the fur of a cat (MD 11).

Here injecting humour into lesson delivery augurs well with the communicative approach to teaching, which discourages teachers from conducting themselves in a cold and authoritarian manner. Thus humour based on the children’s mother tongue may be understood as a pedagogical strategy meant to address the learning needs of the class by promoting a friendly environment. Apart from that, such humour is also a sign of solidarity with the learners on the part of the teacher. Thus code switching may indeed be taken as a potent communicative resource (Canagarajah 1995, Mesthrie et al 2000, Holmarsdottir 2007) that a sensitive and innovative teacher has at his or her disposal.

4.2 Pedagogical and social functions

It was also determined from classroom observations that one of the roles that code switching played in the classroom is that it may be used during content transmission as a contextualisation cue that alerts pupils to what is coming – a kind of advance organiser (Adendorf 1993). The following example from a Form 4 (Grade 11) Agriculture lesson illustrates this function:

Example 12

Saka, [So] you will realise that if the terrain is rugged, operation of agricultural machinery is hampered (N 7).

Here, the teacher has switched to Shona to signal to his audience that he was now about to give a kind of summary or conclusion to an earlier explanation. A similar contextualising strategy was observed in a Form 5 (Grade 12) Physics lesson in which the teacher said:

Example 13

Pane ane mubvunzo here pa-speed… OK….ngatitarisei velocity. [Anyone with a question on the concept ‘speed’. Ok, let’s go ahead and look at velocity] (VC 10).

Apart from indicating that the teacher is using code switching as a transitional device from one segment of the lesson to another, this example also shows that the teacher departs from the official LOI to invite questions from the class. Such a switch, apart from being a marker of solidarity between the teacher and the learners, could also be a strategy to make the learners feel free to ask questions. The teacher seems to understand that sometimes learners shy away from asking questions and by switching to a less formal home language, he could encourage the learners to loosen up and pose questions. This is a pedagogical strategy drawn from the teacher’s sense of plausibility.
Some episodes of the lesson also yielded findings to the effect that departures from the official LOI were meant to facilitate clarification, reformulation, reinforcing or qualifying of concepts. For example:

*Example 14*

*Handiti* rugged terrain *munoiziva? Nzvimbo yakaita sepaSosera paya, tichienda kwaNyika.* You can hardly use a tractor in such a terrain. [Should I believe you know what a rugged terrain is? An area like the vicinity of Sosera on our way to Nyika (N 7).]

Here, the teacher has switched to Shona in order to clarify through an example the meaning of the phrase ‘rugged terrain’. There is certainly nothing wrong with such a practice because the teacher’s professional obligation is to make sure that the learners understand what he is teaching and we know that conceptualisation of any phenomenon is usually more successful and authentic in one’s mother tongue. It would be reasonable to argue from this example that the teacher is a rational communicator who is sensitive to his audience, the learners. It would not make sense, for example, for a teacher to rumble on in English to a sea of bemused faces simply because the teacher is very proficient in English or because a piece of legislation insists on the use of English as the LOI.

As far as code switching between learners is concerned, it was found that learners are less bound to adhere to the official LOI policy than teachers. It was noted that there is a slight difference in the code switching patterns of the teachers and the learners with the teachers using more of code switching than code mixing.

The observations also showed that few lessons featured opportunities for student-to-student interaction. However, the few that had such interaction showed that mixing Shona and English morphemes and lexemes were the unmarked choice. The following are some of the utterances from the learners, which were noted during the classroom observations:

*Example 15*

*Endaka* unopresent-a (Learner M1).

*Example 16*

*Handikwanisi sha-a* (Learner M2).

*Example 17*

First *uno-deal-a nezviri muma-brackets, then wozoita* addition and subtraction (Learner M1).

*Example 18*
Uka-add-a idzi dziri two, then inobva yaita 3m. This one haugoni kui-expand-a because hapana ma-common terms (Learner M2).

Even though most of the learners expressed themselves in a mixture of English and Shona, various teachers were not really concerned about it. Neither did they show that anything was amiss with the language being used. This shows that the teachers did not view the language of instruction policy as cast in stone, but as a tool which could be bent at their discretion to meet their classroom needs.

5. Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that secondary school teachers are creative professionals who appreciate their unique teaching contexts and independently make LOI decisions that they understand will benefit their clients. The teachers are evidently alive to the pedagogical difficulties posed by the use of a foreign language as a language of instruction. An analysis of the observed classroom LOI practice demonstrated that departing from the official LOI in the form of code switching enables teachers to engage their sense of plausibility and realise social and pedagogical goals. Teachers are able to break free from the dictates of the policy and customise their classroom practice to its contextual realities. Thus, dismissing code switching from the classroom on the grounds that it reduces the learner’s exposure to the LOI, or that incompetent teachers may seize upon it as an avoidance strategy is like throwing away the baby with the bath water. Instead, aspirant teachers should be sensitised on the potential and effects of code switching so that they become sociolinguistically sensitive and judicious. This will equip them with strategies to handle LOI issues in the classroom, including ways in which an important pedagogical resource such as code switching may be used systematically and purposefully in classroom instruction.

References


Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.


**Disclaimer:** This paper is partially based on data collected during a 2009 study for an unpublished MA dissertation submitted to the University of South Africa.
LOGISTICS IN HANDLING DIALOGUE IN LITERARY TRANSLATION

V.V.B.Rama Rao, India

Literary translation evolved independent of formal training as an academic discipline. All renowned translators went to literary texts in all languages to import or export literary works in a different language. They did so without any formal training and without the basis of any theory of translation. The translators took the texts they adored and translated them. They forged ahead rendering unto their readers what they thought worthwhile in a wording they thought best, to the best of their ability. A new genre “Literature in Translation” has come into being.

