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Contents

TBLT in China (2001-2011): the current situation: Predicament and future, 147-155

Luo Shaoqian, *Beijing Normal University & Yi Baoshu Anhui Agricultural University, China*

The motivational model of young Japanese EFL learners: after getting lessons by homeroom teachers, 156-167

Rie adachi, *Aichi University of Technology, Japan*

Developing academic writing in a business oriented university, 168-186

J.A. Foley, *Graduate School of English, Assumption University, Thailand*

The implementation of English-only policy in the tertiary EFL context in Taiwan, 187-198

David Dirkwen Wei, *Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, Taiwan*

Narrative structures across tellings of the same “good” teaching experience 199-215

Joseph Ernest Mambu, *Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga*

A case study of formative assessment in a Chinese sigh school, 216-225

Ying Tang, *Shenzhen city Xin'an Middle School, China*

Teachers' strategy in implementing English curriculum in a junior high school in Indonesia, 226-235

R. Intansari, *Indonesia University of Education, Bandung*

The acquisition of multiple interrogatives by Indonesian speakers, 236-249

Eri kurniawan, *Indonesia University of Education, Bandung*

How English student teachers deal with teaching difficulties in their teaching practicum, 250-261

Riesky, *Indonesia University of Education, Bandung*

Critical discourse analysis: theory and method in social and literary framework, 262-274

Roma Ulinuha, Wening Udasmoro & Yahya Wijaya, *State Islamic University of Sunan Kalijaga, Yogyakarta*

Mentor coaching to help pre-service teachers in designing an effective lesson plan, 275-280

Lulu Laela Amalia & Ernie D. A. Imperiani, *Indonesia University of Education*

Follow-up responses to refusals by indonesian learners of english as a foreign language, 281-293

R. Dian D. Muniroh, *Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung*

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TBLT IN CHINA (2001-2011): THE CURRENT SITUATION, PREDICAMENT AND FUTURE

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Abstract: With the reform of English education in China since 2001, a communicative and task-based language teaching has emerged into Chinese English classroom. To understand task-based language teaching (TBLT) practice in China, a synthesis study was conducted to analyze the current situation and predicament of TBLT in China over the last ten years based on the published TBLT articles (2001-2011) in Chinese journals and educational newspapers. The study shows that there is questioning and criticism on the effectiveness of TBLT in the foreign language teaching classes despite the amazing growth of research in TBLT in China. It is also found that the predicament of TBLT may be attributable to a variety of factors, such as no professional and systematic training TBLT for teachers, little knowledge of the latest development of TBLT, differences in student English proficiency, gap between local educational levels, no enough educational funds as well as misunderstanding and mispractice of TBLT. Thus, how to appropriately adapt and localize TBLT in China has become the major concern of researchers and educators as well as teachers. To solve the problem, this paper puts forward some suggestions to localize TBLT in the Chinese context, which is concerned with: (1) task design; (2) integrating target tasks and pedagogical tasks; (3) balance between meaning and form; (4) tasks for big classes; (5) developing school-based textbooks; and (6) combining tasks and other teaching principles. Such a context-based approach to TBLT could provide a reference for other contexts similar to China.

Key words: TBLT in China; the predicament; the Chinese context

Abstrak: Bersamaan dengan reformasi pendidikan bahasa Inggris di Cina sejak tahun 2001, pengajaran bahasa komunikatif dan berbasis tugas (TBLT) telah muncul di kelas-kelas bahasa Inggris Cina. Untuk memahami praktek pengajaran TBLT di Cina, sebuah kajian sintesa dilakukan untuk menganalisis situasi dan rintangan terkini TBLT di Cina selama sepuluh tahun terakhir ini berdasarkan artikel-artikel mengenai TBLT (2001-2011) yang diterbitkan di jurnal dan surat kabar pendidikan Cina. Kajian ini menunjukkan bahwa ada pertanyaan dan kritik terhadap efektivitas TBLT di kelas-kelas pengajaran bahasa asing, meskipun jumlah penelitian dalam TBLT di Cina mengalami pertumbuhan yang luar biasa. Ditemukan juga bahwa rintangan yang dihadapi TBLT bisa dikarenakan beragam faktor, seperti tidak adanya pelatihan yang profesional dan sistematis, sedikitnya pengetahuan tentang perkembangan terbaru dalam TBLT, perbedaan pada kecakapan bahasa Inggris siswa, jarak antara tingkatan pendidikan lokal, tidak cukupnya dana pendidikan juga kesalahpahaman dan kesalahan praktek TBLT. Karena itu, cara untuk mengadaptasi dan melokalkan TBLT di Cina telah menjadi perhatian utama para peneliti dan pendidik juga guru. Untuk mengatasi masalah tersebut, makalah ini memberikan beberapa saran untuk melokalkan TBLT dalam konteks Cina, yang menaruh perhatian pada: (1) rancangan tugas; (2) perpaduan tugas target dan tugas pedagogik; (3) keseimbangan antara makna dan bentuk; (4) tugas untuk kelas-kelas besar; (5) pengembangan buku teks berbasis sekolah; dan (6) penggabungan tugas dan prinsip-prinsip mengajar lainnya. Pendekatan kontekstual terhadap TBLT seperti itu bisa memberikan acuan untuk kontek-konteks lain yang sama dengan konteks di Cina.

Kata kunci: TBLT di Cina; hambatan; konteks Cina

With the development of TBLT in EFL/ESL since 1980s (Candlin, 1987; Ellis, 2003; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Nunan, 2006; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 2005; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Skehan, 1996, 1998, 2001, 2009), the research concerning TBLT in Pacific-Asian area is increasing simultaneously (Butler, 2011; Careless, 2007; Littlewood, 2007; Xiaotang & Shaoqian, 2009; Xiaotang, Ziwen, Shumei, 2007; Shaoqian, 2006, 2008, 2011; Yonghong, 2004). In 2011, the Ministry of Education (MoE) of China introduced the new National English Curriculum Standards (NECS), which advocated the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. In order to cultivate students' ability to do things with English, NECS has suggested that English teachers create real life situations and contexts as well as a variety of language teaching approaches and methods that emphasize both processes and products, such as task-based language teaching (MoE, 2011). Since then, the researchers and English teachers have started research on TBLT theories and practices from different perspectives with striking achievements. However, due to the constraints of traditional approaches to English education, the development of TBLT still faces many challenges and problems (Xiaotang & Shaoqian, 2009). Hence, some researchers and teachers are questioning whether or not TBLT is appropriate for foreign language teaching in China. Based on the analysis of relevant articles in the both academic journals and educational newspapers from 2001 to 2011, the current study attempts to investigate the current situation and predicament of TBLT in China with a suggestion of the reform and direction of TBLT in the future.

METHOD

In order to have an overview of the TBLT research and practice in China, we searched the Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) and obtained 2665 articles related to TBLT under the following searching conditions: Theme: TBLT; Model: accurate match; Areas all the academic journals and newspapers in linguistics; Databases: Chinese academic journal electronic publishing house and Chinese key newspaper full-text database; Range of time: 2001-2011. The 2665 articles were published between 2001 to 2011 in relevant academic journals and educational newspapers, among which there are 2650 in academic journals and 15 in educational newspapers.

A mix method of quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis was used in this synthesis study. Based on the statistic data of TBLT articles (2001-2011) searched in CNKI, the quantitative method aims to analyze the macro-situation of TBLT in China, and the qualitative method tends to analyze the current problems of TBLT from a micro perspective. With reference to the findings in the two analyses, a direction of reform in TBLT in the Chinese context is suggested.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In order to attain the current research situation in TBLT, based on the statistic data of TBLT articles published in the journals and educational newspapers between 2001 and 2011, further analysis is made regarding the number of articles published in each year (Table 1) and the types of journals in which the articles are published (Table 2).

Table 1. The time when articles about TBLT are published and the number

Time	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
In Journals	7	15	57	113	137	189	290	364	465	511	502
In Newspapers	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	9	0	0

Table 2. Types of journal articles

	Key journals	Ordinary journals	Supported by funds	High citation	High download
Number	221/8%	2429	315	34	14
		/92%	/12%	/1.2%	/0.53%

As it is shown in Table 1, the number of TBLT articles published in the journal is increasing annually. In 2001, there are only 7 TBLT articles in the journals, but the number increases to 511 in 2010, despite a slight decrease to 502 articles in 2011. However, as shown in Table 2, 92% of the TBLT articles are published in ordinary journals, instead of key journals. Only 8% of the articles are in the key journals, such as *Journal of Foreign Languages*, *Journal of Curriculum, Material and Method*, and *Foreign languages in China*. It should be pointed out that only 12% of the articles are supported by funds. Generally speaking, the researchers and

English teachers have an increasing interest in TBLT. In addition, the research areas extend from the introduction of TBLT theories to all the aspects of TBLT, including task-based reading, task-based writing, task-based testing, the effect of task features on task performance of learners, and the like. It is also clear that the researches in TBLT have not yet gained enough support from the governments.

In order to analyze the TBLT research situation in China from a qualitative perspective, the articles collected from CNKI are classified according to the research themes in TBLT (Table 3).

Table 3. The research themes of TBLT articles in China from 2001 to 2011

The themes	Representative articles (authors and issued time)
Introducing TBLT theories and Interpreting TBLT	Xiaoqing (2001), (2002); Ziwen, (2002); Yafu & Shaoqian (2003), etc.
The methods and approaches of task design in the elementary, high school and college.	Ziwen (2002); Wufang & Xiaoyan (2004); Xiqin (2004); Zhixin (2007); Weihua, (2007); Shaoqian, (2008), Yunhua (2010); Lina & Dawei (2011), etc.
Task-based reading, reading task design, application of reading tasks in the classroom setting	Yancong (2007); Baoshu (2006); Jinxia (2010); Yinping (2008), etc.
Task-based writing and the features of task-based writing; How is task-based writing carried out in the classroom?	Lu & Zhongjie (2010); Xiongying (2004); Fushou (2002).
Task-based assessment and Testing	Zihong (2009); Shaoqian (2006), (2009); Baochen (2003); Yanni (2009).
TBLT and teacher education; Teacher development in TBLT; The features of teacher professional development.	Shaoqian (2006); Wei & Shaoqian (2011); Hui (2007).
The effect of task features: task conditions, task difficulty and task complexity on the language production of Chinese English learners.	Huiyuan & Xudong (1998); Lianzhen & Ming (2003); Qian, (2009), etc.
The problems and difficulties of TBLT in China; The effectiveness of TBLT in China is questioned.	Pei (2009); Xiaotang & Shaoqian (2009); Jinguo (2008); Zengan, (2006); Weihua (2007); Qiufang (2004); Yao (2007), etc.

In the Chinese mainland, since the NECS was launched by the MoE in 2001, the researchers have started to introduce TBLT theories. Xiaoqing (2001), Ziwen (2002) and Yafu & Shaoqian (2002) are believed to be the pioneering advocators of TBLT in China. Xiaoqing (2001, 2002) introduced the sources of TBLT and how TBLT was practiced in the classroom setting. She held that TBLT was developed based on Prabhu's Bangalore

project. The experience from Bangalore project might help understand the source and theoretical background of TBLT. She claimed that since TBLT facilitated language acquisition, it was worthwhile to advocate TBLT in language teaching and learning. Yafu & Shaoqian (2003) suggested that we should understand TBLT theories from the perspectives of curriculum and constructivism, so that the teachers could better reflect their own

teaching methods. Yafu & Shaoqian (2006) and Xiaotang (2004) systematically introduced the theoretical backgrounds of TBLT, such as language acquisition, psycholinguistics, social constructivism, course theories, social-cultural theory and the interaction hypothesis in their own monographs respectively, which pave a firm foundation for introducing TBLT theory and practice systematically and comprehensively.