Literary translation from regional languages in India into English has been a necessity for the last sixty years. Owing to the country becoming independent there is a need for various native languages to be read in other states. To understand the varied cultures through the writing in other language regions, translations into English must be produced.

Literature has several functions and creative writing takes many forms called genres. Each genre has slightly different norms for criticism. Literary Translation has come to assume great importance in the context of translation being recognized as a genre. The need for expanding horizons of understanding between various language communities demands literary translation into and from many languages. Literary translation from regional languages in India into English has been a necessity for the last sixty years. Our country having become independent, there arose a dire need for various regional language literatures to be rendered into English to be read by readers in states speaking other languages. To understand the varied cultures through the writing in other language regions, translations into English are the only way.

Fiction has acquired a highly favored genre now. National integration has been the crying need after political independence. In creative writing of which fiction is an integral part there is special importance for dialogue with vocabulary and expressive devices in speaking. The characters in fiction, short or long, are not of the same cultural/social strata. They may be coming from several sub-language, dialect or idiolect groups. Many considerations like social/cultural strata, age, manners (or even mannerisms), accomplishments, living places, areas, situations and moods and emotions of characters are all important. Of the four ‘systems’ dialogue, narrative, description and commentary, dialogue is the very first. While the three others also raise problems for the practitioner, dialogue poses varied and deeper problems. Each practicing translator has to find his own ways to tackle the problems to devise ways to convey expressive devices etc of the speakers in fiction. Idiolects are of different varieties. There are three ways to deal with them: to be idiolect neutral, idiolect free or idiolect specific. It is an attempt to be artistic trying to avoid insipidity.

Though a generally thankless job, literary translation is a practitioner’s pride. No anesthetist is ever thanked as a surgeon does but his job is important too. Given below is Telugu story in translation by the writer himself to illustrate the problems. The dialogues are italicized and after each the points regarding the problems are discussed.
Khaidi

(The title of the story is retained as it is since the term is familiar to all in our country.)

On the first day he was in the jail, it was all totally unfamiliar and he was at a loss to know his way around. Not that he could move about freely: he was let out only to do his bit of work. On that day he was asked to do work in the farm, to water the plants one after another. There were several already doing their work there.

“Arre, Bhai, how many years did they give you?” The one with a dreadful scar across his cheek asked Kannayya with what purported to be a lot of affection for the newcomer.

“You braggart! Don’t try to draw him out. It’s simply his fate that he should be here. He is innocent and accursed.”

“Kannayya! Look how that fellow is coming strutting, swinging his arms like one on the parade ground.”

Kannayya looked that way and saw the sentry approaching.

“Quite a nasty bloke. A real sister-fucker. Shall I give him a good blow?” So saying he took up a stone, the size of a good lemon and hurled it at the approaching young fellow.

(In Telugu the word ‘naaganna’ is used as a term of endearment or affection for the young fellow, the new convict Kannayya) The appellation ‘Kondi gadu’ is retained and in Telugu ‘kondi’ is the word to describe a scorpion’s tail end.) This can be solved only by giving a footnote. The word of abuse need not be taken literally for it is used by the uneducated, vulgar people like those serving a sentence in prison.

The man was hurt on his pate and gave out a loud cry, which brought several khaki clad men on the scene. The one hurt said “Kondi” and pointed his finger to him. The one with a gun in his hand hit Kondi with the butt on the hip. Kondi lifted the hoe only to be disarmed immediately. The butt must have hit him hard but two khakis dragged him out to produce the khaidi before the officer.
An old sentry spat out: “Things have come to this now – when we were young, no one dared disobeying and none ever tried to be violent. We were beating them at the least suspicion of arrogance or disobedience. If I kicked a fellow with my boot he wouldn’t get up for a week.”

A week later Kondi appeared with chains on him. An elderly prisoner was saying: “Poor fellow! Didn’t I tell you that you have to swallow your anger! See what you have come to. And this is not the first time either.”

“Once these chains are off: you’d see what I’d do to that bastard!” he spat looking in the direction of the warder’s hut.

“Shameless man!” Kannayya said to himself.

(Bastard is a term of abuse not taken literally)

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Vanajakshi set out to attend her friend’s wedding. It was almost nightfall when the car reached the place. Jamuna came out running hearing the car’s hooting. She took her friend into her room. The wedding was fixed for the next day.

The household was very busy.

Holding the coffee cup in her hand Vanajakshi asked: “Whoever is this young man, this Sekhar? The wedding card struck me as very simple.”

“He is practicing in the High Court. M.L. from Osmania.”

“Then you’d join him in his practice. That’s fine. I can send you clients for appeals. As for the fee we’d share it fifty-fifty.”

“He doesn’t like my taking files either. He is quite old fashioned.” The sadness in her friend’s tone made Vanaja change the subject tactfully.
“Where’s the vididi, the resort for the groom’s people?”

“In this very street: the multi storied building of the Naidus. The wedding too is in that building. Naidu is the richest man in this area. You should see his son: quite a character.” (The dialogue is between friends, two educated young women, one the bride and the other the invitee. This part is very easy to translate)

The friends sat in the bride’s room till late in the night chatting.

-The moment Vanaja entered the wedding pandal, Vanajakshi spotted the young man staring at her. He was dressed well: but none of that attractiveness in his face or demeanor. She remembered Jamuna’s hint. He must be the one: yes, Jamuna gave her his name also: Gangaraju. He studied up to Intermediate but then got tired of taking examinations every March and September. He turned a hero breaking the bones of everyone who tried to come in his way or attempted to correct him. She remembered that girls around in the village dreaded him. It was only her relationship that saved Jamuna for she is a ‘sister’ to the lout.

Before the wedding dais people were coming in small groups and settling in the chairs. Perhaps, it was a hired hand; the young man carrying a bucket of water slipped and fell. A man clad in silk slapped him as soon as the poor man could get up. The silk shirt had gold rings on all his fingers. Even without Jamuna her friend telling her Vanaja knew that the ‘silk shirt’ was the lout’s father and the owner of the big building

A villager, a young woman, was seen moving around. Gangaraju was looking at the young woman hungrily and suddenly he smacked her on her buttock. The lass appeared to shrink in shame and anger but there was nothing she could do. She ran into one of the rooms quickly. No one ever seemed to realize what had happened. Perhaps they didn’t want to see. That Gangulu, short for Gangaraju, was ogling, trying to make passes even at her. This was disgusting to Vanajakshi. She tried to leave as soon as it was discreet to do so. Soon after the muhurat, after presenting the set of rings she brought for the couple, she was ready to leave on the plea that she had an important matter in the court the next day. Once in the car, turning on the ignition, she looked at the verandah. As she guessed Gangulu was there, looking at her. She felt as though an insect was crawling on her. She released the clutch and drove off.
The carpentry teacher told Kannayya that the new superintendent had sent for Kondi to tell him something in confidence. Everyone was struck by the change in the khaidi thereafter.

The superintendent would call one of the prisoners to his office everyday and spend ten minutes talking to him. One day it was Kannayya’s turn, while he was in the carpentry shed.

Kannayya found the officer who bent his head reading. The moment the convict entered, he put down his reading.

“Are you Kannayya?”

“Yes, babugaru!”

(‘chitam’ which is really ‘chittam’ a word denoting the expression of abject slavery to the lord, or the master. Babugaru can be ‘Sir’ also but the actual words the character used are best retained.)

“No need to hold your hands bent together on your chest. You can put your hands down.”

Kannayya wondered how the officer knew that he had folded his hands on his chest. It was a sign of deep respect.

“Did you learn anything after coming here, any work, craft, or something?”

“Chittam, I learnt the work of a carpenter!!”

“Did you ever repent for doing what you had done to deserve being sent here?”

“But I haven’t done anything wrong, babu garu.”

“Don’t you know telling a lie is wrong?”

-Kannayya couldn’t restrain his tears.
“Kannayya,” the superintendent paused a while to note the reaction in the convict’s face. 
“Repentance shows the emergence of good. There’s no point in arguing that you did nothing wrong even after conviction.”

“Forgive me, master! I haven’t done anything. I told them all. But none ever believed me. I swear by my mother, I haven’t done anything wrong.”

The superintendent pressed the buzzer and went to the window. Kannayya found himself shivering. Someone came into the room.

“Get me the judgement copy on this man!” The superintendent said.

Kannayya was at a loss to know what was going to happen to him. The sentry took a look at him and went out, his face stony.

In a minute the man brought a file and the officer sat in his chair and bent on the papers. Kannayya, bewildered, stood like a statue.

“You said you were never believed. What did you tell them, I mean, the court?”

“About what, sir?”

“About the crime.”

“I haven’t done anything wrong. I went into the master’s field to do the work. When the master’s son was trying to molest Rangamma’s daughter, I tried to save the girl and took his hand and twisted it. The bone, they said, was broken. I was asked to attend the court several times. My old mother was frightened. They showed her a knife and asked her if it was my father’s. Out of fear she nodded in agreement. They asked me if I had stolen money. I said I didn’t. But this prison, I couldn’t avoid. I don’t know what you are saying. Is it right to accept that I did something which I really have not? I am prepared to do whatever you want me to do. But I cannot agree that I did it. You are the lord of dharma. I will do as you order me to do.”

(This is not at difficult)
Kannayya did not hesitate to tell what he wanted to - all in a rush.

The buzzer sounded again and he was taken out.

- “Whatever did the lord (the original word is ‘dora’) say?” Eagerly gathered round him, the other convicts questioned him.

“I was asked why I came there and then I answered. He didn’t believe me. You too didn’t believe me either, did you?”

“You fool! You are a real fool. If you haven’t done anything why are you here?”

“Did it take so long for you to say these two words?!” Someone expressed his own surprise.

“I thought that you had broken down there after being beaten.”

They all broke into loud laughter.

(The word lord is for ‘dora’ meaning the master, one of higher birth. The conversation between men of the same kind, all serving a sentence in jail did not raise any problems at all).

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Karunkar Rao, the superintendent of the jail, read the entire file for a third time. There was no chance to find fault with the judgment. But then he heard something about the convict extra-ordinary from the carpentry instructor. The warders told him something and then he had the reports of the earlier superintendent.

It was his duty to look after the general welfare of the prisoners, to keep them disciplined, to make them realize their own folly, slowly though, and then see that their time and the State’s money spent on them were not wasted. It would be a good thing if the prisoner leaves to become a useful citizen after serving his sentence according to the law.
He sat down to his meal, thoughts eddying in his mind. Suddenly he said: “The process of law is not my concern. But a greater commitment to a higher value urges me to transcend my duty as an officer. Tell me, my dear, is there a death more heinous than that of not being able to do what you really want to do rightfully.”

“If I consider it not my official duty to do what I ought to do as a human being I’d do it. I can proudly assert that to secure justice to a fellow being is well within the purview of my professional duty too. But let me know what it is that’s weighing on your mind.”

“Perhaps for you, the dad and daughter, meal time is the only time for all kinds of discussions!” The superintendent’s wife said pouting.

Karuna casting a glance at his wife sighed.

Reaching for the supari his daughter produced before him, Karunakar said: “Let’s go to my office!”

-“Here’s the copy of a judgment I got. Go through it carefully,” he said hanging his coat on the back of his chair.

Vanajakshi went through the papers quickly and said: “When the murder and theft are only attempted, perhaps the judgment appears to be a little severe.”

“Whatever I may feel within, I can’t quarrel with a judgment.”

“You mean the convict is not guilty? If it were so why didn’t he prefer an appeal?