Authenticity plays an important role in task design. The representative studies include Xiqin (2004), Ziwen (2002), Weihua (2007), and Lin (2004). Ziwen (2002) claimed that in task-based language teaching, the first task was to design real life related activities and then present them to students who were, therefore, able to acquire knowledge and obtain learning ability by doing the tasks. Xiqin (2004) also held that authenticity was the basis and the starting point of task design. He considered it necessary to integrate authenticity and task design. Apart from authenticity, the sequence of tasks has drawn great attention of researchers. Wufang & Xiaoyan (2004) thought that TBLT focused on meaning with an aim to complete a communicative task; thus, tasks should be designed and sequenced according to the variation of complexity or difficulty. In addition, task design in the classroom includes an integration of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Yinping, 2008; Shaoqian, 2008; Baoshu, 2006; Jingxia, 2010). Shaoqian (2011) designed the PWP (pre-task phase, while-task phase and post-task phase) teaching process of listening, speaking, reading and writing respectively on the basis of TBLT models provided by Willis (1996), Skehan (1998) and Ellis (2003). She also designed some sample tasks, which could play an instructive role in task design of English teaching in the primary or middle schools.

In task-based language assessment (TBLA) and language testing, distinctive studies include Shaoqian (2009), Baocheng (2003), Yanni (2009), etc. Baocheng (2003) pointed out that TBLA became popular because people began to complain about the

traditional language assessments. Different from traditional language testing, which attaches great importance to language forms and skills, TBLA focuses on tasks and task performance of the testees. Han's work also involves how to design tasks and how to assess task performance of the testees. Shaoqian (2009) conducted research on task difficulty (a focus on TBLA) and constructed a new framework of task difficulty. She held that task difficulty could be sequenced to predict learners' language ability. According to her research results, there is a correlation between task difficulty and student competence. It is of great significance for task-based syllabus design in the Chinese context.

In relation to TBLA is the study of task features, such as task condition, task complexity and task difficulty, and how they affect language production of language learners (Huiyuan & Xudong, 1998; Lianzhen & Wangming, 2003; Qiang, 2009). Huiyuan & Xudong (1998) and Qian (2009) examined the effect of task difficulty, task type and task condition on the spoken and written language production of language learners in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity with the assistance of Levelt's spoken language production model. Lianzhen & Ming (2003) focused on the impact of task complexity, task difficulty and English proficiency on language production of language learners. However, these studies fail to discuss trade-off effect (Skehan, 2009).

TBLA has theoretically and practically impacted teacher development. It also exerts great influence on the roles of teachers in the classroom as well as the knowledge of teaching theories. Unfortunately, there is little attention to the area of the effect of TBLT on teacher development in the Chinese mainland (Shaoqian, 2006; Wei & Shaoqian, 2011; Hui, 2007). Hui (2007) analyzed how TBLT might bring a new challenge to foreign language teachers. Liuwei & Shaoqian (2011) further discussed the possibility of teacher education based on tasks, which were found to help teachers to take an active part in their professional development.

In spite of much research and practice of TBLT in Chinese EFL field, many researchers have been questioning the development of TBLT (Pei, 2009; Xiaotang & Shaoqian, 2009; Jinguo, 2008; Zengan, 2006; Qiufang, 2004). The first issue is that the development of TBLT textbooks really lags behind the increasing demand of language teaching on TBLT. It is rare to see a textbook that is truly based on the principles of task-based language learning and teaching. One of the few textbooks is *Go for It* of which Luo Shaoqian & Xin (2011) conducted a survey. They found that the *Go For It* series, to some degree, was not appropriate for some areas, especially rural areas in China. The level of the series is largely beyond the students' current English proficiency in these areas, where they are short of facilities and qualified teachers. Just as Lei Jinguo (2008) held that TBLT in remote areas was in a marginal position due to the unbalanced development in the countryside, Qiufang (2004) claimed that TBLT had striking weaknesses in China, in that the current teaching method was a presentation-based approach, i.e., the PPP approach, which focused on language forms, whereas TBLT was the other way round and started with production. Zengan (2006), therefore, suggested that TBLT should be placed at the stage of production of PPP. In addition, with the development of teaching reformation as well as National English Curriculum Standards, the English teachers' awareness of changing traditional teaching method becomes more and more vehement, but they lack the knowledge of TBLT (Pei, 2009). TBLT is criticized for just imitating and playing, ignoring information exchange, attaching too much importance to products instead of process, focusing on meaning instead of forms, and task design without purposes (Yao, 2007).

To summarize, it is clear that in the basic education of China, teachers' passion and motivation towards TBLT are still strong. Favoured by teachers and students, TBLT plays a positive role in teacher development and students' language use ability. By contrast,

TBLT has some problems in China: Teachers do not obtain professional and systematical training on TBLT, nor do they know the essence of TBLT practice and theory. Teachers in China can not follow the new development of TBLT promptly. There are also a variety of constraints, such as domestic educational systems and policies; unbalance of English Proficiency among students and unbalance of education in local areas; contradiction between TBLT and Chinese traditional testing culture; TBLT textbooks developing slowly; weak support from national educational funds, etc. All the aforementioned problems restrict the further development of TBLT in China. Therefore, many teachers and researchers begin to question and even resist TBLT in China.

The future direction of TBLT in China—to put TBLT in the Chinese context

As a further development of communicative language teaching, TBLT involves advanced teaching theories and principles. Since 2001, when the NECS (experimental version) was launched, TBLT has been accepted by teachers and students and has facilitated teacher development and language competence.

Therefore, despite the problems, TBLT is still necessary for EFL in the Chinese context and this approach has been put forward again in the revised NECS in 2011. Some researchers set out to make a study about how to localize and develop TBLT in China (e.g., Qiufang, 2004; Xiaotang & Shaoqian, 2009). Wen (2004) held that since TBLT entailed advanced teaching theories, it could not be refused but reformed to be in accordance with the reality of the foreign language education in China. Xiaotang & Shaoqian (2009) further pointed out that with an aim to solve the current problems of TBLT, TBLT was supposed to be modified to accord with the foreign language teaching environment in China.

Significance of TBLT in the Chinese context

TBLT in the Chinese context is of great significance in both theory and practice. Theoretically, TBLT in the Chinese context shows that the practice of strong version

task-based language teaching in China is of no possibility, while it proves the scientific aspect of the weak version task based language teaching, which focuses on meaning as well as form. Practically, TBLT in the Chinese context is able to take into full consideration the reality of the foreign language education in China as well as great influence that TBLT has exerted. It is believed to promote a further reformation of the foreign language teaching in China.

The approaches of TBLT in the Chinese context

In view of the advantages of TBLT in language teaching and the current reality of TBLT in China, some approaches are suggested in order to implement TBLT in the Chinese context. First, owing to the reality of EFL in China, the definition of task in China needs to be redefined. The weak-version of TBLT might be a more appropriate approach in China. Secondly, it is important to integrate target tasks and pedagogical tasks in designing and selecting tasks to meet various demands of the students. A third approach worth mentioning is the balance of meaning and form. It is noted that tasks are centered on meaning, which is fundamental in the communicative tasks. However, it should be pointed out that it is of great necessity to focus on some grammar points, words, phonetics and spellings and so on during three phases (pre-task phase, while-task phase and post-task phase), which may guarantee the successful completion of tasks by providing necessary language aids.

The fourth one is concerned about how to design tasks for a big class. A small class may not be practical in China, with such a large population but limited teaching facilities, which will not be improved recently. Therefore, it is suggested that textbook writers and teachers should design and create pedagogical tasks in accordance with big classes. The fifth suggestion is related to the examination-oriented education system. It calls for the attention of educational administrators and school authorities to focus on the assessment of students' ability for language use. The

development of school-based textbooks to accord with English proficiency and teaching environment in local areas also plays an important role in TBLT. Currently, there lack TBLT textbooks and materials. Researchers and teachers need to adapt or write textbooks to meet the local needs. The seventh suggestion falls on teacher training regarding TBLT theory, which enables teachers to follow the new development of TBLT. Through systematic training, teachers are able to know what TBLT is and how to do it. Such a training program needs to be professional and systematic from a long term perspective.

Last but not least is the necessity to integrate different methods with TBLT. At the age of globalization and multiculturalism, it is advocated that teaching should abide by principles rather than by one method. In accordance with certain teaching and learning principles, whatever teaching methods could be adopted in the language teaching. It is admitted that each teaching method has its own merits and demerits. No teaching methods are perfect without exception of TBLT. Thus, TBLT must be integrated with other teaching methods to promote students' ability for language use and cultivate integrative competence of the students.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, the current synthesis analyzes the reality of TBLT in China. It is found that TBLT is favored by teachers and students in China. In practice, TBLT has an active role to play in teacher professional development and the development of students' ability for language use. On the contrary, TBLT in China has some problems, such as no professional and systematic training for teachers on TBLT, no knowledge of the latest development of TBLT in the world, unbalance of student English level, unbalance in local education, no enough educational funds. In order to solve these problems, TBLT in the Chinese context is suggested with several approaches, such as redefining tasks in the Chinese context, integrating target tasks and pedagogical tasks, balancing between meaning and form,

designing tasks in accordance with big classes, cultivating school-based textbooks and emphasizing the integration of a variety of teaching methods. It is believed that TBLT in the Chinese context could provide a reference for the future development of TBLT in China.

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THE MOTIVATIONAL MODEL OF YOUNG JAPANESE EFL LEARNERS: AFTER GETTING LESSONS BY HOMEROOM TEACHERS

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Abstract: This study focuses on Japanese pupils' motivation with other attitudinal attitudes about learning English. The writer surveyed the 5th and 6th grade pupils' motivation and its effect factors at an elementary school in Japan at the end of the school year 2007 and 2008. The main focus of this study is to find the relationship between motivation and effect factors using both the 2007 and 2008 data and to examine differences of the pupils' attitudes between 2007 and 2008. Since the 2008 school year, pupils have received lessons by not only an assistant language teacher (ALT) but also their home room teachers (HRTs). The finding showed that the 2008 and 2007 results were similar in most valuables, but the value of "Motivation" increased in 2008 compared to the previous year. Furthermore, "people around the learner" influenced on motivation more positively. Finally, this study presented a model which could be suggested as one of the motivational models of Japanese pupils for English activities. The writer concluded that the involvement of HRTs brought about generally good effects on pupils' attitudes in this elementary school at this point.

Key words: motivation, foreign language activities, communicative attitudes, home room teachers

Abstrak: Kajian ini fokus pada motivasi siswa Jepang dan perilaku atitudinal lainnya dalam belajar bahasa Inggris. Penulis melakukan survey terhadap motivasi siswa kelas 5 dan 6 dan faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhinya di sebuah sekolah dasar di Jepang pada akhir tahun ajaran 2007 dan 2008. Fokus utama kajian ini adalah untuk menemukan hubungan antara motivasi dan faktor-faktor pengaruhnya menggunakan data dari tahun 2007 dan 2008 dan meneliti perbedaan sikap siswa dalam dua tahun ajaran tersebut. Sejak tahun ajaran 2008, siswa telah menerima pelajaran tidak hanya dari asisten guru bahasa (ALT), tapi juga dari guru wali kelas mereka (HRT). Temuan menunjukkan bahwa hasil di tahun 2008 dan 2007 sama dalam semua nilai, tapi nilai "Motivasi" meningkat di tahun 2008 dibanding tahun sebelumnya. Lebih dari itu, "orang-orang di sekitar pembelajar" mempengaruhi motivasi dengan lebih positif. Akhirnya, kajian ini menghadirkan model yang bisa disarankan menjadi salah satu model motivasi untuk siswa Jepang dalam aktivitas bahasa Inggris. Penulis menyimpulkan bahwa keterlibatan wali kelas secara umum memberikan pengaruh yang baik pada sikap siswa di sekolah dasar ini.