“Because justice is expensive; because it needs money. No convict would go on asserting time and again that he is not guilty, except when he is nuts. I talked to the man and this is the first time in my twenty-five years of service that a thing like this happened. I couldn’t look into his eyes longer than I did. He was staring into my eyes with a strange glint.” … The jail superintendent paused as though thinking and weighing the various ways of expressing what he wanted to say. After some time he said: “You say proudly that it is your moral duty to get justice done to a fellow human being. Think if there’s anything you can do for this Kannayya.”
“Let me go through the file once again,” said Vanaja and took it from her father.

Plaintiff: Resident of Yellamanchili, Gangaraju, son of Kannamnaiду …

She suddenly remembered the lout with locks on his forehead. She thought for a while and asked “Can I see the convict for a moment?”

“You certainly can, during the specified visitor’s hours, on due application.”

The daughter was not surprised. She only said: “Can I have a piece of paper?”.

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After Vanaja waited for a few minutes, a couple of sentries brought Kannayya. It was ten minutes past five in the evening.

“Are you Kannayya?”

“Yes, ammagaru.”

(Ammagaru, is respected mother, a usual word of reference to a lady of the upper class)

“You haven’t committed any offence? Did you?”

“No, ammagaru. I have not done anything wrong. I swear by my mother now in heaven.”

“You tell me what had happened. We have only a short time: I can’t come to you again.”

Kannayya narrated the sequence of events right from his going to the field till he was convicted. Vanaja could understand this quickly. There was none to argue in his defense; he scarcely understood the charges and his answers were found irrelevant and for the court he sounded arrogant. “I’ll get the case reopened. Don’t lose heart. People may think that justice is blind but the statute is made to protect the innocent…” she stopped suddenly realizing that what she had been saying went above the poor fellow’s head.
She reworded her consolatory words and assured him that she would try her best to see justice done.

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It took some time for the case to be reopened. Naidu and his son were served summons. Naidu rushed to Visakhapatnam and employed for his protection a very senior lawyer who undertook criminal cases. Vanaja prepared her case under the guidance of a very old lawyer who retired and gave up practice years ago. She produced Rangi and her daughter in the court and the court was apprised of the real sequence of events. It took quite a long time for the hearing to conclude but the witness of a woman testified to Naidu’s complicity in liquor traffic and other criminal activities. Two men who were beaten by the drunken Gangulu bore witness to his criminal activities too. She proved that Kannayya did not commit any of the crimes he had been charged with. Gangulu’s doctor who treated his fracture testified that Gangulu came with a fractured bone telling him that a bull hurt him in the field. The knife was testified by the old woman as her husband’s, without her knowing why the question was asked. She explained to the court that the mother and son were uneducated and they were bamboozled.

Some *khaidis* too were produced in the court to testify to Kannayya’s innocence. Kondi in his characteristic manner took the opportunity to explain his own assessment of the way justice was administered and only on the admonition of the court could he be stopped.

At the end of the hearing the court examined the file notes of the jail superintendent himself and ordered the release of Kannayya.

Seeing the befuddlement in the eyes of Gangulu, Vanajakshi heaved out a long sigh and walked towards her car. Outside Karunakar Rao had been waiting for his daughter.

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A tattered shirt, a pair of trousers some sizes bigger and twenty-five rupees in his pocket, Kannayya set out to the carpentry instructor’s house. In three days he could find work in one Adiseshayya’s house. He was asked to stay in a garage converted into a room. The cook in the
house used to serve him his meals outside on the kitchen verandah. It was a big house and there were two in the house - a widower and his daughter- Vinodini. The young woman’s husband had been away in the US and he would return after a two-year assignment there. Briefly, the father and daughter explained to him the chores he had to attend.

Kannayya called Vinodini, *chinnamma*, the little mother. In a few days she became his guardian angel and he took great care of her. She would stand while he went about his work. He would say: “Well, why do you stand out here in the hot sun, little mother! You go in and I’d do all the work to your satisfaction.” But she liked standing watching him at work.

-Kannayya got a letter written to his people in the small town. On getting a reply he told Vinodini of his intention to go to his place for a few days. He told her of his aunt, Rangammatta and her daughter Rangi, who was a victim of Gangulu. He was given leave to visit his people and some money too for his expenses.

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Rangi embraced Kannayya only after a ritual practice: turning around his face a little salt and two dried *mirch* in a bid to ward off all evil.

Rangi appeared with a hair-bun beautifully done with a string of jasmines tucked in it. Kannayya was struck speechless with her glorious appearance. She was in the best of her health with a glow he never saw before in those big eyes. He couldn’t take his off from her eyes.

“If only my sister-in-law were living to-day! That scoundrel had an eye on my little one and committed this atrocity. Anyway isn’t there God with an eye that’s as big as a basket! My dear young fellow! You could come out of the tiger’s mouth. Listen to me. My daughter has come of age and days are not all that good. You tie the knot and I can breathe my last in peace. You’d all be fine by the grace of goddess Mutyalamma.”

Listening to this Rangi ran into the backyard beneath the *Badam* tree.
They had a lot to talk about for the rest of the day. Rangi served Kannayya his night meal very early. She explained saying: ‘He had a tedious journey’. Kannayya wanted to sleep in the open under the Badam tree. Rangi brought a country twine-cot and made a bed for him. Rangi and her daughter slept in the hut.

The moonlight fell on the cot through the Badam leaves. The grass sparkled in moonshine. Kannayya, a free man now, was looking at the moon forgetting all his sorrows and tribulations. It was difficult to get any sleep. However hard he tried, sleep had been eluding him. He heard the soft tinkle of bangles and sat up.

“Come Rangi, come! Sit down!”

When she was hesitant he took her hand and drew her to his side on the cot.

“What’s it that is sparkling?”

“It’s a piece of glass reflecting the moonlight!” Rangi said laughing.

“I thought it was a miracle!” replied Kannayya and both broke into tingling laughter.

They returned to the cot and sat down.

“Why do you sit silent like that?” asked Kannayya.

“What do you want me to say?”

“All that happened when I’d been away, lost!”

“Don’t say that …”

“Rangi, do you really like marrying me? We’d take atta too with us.”

“…  …  …”

“Why are you silent? Don’t you love me?’

“It’s your will, mava! How can you expect a girl to reply to such a question?”
(Atta is the term of relationship – father’s sister or the mother-in-law. Mava is mother’s brother could be the term for husband too. Terms of relationship are best retained – even a footnote would be all right. A number of footnotes would slow down the reading.)

Kannayya made bold and took her into his arms. She forgot herself for a few moments and said: “Someone’s coming!”

(Normally a ruse by the woman to get free from the man’s embrace or something like that.)

He let her go and she ran into the hut, laughing merrily.

Kannayya left the next morning asking Rangi to have a word with the brahmin to fix the muhurat.

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“You have gone to your place. Is it to look for a bride?” Vinodini asked him with a glint in her eyes.

Kannayya was about to sharpen his chisel on a grinding stone.

“You always joke, little mother! You seem to be waiting for the little father’s letter. Has it come?”

“He wouldn’t be thinking of us. He has so much to do there!”

“Little mother, a drop of oil!

“I’d get you,” she went into the house.

She handed him a bottle of hair oil.

“Why this? This is sweet smelling.”

“It’s all right. Keep it. I’d buy another.”

“As you say!”
“Call me by my name, you can call me Vinodinigaru.”

Kannayya looked up, his eyes full of surprise. She looked into his eyes with a mischievous smile.

He bent down his head to his work spilling a drop of oil and grinding the chisel pressing it with his forefingers on the round stone.

Vinodini was all eyes at the strong rounded biceps of the dark young man.

Kannayya raised the tip of the chisel to his eye level and examined its sharpness with his finger.

He wiped the oil on a piece of cloth. The chisel-end sparkled.

“Kannayya, come up to my room. You can do this later. You have to mend the cot a little!”

-Kannayya was captivated by the perfume in the room.

“What’s this smell, little mother!”

“Kevda, mogali attar, see this,” she opened the cabinet took out a small vial and smudged a little perfume on his vest.

(“Little Mother’ is a respectful term for the young lady in the house. Kannayya’s words and the employer’s daughter Vinodini’s words are clear signs of things to happen.)

Kannayya looked round. On three sides there were windows and curtains to filter the sunlight when it entered. On one side there were a couple of cots with beds made.

The ‘little father’ (the son-in-law of the house, Vinodini’s husband) on the wall from the framed photograph appeared to be smiling at him.

“Look here!” Vinodini said and sat on the spring bed and showed how to bounce on it. “Do you know how irritating it is when it creaks when I turn on the bed?”
“I’d set it right in a moment!”

Kannayya was about to fold the mattress but then she said there was time for that. From the cupboard she took out a book and asked him to come near. When he went near she showed him a picture.

“Oh, little mother! These are bad…”

“Don’t be foolish! See this!”

(Obviously the pictures shown are pornographic and the young man is not titillated.)

Kannayya’s heart went pit a pat.

“Do you know how much this album cost us? Five-hundred rupees. We got it from Bombay!”

She was showing another and Kannayya’s legs tottered. She dragged him on to herself on the bed.

“Please, Kannayya, don’t say no, at least for this once!”

He couldn’t utter a word.

“You are foolish. Whoever is here?”

Kannayya could only point his finger to the photograph on the wall.

“Nobody minds these small things out there in America,” she went on but Kannayya was struggling to free himself. In the scuffle the pallu of her sari came off and he couldn’t help staring. As soon as her quest began, he threw her off her balance and came down the stairs.

He threw his instruments in the shed and drew the door close.

She followed him down calling out, “Please Kannayya, don’t go …”

Even after he had gone out of the gate she went on calling him.
What should he do now? Should he tell his carpentry teacher in the town? This kind of thing … Wouldn’t it be demeaning her, the little mother! No he shouldn’t. What would he get by that?

Suppose he vacated the shed and left?

‘If he married Rangi and returned with her to his work?’ He mulled. ‘She would be with him and then she wouldn’t dare …’

He got into a train.

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Karunakar Rao was in his drawing room reading the morning paper. The telephone rang. He looked a little peeved and lifted the receiver.


(This is Karunakar Rao’s habitual speech in English.)

Karunakar Rao was in a dilemma. Should he tell his daughter that Kannayya had been arrested on the charge of stealing a diamond necklace from his employer’s house?

-Putting his conviction behind the bars of his own conscience, telling himself that justice was not his responsibility, he heaved out a long sigh and got up.

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Logistics of Handling Literary Translation - II

V.V.B.Rama Rao, Ph.D

Literary Translation is passionate pain.

There cannot always be a one-to-one correspondence between the source and target languages. The difficulties, problems and impossibilities are many. It is not because the practitioners are not consummate in their skills. The path is not smooth always. It is stony and thorny and the path would have boulders and thorns and one has to go round, climb or change the direction to some extent to reach the goal. Cultural variations, dialect multiplicity and things like proverbs present major difficulties. The proverbial phrase compounds in Telugu do not have equivalents or suggestive similarities in English. There is a very often used sentence in Telugu while narrating a story: Katha kanchiki – manam intiki – which brings in Kanchi – possibly Kanjeevaram, the abode of Goddess Meenakshi in Tamilnadu. The story, it would be said, would go there, to Kanchi, (i.e., end) and we homeward. A practitioner friend of man rendered this title as ‘The story that missed the bus’. This is surely one way to jump over the boulder and in this case the reader of English who knows Telugu would do well to accept it with a large heart without cavilling.