Kata kunci: Motivasi, aktivitas bahasa asing, perilaku komunikatif, guru wali kelas

In Japan, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) revised its curriculum guidelines in 2008, and it mandated that a new foreign language curriculum would officially start in Japanese elementary schools in 2011. In accordance with other Asian countries like Korea, China, and Taiwan, where English education has already begun in their elementary schools, the new curriculum guidelines for English education in Japan were revised, and many elementary schools started to implement foreign language activities, with most of schools implementing substantial English lessons. The globalization of business is also behind the background of this curriculum revision; however, there are not enough Japanese elementary school teachers who can teach English. Because of this, it is expected that elementary school teachers will conduct lessons with support from ALTs or Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs).

However, many researchers point out the difficulty to acquire English in Japan because English is a foreign language (FL), not a second language (L2) (Uchida, 2005, etc.). Tremendous time and infinite effort are essential to master an FL in the society where Japanese is the sole domain language, and it would be very difficult for pupils to acquire the necessary skills only because they start learning English earlier than starting at junior high school.

For these several years, many studies have investigated pupils' motivation, affective attitudes and their English abilities to find whether a foreign language education at Japanese elementary schools will yield any positive effects or not and in what aspects it will produce good effects. Some research at several pilot schools for research purposes in the past indicated that the experienced pupils got better performance than non-experienced pupils (Ishihama, 2010, JASTEC, 1988, Shizuka, 2007). On the other hand, other studies showed that there was not so much difference between experienced and non-experienced pupils (Shirahata, 2002, Takada, 2004). Besides, it could be said that the experienced pupils' better performance is

not just attributed to learning English in elementary school, but that it results from just much more time to learn. Then, if students can get more English classes in their junior high school days by their English teachers, it might create more effects on them. Since they have already developed enough cognitive abilities, they could more easily understand the syntax of a foreign language and more clearly find their own reasons of why they need to learn English.

Furthermore, some researchers and educators pointed out that the students who started English education at elementary school tend to lose their interests in English activities when they enter junior high school. For example, according to NIEPR (2009), the sixth grade pupils' attitudes to questions like "Do you like English lessons?" and "Do you participate in English activities positively?" declined compared to the fifth graders.

In addition, most common elementary school teachers in Japan neither have the qualification as a teacher of English nor have experience in teaching English. Therefore, the guidelines of MEXT note that the objective of this new curriculum is "to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages." Even though it is not to develop students' communication abilities, some teachers are really worried about how to practice these activities, and HRTs in elementary schools do not have much time for preparing only for English activities. As a result, they tend to depend on foreign ALTs or JTEs. Therefore, we should consider that the purpose of the foreign language activities in Japan is not to have pupils improve English abilities but to enhance their awareness of English learning and their motivation.

Motivation and Orientations

Gardner (1985, pp. 156-159) presented the socio-educational model for empirical tests. In this model, the motivation was described as comprising three elements: motivational intensity, desire, and favorable attitudes. On the other hand, Gardner (p. 11) defined

orientation as something that represents ultimate goals for learning a second language, which is “a concept distinct from motivation.” According to Masgoret and Gardner (2003, pp. 174-175), the Integrative Orientation scale presents reasons for learning a second language that emphasize the notion of identification with the community, and the Instrumental Orientation scale presents practical reasons without implying any interest in getting closer socially to the language community.

Concerning the relationship with language achievement, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) investigated the relationship of second language achievement to the five attitude/motivation variables (Attitudes toward the learning situation, Integrativeness, Motivation, Integrative Orientation and Instrumental Orientation) by meta-analysis. Their result indicated that, as they had remarked (p. 176), the Integrative orientation itself did not have a significant relationship with achievement. They concluded that it is motivation that has a higher correlation with achievement (the mean corrected correlations of grades; $r = .37$) than the other variables, though the integrative orientation (ditto $r = .20$) was higher than instrumental orientation (ditto $r = .16$) (pp.193-198).

The term “integrative” in most studies is presupposed essentially to aim for the target language community only (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002, p. 452; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003, etc.). However, some researchers had some suspicions about the definition of the term “integrative” (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005, etc.). For example, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002, p. 437) showed that Hungarian students’ values of integrativeness toward five target languages (English, German, French, Italian, and Russian) decreased significantly, except for English, and they explained the reason for this decrease being attributed to their endorsement of English as a “world language.” Thus, they claimed that the term “integrativeness” and its definition should be reexamined. They suspected the motivation dimension captured by this term is not strongly related to any

actual integration into an L2 community (p. 453).

Because of the ambiguity of the definition of Integrative orientation, and in order to adjust learning objective of English to Japanese society, in this study, another orientation was proposed as one of the goals of learning a foreign language: “intercultural orientation.” It represents a willingness to be associated with second language learners or FL learners of English. While the integrative orientation was premised toward native speakers, the intercultural orientation is defined as a reason for learning to communicate with various people around the world using English as L2 or FL (Adachi, 2009b, 2009c). This orientation is aimed at not so much integrating learners with the target language people who are limited to native speakers, but interacting with various people around the world, including non-native English speakers, using English as a lingua franca.

METHOD

Participants

The survey was conducted at a public elementary school in a medium-sized city in Aichi prefecture. Aichi is in the middle of Japan and the fourth most populous prefecture with some big companies. The school is located in a suburb area. The emigration rate of the city is a little higher than other medium-sized cities in Japan and the number of young families is relatively large. The survey was made at the end of February in 2009 (at the end of the 2008 school year). Previously, an equivalent survey was conducted at the same school in March, 2008. Since this school was not designated as a special school for “English education at elementary school,” it is considered that the result could be generalized and applied to other average Japanese elementary schools to some extent. As it was a larger school in 2007, it has since spun off a new school at the beginning of April in 2008. Thus, the surveyed population decreased slightly compared to 2007: 124 5th grade and 97 6th grade pupils. Pupils who did not have Japanese nationality or did not specify their nationality were excluded. The

final number of participants in 2008 was 214 (Table 1).

Although an ALT mainly has implemented the English activity at this school, HRTs also have started to instruct some activities since the beginning of the 2008 school year. An ALT had taught English pupils of all graders for about one hour per month (about 10-12 classes a year) until 2007. Since school year 2008, the HRTs handling the fifth and the sixth graders also have conducted several English activities. In 2008, HRTs used a textbook adopted from a private company, though the number of classes was different (from 10 to 20) depending on the capability of each HRT. The textbook includes various activities, such as games, songs, chants and so on and aims to help students learn English through these activities. All pupils at the elementary school had experienced English activities by an ALT before.

In addition to these English activities, the school was designated as “a pilot school for research purposes of international understanding education” by the Aichi Prefectural government between 2006 and 2007. Since then, students have experienced some programs focused on understanding other cultures, such as planting rice with international school students as an international exchange program, learning about other cultures from some invited foreign guest speakers, and going on an excursion to a museum where students can learn about many different countries in the world.

Table 1 Respondents

N	5th grade	6th grade	Total
2007	151	159	310
2008	122	92	214

Objectives and Instruments

The purpose of this study is to examine differences in the pupils’ motivation and other attitudes between the data of school year 2007 and 2008 and to investigate the relationship among motivation and other attitudes. In Adachi (2010a), the difference in each item was already analyzed and, there was not

so much difference, except for a few items. Therefore, in this study, subscales calculated from presupposed items were focused on.

The followings are the research questions of this study: 1) What differences are seen in the value of motivation and other attitudinal dimensions between 2008 and 2007, and 2) what kind of relationships is seen between motivation and other attitudinal dimensions?

The items of the questionnaire came from several sources and the detailed descriptions of motivational variables and some other variables can be found in Adachi (2009a, 2009c). The identical questionnaire was also adopted in Adachi (2009c, 2010a and 2010b). Though it has originally a total of 34 items, in this study, 29 items concerning motivation and attitudes toward learning English were analyzed and they are outlined below:

1. Motivation (5 items) based primarily on the concepts of Gardner (1985): This included effort, desire, and favorable attitudes; “FA Enjoyment” refers to enjoyment of lessons in foreign language activities, “E Audio-visual” refers to learning English at home using audio-visual materials, “FA Learning more” refers to a favorable attitude toward the increase in the number of classes, “E Vocabulary” refers to making an effort in order to build up vocabulary; and “D Improvement” refers to a desire to improve in English.

2. Orientations (9 items) included instrumental orientation, integrative orientation, and intercultural orientation: Instrumental orientation (3 items): “Information from the Internet” refers to getting information from the Internet; “Work abroad” refers to traveling or working abroad; and “For future career” refers to entering a good college or a good company in the future.

Integrative orientation (3 items): “Learn U.S. and U.K.” refers to learning about and understanding the culture and people from the U.S. and the U.K.; “Ex with U.S. and U.K.” refers to exchanges with people in the U.S. and the U.K.; and “Native speaker” refers to speaking English like native speakers.

Intercultural orientation (3 items): “Learn L2 culture” refers to learning and

understanding the culture and people from India, the Philippines and Hong Kong; “Ex with L2 people” refers to exchanges with people from India, the Philippines and Hong Kong; and “Ex with FL people” refers to exchanges with people from China, Russia and Brazil.

3. People around the learner (3 items): This refers to descriptions of how much encouragement a pupil had from their “peers,” “parents” and “teachers” in order to study English intensively.

4. Vitality of English (3 items): This refers to how much they recognize English as an important and powerful language in their future social life (importance of English learning). English is more and more important because we will have more chances to “go and stay overseas,” or need to “get information,” or need to “avoid friction” with foreign people.

5. Attitudes toward learning (5 items): This refers to descriptions of positive attitudes, mainly concerning language learning. To become more understanding English (“Confidence in E”), to believe in the value of effort (“Belief in effort”), to be able to understand an ALT’s English (“ALT English”), to have a positive attitude toward learning in general (“Learning att”), and to have a positive attitude toward learning multiple languages (“Learning multi”).

6. Communicative attitudes (4 items): As the new curriculum guidelines emphasize “communication” as an important factor, Adachi (2011) examined some communicative attitudes labeled as “Willingness to communicate with outsiders.” Therefore, the communicative attitudes in this research were adopted to investigate how much pupils try to communicate with others who have different cultural backgrounds. “Make a compromise” refers to that “I try to make a compromise when we have a conflict in group in class”; “Nonverbal communication” refers to that “I tell the way using nonverbal communication when a foreigner gets lost”; “Acceptance of unfamiliarity” is that “I can talk with a foreigner with no caution even if he or she is unfamiliar”; and “Friendly attitude” refers

to that “I try to make friends with a foreign transfer student when he or she comes to my class.”

Procedures

Since the questionnaire was conducted by HRTs during class time, the collection rate was 100 percent. The participants were asked to answer each item by choosing one from a 6-point Likert scale, most of which ranged from strong agreement (+6) to strong disagreement (1).