Experience is personal and individual

In my earlier essay on logistics I tried to show how I attempted to convey both the flow and the flavour of the source language in my rendering. (I may be permitted to say that I always preferred ‘free rendering’ to ‘literary translation’ for fear of professors of Applied Linguistics with their scientific theories). In the land of Telugu speaking people, there are culture-based varieties and variations as well all society-based dialectical differences. And then words like ‘Dalit’ have serious connotations and when talking about social classes it is desirable to talk of the toilers, underprivileged, down trodden and depressed. (In civilized dialogue caste is taboo.)

Practitioner’s pious obligations

For the practitioner it is a matter of duty to present the different dialect variants in persons of the depressed strata of society. The practised speech in the higher level of language is not obtained in the speech of the poor, underprivileged toilers in rural areas and of such even living in towns and cities. Sometimes the dialect of these is used for not always unjustifiable humour.

Some Specific examples

Practitioners sometimes need to portray the life and language of these characters. North coastal Andhra, particularly Srikakulam and Vizianagaram Districts have a different dialect which is not different from those in the Godavari districts or Telengana regions. These regional rural
idiolects are varied sometimes leading occasionally even to communication breakdown. Here is an attempt to show how this could be done to preserve the cultural, social, dialect variations and make the narrative flowing and carrying the flavour. The variants may be named special ‘idiolects’ with no denigration intended. These too may be found in the educated and the uneducated. Here is a story with North Coastal Andhra rural idiolect. The characters are rural, not educated but with a strong moral sense. The story was published in Andhra Prabha Weekly 22-1-1986.

The translated story in its entirety

‘Don’t blame or say anything to her!’

‘I wouldn’t go, that’s it. … Don’t blame me … something is happening in me …I’m not able to see… my eyes are seeing black shades, legs are tottering… I’m not well at all. Don’t blame me.’ Gairamma told her mother firmly.

(Gairamma is for Gouri)

‘What is happening? The little girl sat down helplessly. What can I do bagamantuda?’ Appayyamma moaned in distress her heart soaked with love.

(Appayyamma is Gauri’s mother and Asirayya, her father. Bagamantuda is the expression Oh, God!)

‘Yeh! Why are you getting upset like that! Perhaps she felt homesick and wanted to see her natal home. Came here running. Where is the muhurat to go back today? She’d stay for two half-days here and go back. Why do you become powder for this?’ Asirayya puffed at his cheroot and making sure it went out threw it away to the corner of the makeshift fence before their hut)

(Muhurat is auspicious time – usually fixed by an elder. ‘Become powder’ is to be anxious, worried or badly agitated.)

Gairamma held her head between her knees and sat looking at the cow-dung washed mud floor.

‘What is happening to you, little mother, tell me … feeling weak? Perhaps she has gone with child!

Her anger vanished, worry disappeared too and Appayyamma began again: ‘Whatever happened, dear? Any good news. .. why don’t you tell me? She asked with affection.

(The nuance is ‘have you missed your periods?’)
'No such thing. Keep shut. While I am feeling like death coming, why do you bother me?'

‘Oh, keep silent … You go get some hot water for me, the little girl would massage my legs with oil … my legs are hurting me… go, my littler mother; I’d take birth from you next…’ The sick man pleaded.

‘Die! Right but do you really wish to be born to this little girl! She would not go to her husband and I am struggling and trying my best to must all my strength … I went there with this girl giving the all I could and again this girl has come back. Don’t you know how many times this has happened? Would your leg aches ever go … What is important your pain or her married life?’ Have I not ‘Is she a kid? Appayamma grew wild and went on: ‘Have I not come here as a little girl, went to my parents for a festival or two and sometimes didn’t go at all. When once we got her married, why should she come here like this? Whatever you may say, what ever play acting she does, she must go. If the one who should be there is here people would start asking, asking questions and spreading canards making my stomach turn. Did we ever face words like those? Though her staying here does not hurt us, for those who see us, it would not. You must start in the morning train,’ said the angered mother.

(Telugu festivals aaviti and sankranti are important for the village folk. Aviti is more important for showing respect to manes, presenting new clothes and it is a family meet.)

Putting away all the earthen bowls and cooking pots in their places and taking up a pot she went out to the water tap at the end of the street.

In Asirayya’s eyes tears eddied. Seeing his daughter, he said: Gairee… she went away telling us that she wouldn’t hear any more of what we say… Listen to her. She is having her concern. She has a good manas is. Isn’t she worried about you alone?

(Manas cannot be translated into a single word. It is mind-heart and sometimes thinking and even intellect.)

‘Stay silent saying nothing, ayya.’ Gairee stood up and picked up a small bottle from the corner. ‘What is this? No oil in it. … I’d go and get a quarter rupee’s’. Bending into half she emerged out of the hut and walked fast on the path.

Asirayya felt chill and had shivers. Bending and turning on the string cot, he tried to reach the earthen bowl where a little fire was kept with burning charcoal in the paddy husk. The bowl is a little warm though there is no fire in it. The fire must have gone out long ago. The words of his woman near the water tap are being heard.

‘We gave her half of a tola of gold, a brass water pitcher, some aluminium cooking utensils and plates. We too all these and left our girl there. Still, why is she not staying there? Those are
good people. Asked if there has been a squabble, she says there’s nothing of that sort. They have a little landed property; they grow two bags of mirch and ground nut two. They have a buffalo and four goats. When there are rains and busy work on the fields this girl has come away. Why should she come running away like that in this season? His knee pains are not new. Last time when she came I bought a saree too … why can’t she go back silently? Nanitamma put in her hand a five rupee note asking her to buy bangles.

(Tola is a measure of weight of about 11.6 grams. Mirch is Chilly, Nanitamma is Lalitamma, the revenue officer’s wife who is a friend of Gauri’s and generally respected by all in the village.)