Comparative analysis was performed to compare the motivation and other attitudes in 2008 with the previous one in 2007, and a hierarchical linear modeling SEM (Structural Equation Modeling) was applied to evaluate the relationships among variables. The data were analyzed using SPSS Ver.18 and AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) Ver.18. The procedure of the analysis was as follows: 1) Compute Cronbach alpha in accordance with the presupposed items for each subscale to check the reliability and sum up the values of each item and make up six subscales in 2008; 2) Compare the values of subscales between 2007 and 2008; 3) Carry out regression analyses to find the subscales that have significant effect on the motivation subscale in 2007 and 2008, respectively; and 4) Examine the relationship between motivation and subscales using both of the data in 2007 and 2008.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The comparative analysis of the values of each subscale in 2008 and 2007

First, to obtain a motivational subscale, the five items of motivation in 2008 were submitted to Cronbach Alpha coefficient calculation to check internal consistency. Though the reliability coefficient of the scale was acceptable ($\alpha = .78$), “Audio-visual” indicated the floor effect, and if this item would be omitted, the scale would have a higher reliability coefficient. Consequently, it was dropped from the study. Cronbach Alpha coefficient was, again, calculated with the motivation scale consisting of 4 items and a

new coefficient score was obtained ($\alpha = .82$).

Next, to gain other subscales, items belonging to each supposed dimension were aggregated, and Cronbach alpha coefficient of each subscale was computed to check for internal consistency. However, "Avoidance of uncertainty" was excluded from "Communicative attitudes" because Cronbach

alpha coefficient did not have a positive reliability coefficient. Therefore, it was also dropped from the study. The reliability of each subscale was indicated in Table 2. All of these values were considered to be reliable and acceptable and were very similar to the values in 2007 obtained by Adachi (2010b), which are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Cronbach alpha for Each Attitudinal Dimension

	Number of items	2008	2007
		Cronbach Alpha	Cronbach Alpha
Motivation	4	0.820	0.896
Orientation	9	0.924	0.915
People around a learner	3	0.881	0.896
Vitality of English	3	0.863	0.860
Attitudes toward learning	5	0.748	0.754
Communicative attitudes	3	0.731	0.726

Then, the writer analyzed the differences of the mean values of the subscales between 2007 and 2008, and Table 3 shows the results of the two independent-samples t-test of six subscales with the mean and standard deviation in both 2007 and 2008, respectively. Because of the repeated t-test, the writer adjusted the probability by Bonferroni. As can be seen in the following table, all subscales in 2008 show similar values with the previous year. In addition, all were normally distributed, and this proves that these subscales can be used as adequate measurement scales.

However, "Motivation" indicated a significant difference and the median value of 4.74 in 2008 showed a more positive attitude in comparison with the value of 4.46 in 2007, since the median value is 3.5. Among the items subsumed into "Motivation," as "FA Learning more" showed a significantly higher value in 2008 (Adachi, 2010a), it seemed that school children continue to have a pleasurable image of English and enjoyed lessons more after the HRTs started to involve in the foreign language activities.

Table3 Descriptive statistics of subscale in 2007 and 2008

	2007			2008			
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	
Motivation	307	4.46	1.04	213	4.74	0.95	3.14 *
people around the learner	304	3.89	1.31	209	3.92	1.30	0.24
Vitality of English	306	4.64	1.11	212	4.68	1.19	0.43
Attitudes toward learning	303	4.08	0.96	212	4.20	0.95	1.45
Communicative attitudes	304	4.32	0.99	211	4.30	1.09	-0.23
Orientation	304	4.65	0.91	211	4.65	1.00	0.06

* $p < .05$

Concerning "People around the learner," this study surveyed the degree of the encouragement of people around pupils and the subscale included not only "teacher" and "parents" but also "peers." The value in

2008 indicated 3.92, and it was, again, a little over the median value. Therefore, pupils kept getting some good influence from these people in 2008.

“Vitality of English,” “Orientation,” and “Attitudes toward learning” also indicated a comparatively high value (M=4.68, 4.65, and 4.20), and all of them were slightly higher in 2008 than 2007. This means pupils recognize English as a powerful and important language, have well-defined goals, and have generally positive attitudes toward participating in foreign language activities. As to the influence of HRT and ALT, according to Adachi (2010a), “ALT English” indicated higher value in 2008 (M = 3.23) than in 2007 (M = 2.94). The result may be due to the instruction of Japanese HRT, in which pupils could understand English better, and it would be more important for pupils to get comprehensible input and to build their confidence than to listen to difficult or puzzling English.

“Communicative attitudes” were also strong in 2008. As one of the aims of foreign language activities is “fostering a positive attitude toward communication,” it was supposed to be a natural outcome. As Jandt (2004, pp. 191-192) pointed out, since Japan is an island country and borders on no other countries, it had been little affected by foreign culture until the 19th century. Japanese ideas and information used to be easily shared, and the tradition of rice growing has contributed to a society based on cooperation, minimizing

conflict, and enhanced cooperation, which were all necessary for survival. However, given the Japan’s recent globalization, Japanese characteristics should be changed into open-minded and friendly ones with more of both verbal and nonverbal ability.

Relationship between the motivational subscale and other subscales

Then, in order to find out which attitudinal factors act as predictor variables toward the motivation of pupils in this school, I submitted the gained subscales in 2008 into multiple regression analysis with the result appearing in Table 5, and the subscales in 2007 were also submitted into multiple regression analysis with the results in Table 4.

The results indicated that the most predictable subscale was “People around a learner” in 2008, which was the second predictable subscale in 2007. Because some activities had also been instructed by HRTs since fiscal 2008, it is estimated that the influence of HRTs would be considered as a potential reason for the increase. In fact, the standardized beta of “People around a learner” ($\beta = .283$) was slightly higher than the value of 2007 ($\beta = .246$), so the results can naturally be accepted.

Table4 Results of the regression analysis of the attitudinal and motivational scales with the motivation scale as the criterion variable (2007)

	β
Attitudes toward learning	.337 ***
People around a learner	.246 ***
Vitality of English	.180 ***
Communicative attitudes	.166 **
R2	.662 ***

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table5 Results of the regression analysis of the attitudinal and motivational scales with the motivation scale as the criterion variable (2008)

	β
People around a learner	.283 ***
Attitudes toward learning	.244 ***
Orientation	.234 ***
Communicative attitudes	.180 **
R2	.641 ***

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Attitudes toward learning had a significant and high effect on motivation in both 2007 and 2008. This means pupils who have positive attitudes toward learning tend to learn English more. However, in 2008, “attitudes toward learning” had less effect compared to 2007. Further investigation will be necessary to find the reason. Since pupils were more affected by their HRTs and took part in some programs for understanding other cultures as well, it can be assumed that they were more influenced by the atmosphere of the classroom under the instruction of the HRTs, which would in turn increase their awareness of importance of intercultural communication.

Instead of “vitality of English” in 2007, orientation was put in as a predictor variable in 2008. However, as these two subscales were highly correlated with each other ($r=.84$), the result implies that the instruction of HRTs might contribute to raise students’ awareness of their aim to learn English slightly more.

The “Communicative Attitudes” also contributed to the motivation more in 2008 ($\beta = .180$) than in 2007 ($\beta = .166$). As the items under “Communicative attitudes” are not assumed to be the attitudes toward English speaking people, it is noteworthy to find that the willingness to communicate with outsiders would also be an important element for Japanese attitudes toward learning a foreign language.

Confirming the relationship between motivation and effect factors

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was, then, applied to evaluate the relationships between motivation and other measures in both 2007 and 2008 using AMOS. The final model appears in Figure 1. The summary of fit statistics for the model is as follows (goodness of fit measures): CMIN/DF = 2.933, CFI = .943, NFI = .917, RMSEA = .061.

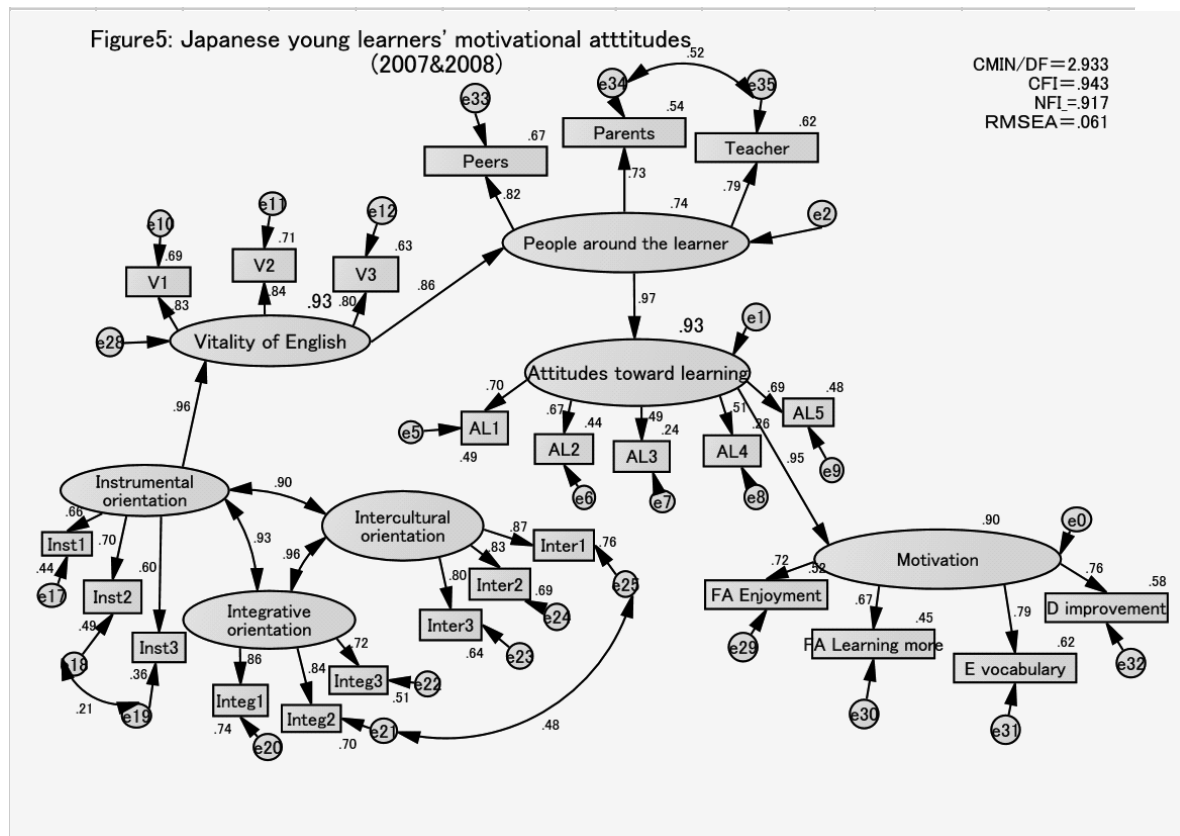


Figure 1 Structural equation modeling of Japanese young learners' motivational attitude(Standardized Parameter Estimates). CMIN/df = chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom, p = probability, CFI = the comparative fit index, NFI = the Bentler-Bonett normed fit index, RMSEA = the root mean square error of approximation. V=Vitality of English. Vitality of English consists of three items; Go and stay overseas(V1), Get information(V2), and Avoid friction(V3). AL=Attitudes toward learning. Attitudes toward learning consists of five items; Confidence in English(AL1), Belief in effort(AL2), ALT English(AL3), Learning att(AL4), and Learning multi(AL5). Inst=Instrumental orientation. Instrumental orientation consists of three items; Information of Internet(Inst1), Work abroad(Inst2), and For future career(Inst3). Integ=Integrative orientation. Integrative orientation consists of three items; Ex with U.S. and U.K.(Integ1), Learn U.S. and U.K.(Integ2), and Native speaker(Integ3). Inter=Intercultural orientation. Intercultural orientation consists of three items; Learn L2 culture(Inter1), Ex with L2 people(Inter2), and Ex with FL people(Inter3).

There was a direct path from “Attitudes toward learning” to “Motivation” as was expected, but “People around a learner” affected motivation indirectly. It can be said that the supportive attitudes of peers, HRTs and ALTs raise pupils’ awareness of learning English and provide a sense of reassurance at first, and then pupils try to learn English more. Though it has been widely acknowledged that the teacher or parents have a certain effect on students’ motivation (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, Masgoret, Bernaus, & Gardner, 2001), the effect of peers has not attracted much attention until now. Given the model in details, peers’ attitudes could have an important role on the learner’s motivation.

On the model, “Orientation,” “Vitality of English,” and “People around a learner” influenced Motivation indirectly, but “Communicative Attitudes” did not appear to affect Motivation. It can also be said that Motivation gets some influence from “Communicative Attitudes,” but the influence is not large, and there is no strong relationship between “Communicative Attitudes” and Motivation. In the case of Japanese, the people who place an emphasis on ties between people and have tenacity to deal with people for good relationships may be suited to learn a foreign language, but holding higher levels of motivation in patience would be somehow a different thing.

For example, in Abe (2009, p. 186-187), it was indicated that the more classes the pupils have, the more they tend to have willingness to communicate with peers, ALT and HRT. The attitudes of pupils who received more than 30 classes were not influenced much by ALTs. In conclusion, she indicated the importance of personal relationships and enhancement in-classroom communication both quantitatively and qualitatively. Therefore, it may be said that pupils understood the usefulness of English as a tool of intercultural contact better under the instruction of their Japanese teachers who are said to emphasize the cooperativeness of the class. Pupils would find the ultimate destination of learning English to have a good relationship with people from other cultures more clearly than before.

Therefore, even for HRTs who are not good at English, there is a possibility that pupils’ attitudes toward English, as well as their communicative attitudes, can improve through the experience of foreign language activities that focus on various personal communications.

CONCLUSION

In this study, the school children continued to have a pleasurable image of English and enjoyed lessons more after the HRTs started to involve them in the foreign language activities. Besides, “Attitudes toward learning,” “People around a learner,” “Vitality of English” and “Orientation” were considerably valid effect factors toward motivation. Among them, “Attitudes toward learning” was the most important dimension in both 2007 and 2008, and it was also influenced greatly by “People around a learner.” The strong influence of “People around a learner” on “Attitudes toward learning” means that the atmosphere of the classroom would be very important, which includes not only relationship between pupils and HRT or ALT, but also relationship among peers in the classroom. Therefore, in further studies, the attitudes of peers will also need to be investigated in details. Dörnyei (2003, pp. 22-23) claimed that the learning process is important; moreover, the result of Nishida and Yashima (2009) noted that a comfortable classroom atmosphere is crucial to reinforce learners’ motivation. Thus, in the classroom, not only the teacher but also the peers around the learners would become a key factor to change each pupil’s attitudes toward learning.

In addition, “Orientations” subsumed the intercultural orientations, and “Communicative Attitudes” presupposed communication not in L2 but with outsiders in this study. This model indicated that Japanese pupils’ motivation might be influenced by not only the native target language speakers or target language community, but also non-native people or strangers who have different cultural backgrounds. This may be due in part to the fact that ordinary Japanese people seldom have contact opportunities with native English

speakers. Though some Japanese teachers are worried about their English speaking skills, this study demonstrates that Japanese HRTs could effectively instruct pupils, if they use several foreign languages and non-verbal communicative activities or sometimes get support from people of different countries.

Though the guidelines of MEXT prescribe the curriculum as “Foreign Language Activities,” the “Notebook of English” published by MEXT focused overwhelmingly on English as its name suggests. Most elementary schools are now conducting lessons using this notebook in 2011, and some teachers might emphasize on improving pupils’ English proficiency. At this point, the motivation of some pupils may begin to diminish as they get older because many studies suggested it (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan, 2003, Cenoz, 2003, Carreira, 2006 and Nishida, 2008). Even for university students in Japan, Hayashi (2009, pp. 206-207) implied that the students with low intrinsic motivation have not fully enjoyed a sense of English communication because they had little chance of “implementing” communication in English. Therefore, it may be necessary for HRTs to give pupils the opportunity for exchange with as diverse people as possible or to have them enjoy various experiences using English as well as other foreign languages and raise their interest in foreign countries, since the guidelines aim for “developing the understanding of languages and cultures” and “fostering a positive attitude toward communication” (MEXT, 2008).

Concerning the main limitation of the current study, the participants were limited to one elementary school. Therefore, it is expected that investigations will be conducted in other schools to confirm whether the similar result could be found and to achieve a more substantial result. And since the school had not yet integrated the full 35 classes at that time, further research would be necessary to investigate how pupils’ learning or other communicative attitudes will change after the foreign language activities are conducted completely.

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DEVELOPING ACADEMIC WRITING IN A BUSINESS-ORIENTED UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: This research investigated the development of language choices in the Academic writing of students at an English-medium university in Thailand. The first part involved looking at the writing in the first semester of their English program at the university, representing the level of the students' writing on entry into the university. Seventy two samples of first year students' writing were collected, but only 12 were randomly selected for this study in order to compare their progress over a period of 14 weeks (first semester). The second part of the research looked at the writing of students' journals at the end of their second semester of their first year after the implementation of a writing program based on research originally developed in Australia (Derewianka, 2003). A third part of the research investigated the development of students' writing towards the third year in university with specific reference to their academic writing in the business English program. The focus on Business English was mainly because the university was well-known in this field of study. The framework for the analysis of the students' writing was based on a systemic functional approach (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). In order to provide insights into the meaning and effectiveness of the text, a discourse grammar needs to be functional and semantic in its orientation. This paper discusses the development of the Nominal Group (NG) in the students' writing in THEME position, as this was felt to be a major issue in the development of academic discourse. However NGs in the RHEME would also be looked, as this was a part of the text structure, where complex nominal groups would be expected as part of the NEW information. The resulting analysis showed that initially the students had a limited knowledge of the different genres and used an equally limited range of lexical and grammatical choices. After the implementation of a new teaching approach in the second semester of the first year, some improvement could be observed. During the third year of the English program, improvement in the writing of genres used in "business" writing, such as Reports, was clearly evident.

Keywords: *Academic Business English, Thailand, lexico-grammatical choices, nominal groups, genres.*

Abstrak: Penelitian ini menyelidiki perkembangan pilihan bahasa siswa dalam mata kuliah menulis akademik di sebuah universitas berbahasa Inggris di Thailand. Bagian pertama melihat tulisan di semester pertama mahasiswa program bahasa Inggris di universitas tersebut untuk melihat kemampuan menulis mahasiswa saat mereka masuk universitas. Tujuh puluh dua sampel tulisan mahasiswa tingkat pertama dikumpulkan, tapi hanya 12 yang dipilih secara acak untuk kajian ini agar bisa dibandingkan kemajuannya setelah empat belas minggu (satu semester). Bagian kedua penelitian ini melihat jurnal hasil tulisan mahasiswa di akhir semester ke dua tahun pertama mereka, setelah penerapan program menulis menggunakan kerangka teori yang dikembangkan di Australia (Derewianka 2003). Bagian ketiga dari penelitian ini menyelidiki perkembangan tulisan mahasiswa menuju tahun ketiga mereka dengan rujukan khusus terhadap tulisan akademis mereka dalam program bahasa Inggris untuk bisnis karena universitas tersebut terkenal dalam bidang kajian itu. Landasan teori yang digunakan untuk menganalisis tulisan mahasiswa ini adalah pendekatan fungsional sistemik (Halliday dan Matthiessen, 2004). Untuk memberikan masukan terhadap makna dan ketepatan-gunaan teks, tata bahasa wacana harus fungsional

dan semantik dalam orientasinya, dimana kategori ketatabahasaannya dijelaskan sebagai perwujudan dari pola-pola semantik. Makalah ini akan membahas perkembangan kelompok nominal (Nominal Group = NG) dalam tulisan siswa pada posisi TEMA, karena hal ini dirasa sebagai masalah besar dalam perkembangan wacana akademis. Akan tetapi, NG dalam Rema juga akan diamati, karena merupakan bagian dari struktur teks, dimana kelompok nominal majemuk diharapkan akan menjadi bagian dari informasi baru. Analisa yang dihasilkan menunjukkan bahwa awalnya mahasiswa memiliki keterbatasan ilmu akan genre yang berbeda-beda dan menggunakan pilihan tata bahasa dan leksikon yang sama terbatasnya. Setelah penerapan pendekatan mengajar yang baru di semester kedua tahun pertama mereka, beberapa perbaikan nampak. Selama tahun ketiga program bahasa Inggris, peningkatan dalam genre tulisan yang digunakan dalam tulisan “bisnis,” seperti laporan, nampak jelas.

Kata kunci: *Academic Business English*, Thailand, pilihan leksiko-tata bahasa, kelompok nominal, genre.

The paper will discuss the development of the Nominal Group (NG) in the students' writing in THEME/RHEME position, as this was felt to be a major issue in the development of the students' writing. The rationale for this research was to see how students were developing their network of choices in their ability to write academic English (in this case “Business English”). In today's complex world, literacy means far more than learning to read and write. Literacy is a form of social action, where language and context work together to make meaning. Although much research has focused on the features of early reading and writing in school contexts, less work has been done related to the kinds of tasks that challenge students at the tertiary level of education. An individual's growth and development and ability to participate in society require ever-expanding knowledge and control over meaning-making in new contexts and through new linguistic resources. Students need to use language in particular ways in order to be successful in business, the sciences, and several other areas; to develop interpretations, construct arguments and critique theories.

The first part of this research, therefore, involved students' writing in the first semester, on entry to the university. Visual stimuli were used as prompts, as according to Gardner (1983), Multiple Intelligence (MI) using pictures involves a wider range of intelligences than simply linguistic. The use

of such an approach was based on the belief that the students can use their imagination to express their ideas through their writing. The second part of the research was in the second semester of the first year. This involved modifications to the way in which writing was taught using a “genre” approach to “scaffold” and, thus, helped students improve their writing. A third part looked at the students developing academic writing (in this case, *reports* in the “Business English” program) in the third year.