‘If it is so, Appayamma, Wouldn’t your sambandhi say anything? Luckily your son-in-law man… otherwise she would get into trouble, be careful! Any what does he say?’

‘What would he say, if this girl comes rushing here with a love for her natal home?’

‘Did you light your fire for cooking?’ asked woman bringing a pitcher to take water and Appayamma lifted her pitcher to her head.

It is getting dark. Appayamma brought some burning coal and lit her earthen stove.

Asirayya lit his cheroot.

‘Gairee… why do you sit there like that? Wouldn’t you rise and do up your hair? I’d rub oil on his legs. He would never be satisfied. Darkness is falling… get up …I’d do it. Go and wash your face.’

Gairamma rose up slowly.

“Orayyya … I’m getting jittery’, said Appayamma. “didn’t she come away raising a rumpus there?”

‘Oh, no, does she know anything like that? Wouldn’t a young girl come to her natal home’

‘Not like that … I’m frightened. If some one were to ask ‘Why didn’t your go back’. What can I say? … You know how respected we are in the gudem. Didn’t we resolve many a problem? Didn’t we resolve the crisis when Yarakayya’s wife suffered injustice? Aren’t they living happily now? If your girl hasn’t told me what the problem is how can I ever know about it? Perhaps she told her friend Paramma.’ Saying this Appayamma got up suddenly and walked out briskly not answering her husband’s queries from his cot.

(Gudem is a small hamlet on the outskirts of a village where the poor live in small huts.)
Paramma and Gairee are childhood friends. But Paramma is slightly older. She got married and went to live with her husband. After about six months the man fell ill and his disease got worse and he died. Many told her parents to marry her off again. But, Paramma was adamant. She refused to marry again. She has been working as a maid in the Revenue Inspector’s house. His daughter began teaching her reading and writing and put ideas of rectitude and things like saying that marriage is just once for a woman. Gairee would talk at length to Paramma. She imbibed the educated girl’s ideas.

Women in the street say that Paramma did not listen to anybody when they brought up the idea of marrying again. She would say firmly ‘Taali is only once. Morality is just the same for everyone. My life has turned like this. But Marriage alone is not life and living. God above is there for everything.’

Appayyamma was surprised that such a young woman should speak like that,

‘Anyway, Paramma is a straightforward girl. If asked for anything she would do anything even would sacrifice her life for others’ good.

Appayyamma called her standing outside her hut.

‘She went to the big street’s house. Someone is coming there perhaps to take a look at their daughter. All the busy work is entrusted to Paramma. Sister-in-law, your daughter has come ... What news! What not come in, why are you standing outside?’

‘My husband’s legs are stiff and I want to take my daughter to her in-laws but she is not ready to go. … Come in, daughter-in-law ... you say bride-looking would we get any sweets?’

Bride looking is a visit of the groom’s people to have a look see of the young bride-to-be

‘Why did you come running? What is Gairee doing? What visit is that for ‘looks’? They demanded a dowry etc., of twenty-five thousand. The young girl’s mother sat down in discomfiture. ‘

Appayyamma thought that it was the best time to ask. She sat on the cot lowered by Paramma and thought of asking her the moment Paramma’s mother left the place.

‘Did she tell you anything? Any girl would jump in joy to go her hubby’s place. Why is our Gairamma not eager to go … very young husband…’ She wanted to say something more but having looked at Paramma’s face she kept quiet. How older is Paramma after all.

‘Let it be atta. Let her be here for some more days. Let her be convinced.’
'What is there? Did she say or anything? Should she not tell me the mother who had borne her?'

‘No, don’t make it a noisy issue. After all what is there to tell you?’

‘You talked about the teaching of manas. Did those people do or say anything? How would I act if she does not tell me anything? Mother, mother, I’d die and be born to you. Those people know about us. I cannot stay put if the say anything. What happened? Tell me.’

‘Nothing happened,’ Paramma said slowly.

‘If you don’t tell me it would be like killing and eating me.’

‘Don’t use such strong words. Our people are anxious to give our girls in marriage but is it not necessary to see what that family is and how the groom’s health is?

Appayyamma felt like a thorn piercing her. Among those who fixed the match she was one. She is not ignorant as not to understand what the young woman said. The hit unsaid is that it the health condition of the groom was not checked before the wedding.

Paramma realized that she had hurt Appayyamma. She said:’ my fate is this. Did he wish to die? .. He fell ill and dies. .. But what is wrong with this fellow? Though he has his wife in his home he has relation with another woman much elder and not in a permissible relationship. If asked by his wife he would say that she does not know anything. What more should she know? They are living together and doesn’t she know what is foul work is? … As that girl (the Revenue Inspector’s daughter) said what is relationship etc for a beast? What is age and what is shame? … Would we hang bones on our neck though we do eat mutton? He pain is hers. Don’t blame or bother her for some time.’

Appayyamma did not stop even for a minute. She rose like an ignited fire work that zooms towards the sky.

‘Olamma, Olamma, what injustice and what villainy!’

(This is an expression of both pain and the surprise about the wrong doing of some.)

Paramma was frightened to see the old woman like a burning cracker and she was a little ashamed too to have hurt her.

‘Atta , what use is to have a squabble for things like these? If they are immoral, we have only to be silent as if we have not seen or known about the goings on. If we reveal these the shames is on us too. That big house girl says that Gairee must be brave and work to be on her own feet.
One should not keep mum thinking that it is one’s own punya. One should rebel and hit back: that would be a consolation and satisfaction.’

When Paramma was repeating her praise of the big street girl, Appayamma did not wish to hear anything more. She went into her hut with bagfuls of thoughts, dignified and grave and concentrated on cooking food.

‘Where did you go?’ Asirayya asked. He knew that his wife wouldn’t stay put.