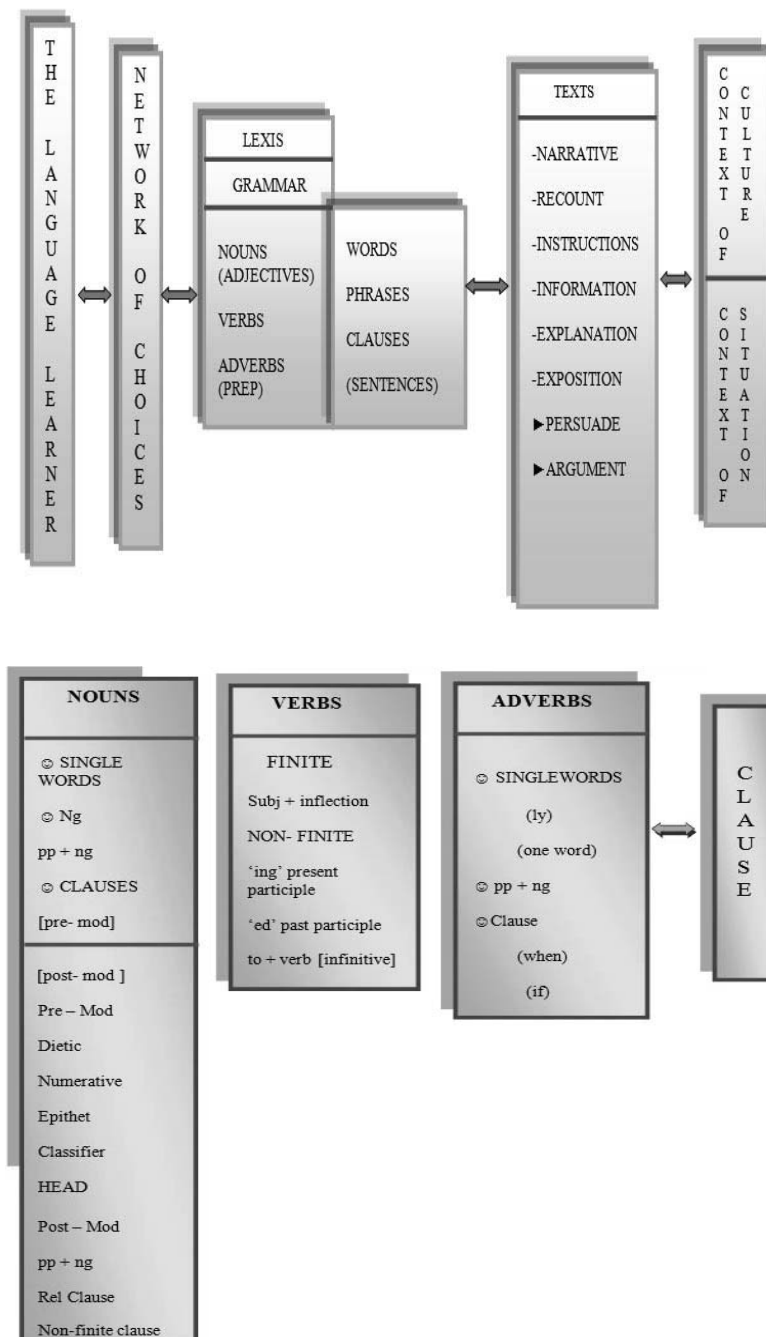
The form of textual analysis used in the project is based on Systemic-functional grammar (SFG), as it is concerned with the choices writers (the students) are able to make (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). These choices are assumed to be meaningful and related to the writer's purpose, which will be influenced by the context and culture (Foley & Thompson, 2002).

SFG presents a view of language in terms of both the structure (grammar) and the lexis. The term lexico-grammar is used to underline the fact that these traditionally viewed aspects of language are actually one. Consequently, the clause structure is taken as the basis for analysis and is seen from three points of view, *the ideational, interpersonal and textual* (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The *ideational view* is how the writer represents experience, ideas and ways of seeing the world. In terms of the form, this is expressed through the clause

structure (ng+vg+[adv]), with the adverbial group as optional. The *interpersonal* function concerns how language is used to interact between participants in the exchange of meaning. The finite part of the verb indicates the time frame as seen by the writer. The speech functions and modality indicate the relationship between the participants, while appraisal indicates the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in the text. The *textual* function

weaves the ideational and interpersonal meanings together. Martin (1999) saw this function as the information flow management, involving the organization of the text relevant to the context. The important element to understand the textual meaning in the clause is the *THEME*. The theme serves as the starting point for the message to be conveyed and gives a signal to the reader how to follow the logic of the discourse in the text.

Figure 1. A network of 'choices' from the perspective of the student (From Foley, 2011)



Theme: clause as a message.

The system of THEME belongs to the textual metafunction of the language. It is concerned with the organization of information within individual clauses and, through this, with the organization of the larger text.

Every clause is organized as a message related to an unfolding text. The system of THEME organizes the clause to show what its local context is in relation to the general context. This local context or point of departure in the clause is called **Theme**. The rest of the message of the clause is what is presented against the background of the local context—it is where the clause moves after the point of departure; this is called **Rheme**. The clause as message is, thus, organized into **Theme + Rheme**. In English and many other languages, such as Thai or Mandarin, this organization is signaled positionally, that is **Theme** is realized by initial position in the clause and **Rheme** follows. The choice of Theme for any individual clause will generally relate to the way information is being developed over the course of the whole text.

For example:

Snakes are reptiles—cold blooded creatures.
They belong to the same group as lizards.
(Foley, 2011)

In terms of the structure of the theme, there are four possible functions: **Topical, Marked Topical, Interpersonal and Textual**. The Topical theme normally functions as the subject of the clause (Eggsins, 2004). Marked Topical Theme can be circumstantial elements (adverbial group) or participants that are not the subject of the clause. Marked themes are often used to signal a new phase in the discourse. The Textual Theme relates the clause to its context and can be any combination of conjunctions (*and, because*) and conjunctive adjuncts (*for instance, in addition, likewise*). The logical use of Textual themes plays an important role in producing a cohesive text. Interpersonal themes are more often related to modal or mood markings. Consequently, these tend to be found more in

spoken discourse rather than written, except in direct speech.

The Nominal Group

The nominal group (NG) is the grammatical unit which has the most variety at the rank of groups, and this would allow the widest range of meanings to be expressed (Thompson, 1996). In many languages there are three structures pertaining to the NG: *Premodifier, Head* and *Postmodifier* (Wang, 2010).

We can do many things with nouns in English: we can count, specify, describe, classify, and quantify them. These are things you cannot do with other parts of the clause. The ability to construct a complex NG is considered an indicator of developing control in a language. Children rarely use complex NG in subject position (Foley, 1991). EFL learners also tend to employ short NGs, depending on how much control they have of the target language. The NG is constructed differently in some languages, for example, in Thai where there is no premodification as in *nungs*□*eu see daang* (book color red) or *sorong see fah sorng peun* (sarongs light blue two), and if a classifier is required it comes after the color.

Students writing academic forms of English need to express what they mean precisely. In the case of nouns, it is very unusual for one noun to express precisely enough meaning on its own. Similarly, many of the things students need to write about are too complicated to be expressed by a single word. It is easier to understand how complex concepts can be expressed if the student understands how to combine nouns with other words to make precise meaning. Such a combination of the nominal group in English can be summarized as follows:

Single Noun & Noun with Premodifier			
1	Single noun	a Noun/ Pronoun	<i>e.g. you, it, he</i>
2	With Premodifier	D+H	<i>e.g. a gift, my friend</i>
3	With Premodifier	N+H	<i>e.g. some game</i>
4	With Premodifier	E+H	<i>e.g. new e-mail</i>
5	With Premodifier	C+H	<i>e.g. strawberry smoothie</i>
6	With Premodifier	D+N+H	<i>e.g. the first alley</i>
7	With Premodifier	D+E+H	<i>e.g. a big seal</i>
8	With Premodifier	D+C+H	<i>e.g. Clash's music video</i>
9	With Premodifier	N+E+H	<i>e.g. many big leaves</i>
10	With Premodifier	N+C+H	<i>e.g. many water activities</i>
11	With Premodifier	E+C+H	<i>e.g. pink nail polish</i>
12	With Premodifier	D+N+E+H	<i>e.g. these three remote controls</i>
13	With Premodifier	D+N+C+H	<i>e.g. the first pine tree</i>
14	With Premodifier	D+E+C+H	<i>e.g. the big sun glasses</i>
15	With Premodifier	N+E+C+H	<i>e.g. two closed circuit cameras</i>
16	With Premodifier	D+N+E+C+H	<i>e.g. this first little baby boy</i>

Noun with Postmodifier			
17	With Postmodifier	preposition phrase [pp+ng]	<i>e.g. the colour [of the word]</i>
18	With Postmodifier	relative clause	<i>e.g. My friend who stands next Max call me</i>
19	With Postmodifier	reduced relative clause	<i>e.g. You just press the Talk button, located at the middle top</i>

Modified from Foley (2007) cited in Wang (2010)

Themes

Genre Theory

The term “genre” is used in this study to refer to the different types of texts that enact various types of social contexts. Since patterns of meaning are relatively consistent for each

genre, we can learn to predict how each situation is likely to unfold. For example, in the first part of this research, the visual stimuli would normally lend themselves to descriptive genres, mainly *recount* and *narrative*.

Proto-typical genres

Main Genre	Main Genre Structure Used in School Settings
Observation/Comment	Orientation (^) Event Description (*) Comment (^)
Recount	Orientation (^) Event (*) Re-orientation (^)
Narrative	Orientation (^) Complication (*) Resolution(*) Coda (^)
Report	General Classification Not necessarily in this order Description --- parts [and their functions] } Not necessarily in this order qualities } habits/behavior/uses }
Procedure	Goal Steps (*) Diagram (^)
Explanation	General statement Sequenced explanation (*) Final state of being or thing produced
Argument [stating your case]	
Argument [or and against]	Issue Argument (*) ---- for /against Recommendation (^)

(^) optional element, (*) recursive (Foley 2011: 195)

Description

The purpose of the descriptive text is to create an image of a particular person, place or thing in detail. Descriptions can appear in various genres or in mixed genres (Derewianka, 1992). Typically, the generic structure in terms of language features would include:

- Use of specific NG
- A variety of verb processes [relational to provide information; mental to express the writer's view]
- Time frame: normal present tense
- Complex NGs to provide information about the subject or situation.

Reports

- The topic of a Report is usually introduced by an opening general statement/general

classification, locating what is being talked about.

- The rest of the report will consist of facts about various aspects of the subject.
- These facts are often grouped into topic areas to indicate the particular aspect of the subject being discussed.
Language features would include:
 - Generalised participants: a whole class of things (Child labor in Thailand)
 - Linking verbs [relational processes] (is are, has, etc.).
 - Timeless present tense.
 - NGs for descriptive language that is factual and precise.
 - [Likely] some technical language.
- Relatively formal and objective style: The use of first person pronouns and not generally appropriate.

Argument [stating your case]

- The major focus is on an issue and a logical sequence of arguments related to this issue.
- Statement of position
- Justifying the position taken
- Summing up of the position

The typical language features may include:

- Generalised participants, sometimes human but often abstract issues (the internet)
- Possibility of technical terms related to the issue
- A variety of verb process, which can be used and would include material processes to indicate action; relational processes as linking verbs and mental and verbal processes such as [saying] and [thinking].
- Timeless present, when present a position or points in an argument.
- Complex NGs to describe the situation
- Connectives associated with reasoning (therefore, so, because of, the first reason, etc.).

Visuals

In the initial research, visuals were used as stimuli in order to engage the students in the writing activities. According to Kress and Leeuwen (2006), the visual mode offers semiotic and cognitive resources, which allow the students to create meanings through their own interpretation of what they see. Obviously, the “type” of visual stimuli will affect the genre of writing (White, 1978). A single frame is likely to generate a descriptive text, while a sequence of pictures might lend itself to narrative.

Rationale

The main premise, upon which this research is based, is that students in an EFL/ESL situation need an explicit focus on the form language takes to raise their awareness of how different grammatical choices are functional for achieving particular goals in their writing. Focus on grammar does not mean learning the “parts of speech” in isolation from the text. A functional grammar perspective highlights the role of grammar and lexis in construing

the kinds of meanings that students need to make to be successful in their academic writing tasks (in this case, business English) and to be able to participate in the institutions of modern society. The present study tries to answer the following questions: (1) Given the data in this study, have these students, on entering an English medium university in Thailand, developed nominal groups (NG) in Theme /Rheme position in their writing?; (2) Have the students developed their NG in Theme/Rheme position in their writing at the end of their first year of university, given a more explicit focus in their course work on the different grammatical choices available to them in writing?; and (3) Have the students developed the NG in Theme/Rheme position at the beginning of the third year of their English program with specific reference to the “academic” forms of writing used in Business English?

PART ONE OF THE PROJECT

As previously indicated, this project focused on the students writing on entry into the university and the subsequent development of the nominal group over a period of 14 weeks or one semester. The rationale is that the limited language ability of the students would manifest in their lack of elaboration or expansion of the head noun and the tendency to use short independent clauses. Visual stimuli were used as prompts to engage the students’ creativity in their writing, and it was hoped that over the period of time of the study the students would improve on their descriptive skills, mainly through using more complex nominal groups.

Different instructors taught each class, but the instructions given to the students were standardized in that the pictures were in black and white and were the basis for a 200-250-word essay. The data were collected over a fourteen-week period, consisting of 76 texts from 12 students. The initial part of this research was undertaken by Minwong (2012). The part of the study to be analyzed here focuses on the development of the nominal group as this is a major problem for Thai

students.

The samples that follow show the writing of the same student [G] in the first and fourteenth week. The choices of NGs in THEME position are then compared and commented upon. The NGs in the Rheme are indicated in brackets [].

Figure 1 presents samples of the visual stimuli as used for all students in week one and week fourteen.

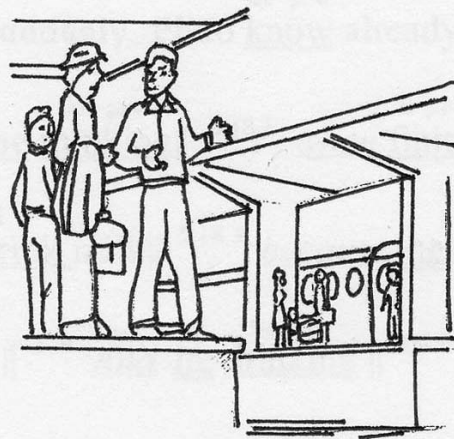
Semester One 1 week 1. Student G

1. In the picture, I see [one mother and one son].
2. **They** love [each other] so much.
3. **They** have [a good relationship].
4. *And* **their family** is [the family that be very happy].
5. *And* in the picture may be in morning,
6. **The boy** will go to school.
7. **They** have [a breakfast].
8. **Breakfast** have [some milk, a cup of coffee, bread and other].
9. **The mother** is pouring [some milk into a glass for her son].
10. *And* **the boy** feels bored
11. *because* **he** must drink [milk] everyday.
12. **He** wants to eat [other breakfast that not be milk and bread].
13. *But* **he** must eat [it]
14. *because* **it** is only [one that easy to eat].
15. *And* **the boy** is waiting to go to school
16. *but* **he** must waits [his father send him to school].
17. *But* **his father** isn't [getting dressed].
18. **He** bored to wait.
19. *Because* **he** want to go to school
20. **He** want to play with his friends.
21. *And* **he** is thinking to play [the games with his friends].
22. *And* **he** is thinking about [his girl friend].
23. **He** is thinking about
24. **What** should he buy [anything that the best gift to his girl friend].
25. *Because* tomorrow is [his girl friend's birthday].
26. *And* **he** is thinking how to surprise to [his girl friend].
27. **He** is having [a poppy love].

Picture 1 (Week One)



Picture 7 (Week Fourteen)



NG

Topical Theme: **bold**

Marked Topical Theme: underlined

Textual Theme: *italics*

Ellipted: ^^

[] NG in object/complement position

Findings

- The majority of the NGs in Topical theme position are pronouns (*I, They, He*) or single nouns (*Breakfast*).
- D+H (*Their family, the boy*) are less frequent
- Marked topical themes are used as pp+ng [adv] (*In the picture*) or single word adverbial (*tomorrow*).
- In object/complement position H+post-m [relative clause] is used, but often the

structure is incorrect: (*that be very happy**, *that not be milk, bread**, *that easy to eat**, *that the best gift to his girl friend**).

N+H+pp+ng

(*some milk into a glass for her son*)

E+H

(*poppy love*)

- The text structure is a description with little structure, very repetitive and limited use of complex nominal groups, showing limited control over the target language at this stage.

Semester One, week 14 Student G

1. **There** are [many people in this picture].
2. **Everyone** looks hurry to go to works.
3. In this picture is in morning.
4. **They** will go to work by BTS.
5. **They** are waiting for BTS.
6. **There** are [two line of BTS].
7. **One of BTS** are going to [final station]
8. *and another BTS* will go back [the first station].
9. **There** is [one of BTS which arrived already].
10. **Two men who were waiting for BTS which not arrived yet.***
11. **A man who is wearing a hat**, [holding bag]*
12. *and* ^put [his suit on his arm],
13. **he** just lived in Bangkok [2 day ago] for work.
14. **He** is going to work in first day,
15. **he** do not know [the way to go to office which he works].
16. *So he* go to ask another man [for some way that he can go to work by BTS].
17. **Another man** tell him how to go there,
18. *But a man who is wearing a hat* do not understand.
19. *Therefore a man who is not wearing a hat* ask [him] [what office that he work].
20. *When a man* answered,
21. **a man who is not wearing a hat** know
22. *that a man who is talking with him* work in same office.
23. *So he* tell [a man who is wearing hat]
24. *that he* are going to work in same office,

25. **a man who is wearing hat** is very happy
26. *that he* has [new friend in office] already.
27. **A man who is not wearing hat** also ask him about his home.
28. *When a man who is wearing hat* know
29. *That their homes* are nearly.
30. Since that time, they will go to work
31. *and* ^go back home together
32. *and they* become [close friends].

Findings

- Again, the majority of NGs in Topical theme position are pronouns (*There, They*) or single nouns H or D+H (*another BTS, Another man*) or N+H (*One of BTS*).
 - *D+H+post-m* (relative clause) is used extensively:
 - A man who is wearing a hat*
 - A man who is not wearing a hat*
 - A man who is talking with him*
 - *N+H + post-m* (relative clause + relative clause)
 - Two men who are waiting for BTS which not arrived yet*
- NGs are used in complement position
 - N+H +post-m* (relative clause)
 - There is one BTS which arrived already.*
 - *H+post-m* (relative clause)
 - office which he works.*

Reduced relative clause (possible because of the punctution?)
*Holding a bag**

- post modifiers as pepositional phrases
 - many people in this picture*
 - two line of BTS*
 - new friend in office**
- Again, the text structure is a description and very repetitive with a limited use of complex nominal groups. The use of the relative clause as embedded post modifier simply increases the repetitive effect. There are more complex clauses with post-modifiers in complement position.

Thematic development

	W1	W14
Topical Theme	24	28
Marked Topical Theme	2	2
Textual Theme	14	14
Ellipted Theme	0	2

The Use of NGs in Topical Theme and Complement position

	N1	N2	N3	N4	N5	N6	N7	N8	N9	N10	N11	N12	N13	N14	N15	N16	N17	N18	N19
W1	+	+	+				+										+	+	
W14	+	+	+	+	+	+											+	+	+

Discussion

Concerning research question 1, “given the data in this study, have these students entering an English-medium university in Thailand developed nominal groups (NG) in Theme/Rheme position in their writing?”, the features that we have been considering are features that were identified through a lexicogrammatical analysis of the text, clause by clause. The significance of such an analysis is to show how the meaning of the text derives from the way the clauses and thematic structures are woven together. As previously indicated, texts in general display their cohesiveness through the Topical and Marked Topical themes at the beginning of the clause. From the visual stimuli, the themes would be expected to develop around the interpretation of the images. The evidence from the analysis indicates that the writer’s ability is below the expected level of freshmen year university students.

Both texts from week one and week fourteen are simply “observation,” which is a genre common to young writers in the very early stages of their writing process. The dominant characteristic in the lexical strings of repetition of the same lexical item in Topical theme position is an indicator of the limited choices available to the student. Even where H+post-m (relative clause) is used, it is both mechanical and repetitive. From the analysis of the text, there seems to be limited improvement in terms of writing over the period of fourteen weeks. Contextually, the reference to BTS (the over-head train that runs

through the center of metropolitan Bangkok) shows some attempts at local color. However, the student in this sample, rarely used Marked Topical themes to vary the writing, and the limited use of the range of NGs is a serious drawback for any form of descriptive writing. From the 76 texts that were analyzed in terms of the nominal group in either Topical or Marked Topical Theme position, they ranged from H, D+H, N+H, C+H to N+E+H. Where embedded relative clauses were used, the structure was either incorrect or simply a repetition as indicated in the sample: *A man who is wearing a hat; A man who is not wearing a hat.* However, in Week 14, we find some indication of a developing use of N+H+post-m (relative clause + relative clause) and the prepositional phrase as post modifier in complement position: *Two men who are waiting for BTS which not arrived yet. Many people in this picture.*

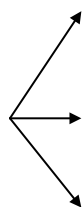
PART TWO OF THE PROJECT

The second stage in the project was to set up procedures to improve the writing of, in particular, the freshmen students. This was undertaken in the second semester of 14 weeks (2011-2012). The rationale for this second stage was that learning a second language means gaining progressive control over the systems of options in the new language and learning which options to select to make meanings in which contexts (Lock, 1996). Beginning learners have very limited options (a few structures, some lexical items and some unanalyzed “chunks” of language).

More advanced learners will have developed a greater range of options and are able to make delicate distinction of meanings appropriate for different contexts. The ability to use different text-types or genres is seen as extending the learner's making-meaning potential.

The genre pedagogy as presented here is based on a Vygotskian (1962) approach to learning. Language is learned through guidance and interaction in the context of shared experience. The teacher inducts learners into the linguistic demands of these genres that are important to participate in academic life and the wider community. Gradually, responsibility is shifted to the learners as they gain control of the genre. However, before developing a genre-based program, the teacher or institution would need to conduct an analysis of the teaching/learning context. At its broadest level, this should take into account the culture, history and tradition of the educational setting as well as the constraints posed by access to materials, English proficiency, learner expectations and assessment requirements.

Phases of writing development



(Zhong, 2012: 52).

• *Developing an understanding of the field*

Locate sample texts in the chosen genre to use for modeling. If the students demonstrate quite different levels of proficiency, it is a good idea to work in groups.

• *Developing the Genre*

Discuss the purposes for which we use this type of text in society (e.g. the purpose of Recount is to tell what happened as in the first pages of a newspaper). It is a good idea to give each group a copy of the model text with its stages clearly marked. Discuss the function of each stage. (For instance, the function of the orientation of a Recount is to let the reader know who was involved, when and where the

events took place, and any other information necessary to understand the events which follow.)

• *Developing control over the Genre*

Assessing progress as some students may be keen to try to write an independent text, while others may need more modeling: flexibility is a key factor here. Rather than restricting creativity and copying someone else's work, students need to find out what the valued, accepted and successful norm of a particular kind of writing looks like. In other words, how meaning is constructed and communicated in the particular section of society for which the students are writing. Once they are familiar with the norm, they can start adapting creatively with it to enhance their particular purpose.

• *Teacher-led Construction*

Before the students write independent texts, they should participate in group writing in the chosen genre. The type of writing will depend on the genre we plan to use with the teacher acting as guide, while the students contribute information and ideas.

Student, possibly with the teacher's guidance, chooses a topic already modeled, then the students write their drafts based on the model. Student can consult with the teacher and peers, receiving comments and suggestions for change to help the text achieve its purpose more effectively. However, at this stage the teacher may find that conferencing about drafts reveals a need for more modeling and joint construction.

• *Student-led Construction*

At this stage, the students independently construct texts of their own similar to the model. It is important that the teacher asks the students to write texts in the same genre and does not require them to write in a different way. While students are working on their texts they, could be conferencing with other students or the teacher for guidance on both the content and language to be used in the writing.