‘Come, I’d serve you food.’ When the mother said this and began filling the plate for her Gairee, looking into her mother’s eyes got agitated. She started eating.

‘What is that eating? Eat well. Only those whose actions are beneath the caste honour and pride should be afraid of anything. Why should you fear?’

The young woman looked at her mother with his eyes filled with wonder and Appayamma burst out noticing this

-It was no day break but Appayamma set out saying: ‘Don’t look for me.’

Asirayya is still asleep. Alighting from the train with hands moving forward and backward (in an army man’s drill) with dignity she walked full kos and when the sun rise a length of two hands she stepped before her sambandhi’s house.

( Punya is merit. Sambandhi relationship indicates the link between the bride and groom’s parents. Kos is about two and a half-mile distance.)

‘Vadina!’ She roared.

(Atta is mother-in-law or aunty; vadina is elder brother’s wife or sambandhi)

‘Olamma! Appayamma! Where is the young woman?’

‘Don’t you know where she is? Your son has been rollicking openly with a woman older then himself and one with no acceptable relationship. What need is there for him for my daughter since he has another woman for him? I don’t like the play acting

We are people who solved many a dispute in matters related to weddings. We counselled people and fought for justice. We are not those who promote enmities.’

‘What is it? What are you saying?’

‘You ask me!? Where is that man?’
‘Went to the town, he hasn’t come back in the night. I thought that he came to your house,’ said the woman with innocence.

‘He hasn’t. I came here to dissolve my daughter’s relationship with your son. What I am objecting to is not something you don’t know. I did not have eyes but my daughter has a manas (mind-heart). I came to know that just a little ago. Whatever have we given keep it all yourself. If you want to have a ‘trial’ come to our place, tell our village elders and take the girl back if they judge that she must go to her husband. I give you three days’ time. On the fourth day if I don’t find a husband for my daughter my name is not Appayyamma any longer. I’m not even Asirayya’s wife.’

In that street there are twenty dwellings on each side. Since it is breakfast time all men and women are in their huts.

Appayyamma’s loud angry words slapped the backs of all and all came out to listen what is going on.

Seeing the gathering with tears in her eyes Appayyamma told them all what she wanted to say. Experience told her that there would be no point in stoking the fire of a quarrel. What she would do she told all. There was no answer from anyone.

She turned round quickly and none in the street made any attempt to stop or, greet or question her. None tried to assuage her grief or show her any sympathy for the injustice. Nobody took ‘vakalat’ either to her or the ones in their village.

After she walked for half a furlong her son-in-law appeared. There was a woman by his side.

“Attā!” the young man said.

‘Who are you? Am I your atta?... Is this the shameless woman who threw fire and ashes on my daughter’s life? (She went of rebuking the woman calling her harlot etc.) I told your mother... After three days if you do not come to take my daughter after meeting the elders respectfully and stop dallying shamelessly with this woman, you are not anything to us. Lack of food or poverty does not mean lack of respectability and morality. You, shameless dancer, who are you? What is your connection with this man? With him you spent the night in the town ... you shameless harlot...’

Spitting out vehemently with disgust Appayyamma walked forward not looking back.

She returned home like a hurricane. Yesterday’s peace, calm and yesterday’s confidence just disappeared. She broke out again:
‘May his hair be shred! May his injustice perish! That man may be eating grass but why should that buffalo of a woman have decency … big is she with brawn and fat… woman who has given up all sense of shame… She would even sleep with a man on the road.’

Asirayya asked: ‘What is all this?’

‘The great service you have rendered. I saw that with my own eyes. Now you look for another match for my girl. If that fellow is promenading with that shameless woman … why should she care for him? I gave him three days’ time. Within a month’s time I’d marry her off again. … Not within three days, he wouldn’t come even in three years. … Such shameless fellow would even kill my water if she goes there. That woman is like buffalo after which has two calves I wouldn’t send there even if she wants to go.’

Asirayya kept mum.

‘If you can, come rouse an argument and take an agreement and take her away, I told him. … All the men and women in the street kept seeing the wonder. But none interfered and none asked about the quarrel. I know what his courage is. But sending the girl to such a house is like destroying her which I would not do. It would be like cutting off her head.’

Appayyamma went muttering in a low voice.

-When it was sundown Gairee came in with a carrier ammayi garu gave her.

(Ammayi garu, is a respectful way of referring to the Revenue Inspector’s daughter.)

‘My mother, my mother!’ said the distressed mother to her daughter. She continued further and said ‘I have seen with my own eyes. None in the street bothered to the wretched crime or asked me any question. … Aren’t morality and justice dead? …

Don’t fesr. My mother’s younger sister’s son is working in a mill in Komatipalli.

I’d send word to him and fix the marriage.’

‘For whom would you fix a marriage? If he is without morality or a sense of caste pride would we bite grass? My marriage is performed and now it got burnt. Would I die if I have no husband? He is a man with no morals. Yes. But what are we? For a woman there is marriage only once. … Never ask me to marry again. If you do I’d hang myself.’

Picking out a burning faggot from the corner she broke into two noisily and put it in the burning fire.
'What, you left him and came away: I didn’t say anything. What if he gone? We can find a good man now … Whatever he might have thought of Appayyamma, he doesn’t know what I could be and what my ability is.’ Appayyamma said in a loud voice.

‘Don’t say anything…” Asirayya roared.

Appayyamma remained standing looking at her husband and her daughter turning her eyes to one and the other.

‘Ammai garu said that she would teach me reading and writing. Till now I was in their house. Don’t say anything more to me. Isn’t morality the same for man and woman? What would I have done if he’s dead? Having a manas people should be bound by morality. That is what our elders said always.

The young woman’s eyes were brilliantly sparkling.

Appayyamma remained motionless wondering if it was her own daughter that was speaking.

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