• *Assessment*

The primary aim of this procedure is to present clearly the language conventions students need to master in terms of English. In the example presented in this study, the emphasis would be on developing the nominal group in describing. Once the students have absorbed these language features, they can be used as reference points in the formal assessment of the students' writing in English.

• *Extending*

In addition to allowing for separate skills development, an extended teaching/ learning cycle allows multiple opportunities to build up the students' knowledge. Editing and publishing the texts are a final step to be kept in a portfolio of the students' work (adapted from Sharpe and Thompson, 1998: see Foley, 2012).

1. **The number 1 city that I like** is [Hua Hin city]
2. *Because Hua Hin* is [a city in Thailand]
3. *and it* have [the beautiful sea.]
4. **I** really like [the sea and seafood].
5. When I was younge my parent always took me to the Hua Hin
6. *and they* always build [the sand castle] together.
7. **Hua Hin** is [the most famous city in Thailand],
8. *because it* * [very close to the sea and not far from the Bangkok].
9. **Hua Hin** is [the resting place for hard working man and woman as well].
10. *And around the seaside* *have [a horse and banana boat for interest people].
11. **The Hua Hin's sea** is [very clean and safe from jellyfish or fiercely animals].
12. **There** was[the place of the king name is Kai- Kung -won.]
13. **It's** [very beautiful] and [the king] always to relax here.
14. Last mount I have [the plant with my friends]
15. *That we* will go to [Hua Hin city].
16. **I and my friends** went to]Hua Hin by train.]

17. **It's** [very good experience for me]
18. *because since I* was born
19. **I** never went anywhere by train.
20. When we arrived at Hua Hin station we took [tricycle (tuk tuk in Thailand) to the Sofitel Hotel].
21. **This hotel** was [an old Hua Hin station] and we have lunch at the hotel.
22. *Then we* rent a car for travel around Hua Hin city.
23. **The first place that we went to** is]'Khoa-Ta-Keab' mountain].
24. **There** are [a lot of lovely monkey in this place]
25. *and there* is [beautiful temple[.
26. *After we* pay respect to [the Buddha][.
27. **We** went to[a view point].
28. **We** can see around [the Hua Hin city]* this here.
29. **It's**[the most highest place in Hua Hin city].
30. *And then we* went to [Ban-sa-bai restaurant for dinner]
31. **We** order [many seafood such as shrimp, crab, fish, etc].
32. **All the seafood in this restaurant** are very fresh and delicious.
33. **I** really love [this restaurant]
34. *because it's* very cheap.
35. *After that we* went to [the hotel] to take a shower and rest.

Findings

Topical Themes

The NGs in Topical Theme position are still dominated by either 1st singular or 1st person plural nouns (*I, We*). The use of 'it' is also quite frequent although it is more of the ambient *it* as in

It's very beautiful

It's very expensive

It's the most highest place

Rather than the non-representational as in the impersonal projection (*it seems that...*) or the anticipatory *it* with relational clauses (*it worries us that...*).

The existential *there* is also used twice. More importantly we have evidence of the use of longer NGs: D+N+H+Relative Clause.

The number 1 city that I like
The first place that we went to
 D+H+pp+ng
All the seafood in the restaurant

Marked Topical Themes

There are four examples of marked topical themes being used:

Adverbial clauses:
When I was young
When we arrived at Hua Hin station
 Prepositional phrase, pp+ng:
Around the sea

Textual themes are used to indicate the time scale used:

Last month [month]*
Then
After
And then
After that

Complex clauses are also developing with the more frequent use of: *an*, *because*, *that*.

Also some *complex nominal groups* are beginning to be used in *complement* position:

the most famous city in Thailand
 [D+Adv+E+H+pp+ng]
*very close to the sea and not far from the**
Bangkok [Adv+E+H+pp+ng]

the resting place for hard working man and woman as well [D+C+H+pp+ng]
a horse and banana boat for interest people
 [D+H D+H+pp+ng]
the place of the king name is Kai- Kung – won [D+H++pp+ng]
an old Hua Hin station [D+E+C+H]
a lot of lovely monkey in this place
 [N+E+H+pp+ng]
Ban-sa-bai restaurant for dinner
 [C+H+pp+ng]
Many seafood such as shrimp, crab, fish, etc*
 [E+H+pp+ng]

Thematic development	
Topical Theme	30
Marked Topical Theme	4
Textual Theme	12
Ellipted Theme	0

Use of NGs in Topical Theme and Complement position
 Second Semester Week 14.

N1	N2	N3	N4	N5	N6	N7	N8	N9	N10	N11	N12	N13	N14	N15	N16	N17	N18	N19
+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+					+			+		+

Discussion

In the second research question, “have the students developed their NGs in Theme/Rheme position in their writing at the end of their first year of university, given a more explicit focus in their course work on the different grammatical choices available to them in writing?”, what we are beginning to see in this Recount is a growing use of complex nominal groups than were found in the first semester of the students’ writing. The

more intensive focus on the various phases of writing development outlined previously may have been a possible contributing factor in developing this more mature writing outcome.

The distribution of nominal groups towards the end of the second semester indicates a greater spread in the use of NGs. It is also significant that N1 nominal groups are no longer dominated by personal pronouns, indicating some awareness of the impersonal aspect of report writing.

PART THREE OF THE PROJECT

The next part of the project involved analyzing texts written by students in the first semester of their third year of English. By this time they had had extensive exposure to Report writing. The example that is analyzed here is a report written in the form of a Memo.

Semester 1 [English 3]

Memo report

To: Surayut Juranon, The Prime Minister,
From: Chavapol Sukhadomchote, Deputy of
Education Minister

Date: 20 September 2007

Subject: Problems of Thai Scholarship project.

Introduction

1. With regard your request, I have studied [the problem of the One District One Scholarship project],
2. **It** started off in 2004 on a grand scale, launched in the Thaksin era.
3. **The project** has been renamed [the Scholarship for Community Development].
4. **The 921 students** *awarded grants to study overseas.
5. **They** were followed by 914 others in the second year.
6. **But due to problems that arose with the first group overseas, the third group, which is still waiting for government approval**, is only 400 strong.
7. **The Civil Service Commission** made [a long-term plan for officials to assist student in choosing their destinations],
8. **Grade A** can choose any country,
9. **while a smaller list of countries** is available for Grade B students.
10. **Grade C students** are limited to attending local universities.
11. **The finding and analysis in this report** are based on [the observation of Education Affair and interviewed with Punrung Punttuhong, the Civil Service Commission's expert on overseas education and Wijit Sri sa-arn, Education Minister].

Findings and Analysis

12. **There** are [many causes of problems in Thai scholarship project].
13. **Firstly, the student** had [problem *with their studies],
14. **those who chose to study in English-speaking countries** selected [courses which require a high level of proficiency in English].
15. **Secondly, the students** are required to take [language courses for 1-2 years in their foreign universities],
16. **it** is feared [that they may not be able to finish their bachelor's degree in 4 years].
17. **Thus, they** will come home [empty-handed at the end of a 6-year scholarship].
18. **Most students** had [problems regarding language and educational background].
19. **Although their average grades** had been* between 3.0 and 4.0,
20. **these** were [upcountry students whose academic backgrounds were not as strong as Bangkok students].
21. **This** can make* they faced [the problem of low grade and point averages]
22. **and they** were not fluent enough in the language of the country they had gone to.
23. As a consequence, of the 921 students in the final group, 93 students had returned from abroad to enroll in Thai private universities,
24. **three** had resigned from the program,
25. **and one** had killed herself.
26. **In addition, 160 others** are now not sure
27. **they** will be able to complete their courses
28. **and others** will need more time than usual

Recommendations

29. **Education Affairs** should set [a central examination and aptitude test] finally*,
30. **It** allow only *[who pass the examination to use scholarship in *abroad].
31. **Education Affairs** should set [a new revolution educational in the country for measuring]
32. **Education** is equal in the nationwide.
33. **Education Affair** should send [the psychological doctor to check Thai

- student who got scholarship in every year for checking their stress].
34. **Education Affair** should select [the countries for each student]
35. *because it* will be equal for* [every student who get Thai scholarship].
- Conclusion
36. **I** strongly believe
37. **the implement in recommendation** will make Thailand save more money to pay for [Thai scholarship students]
38. **and the student who get Thai scholarship to study in abroad** will have more proficiencies to make [a contribution to the country's development].
39. **And they** are brilliant students received [education at good universities in abroad].
- Findings**
- Following the genre of Report writing, what is very noticeable is the reduced number of personal pronouns in Topical theme position. Where *I* is used in the Conclusion, this would be expected in a Report genre, also the use of the impersonal *it*:
- It started off*
It is feared that...
*It allow only**
- However, what is significant is the extensive use of complex nominal groups in Topical Theme position.
- D+H+ relative clause
due to problems that arose with the first group overseas, the third group, which is still waiting for government approval
- the students who get Thai scholarship to study in abroad**
- H+ relative clause
Those who chose to study in English speaking countries
- D+N+H+pp+ng
The 921 students in the final group
*The implement*in recommendation*
- D+N+H
The 921 students
- D+H [and] H+pp+ng
The findings and analysis in this report
- D+E+H+pp+ng
a smaller list of countries
- D+E+H
Their average grades
- D+C+H
The Civil Service Commission
- It is also worth looking at some samples of the growing use of complex nominal groups in *Complement* position, as clearly the writer is using these very effectively.
- D+E+H+pp+ng
A long-term plan for officials to assist student in choosing their destination
- D+H+pp+ng
the observation of Education Affair and interviews with Punrung Puntuhong, the Civil Service Commission's expert on overseas education and Wjit sri sa-arn, Education Minister.
- D+H+pp+ng
the problem of the One District One Scholarship project
- the problem of low grade and point average*
- N+H+pp+ng
many causes of problems in Thai scholarship project
- D+E+C+H+pp+ng
a new revolution educational in the country for measuring*
- H+ Relative Clause
courses which require a high level of proficiency in English
**who pass the examination to use scholarship abroad.*
- D+H+Relative Clause
the country they had gone to
- N+H+relative clause
every student who get Thai scholarship
- C+H+relative clause
upcountry students whose academic backgrounds were not as strong as Bangkok students
- D+C+H [and] C+H
a central examination and aptitude test

D+C+H+ Non finite clause
*the psychological doctor to check Thai student
 a contribution to the country's development*

As a consequence [more marked than simply
 textual]

Marked Topical Themes

With regard your request [this is formulaic as
 an opening]

Textual themes

Conjunctions: *but, while, thus, although,
 because, and.* Conjunctionives; *firstly, secondly,
 in addition*

Thematic development	
Topical Theme	38
Marked Topical Theme	2
Textual Theme	13
Ellipted Theme	0

Use of NGs in Topical Theme and Complement position
 Semester 1 [English 3]

N1	N2	N3	N4	N5	N6	N7	N8	N9	N10	N11	N12	N13	N14	N15	N16	N17	N18	N19
+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+									+	+	+

Discussion

In handling the third research question, “have the students developed the NG in Theme/Rheme position at the beginning of the third year of their English program with specific reference to the “academic” forms of writing used in Business English?”, at this stage in their writing, these students seem to have acquired control over the more important

areas identified in Report writing. Given the major role that Reports play in these Business students’ academic degrees, the teaching program piloted in this study seems to attain some measure of success. However, it is noticeable the preposition phrase as post-modifier (pp+ng) dominates the use of nominal groups. Further investigation into other genres such as argumentation or persuasion might give a different pattern.

Figure 2: Distribution of NGs

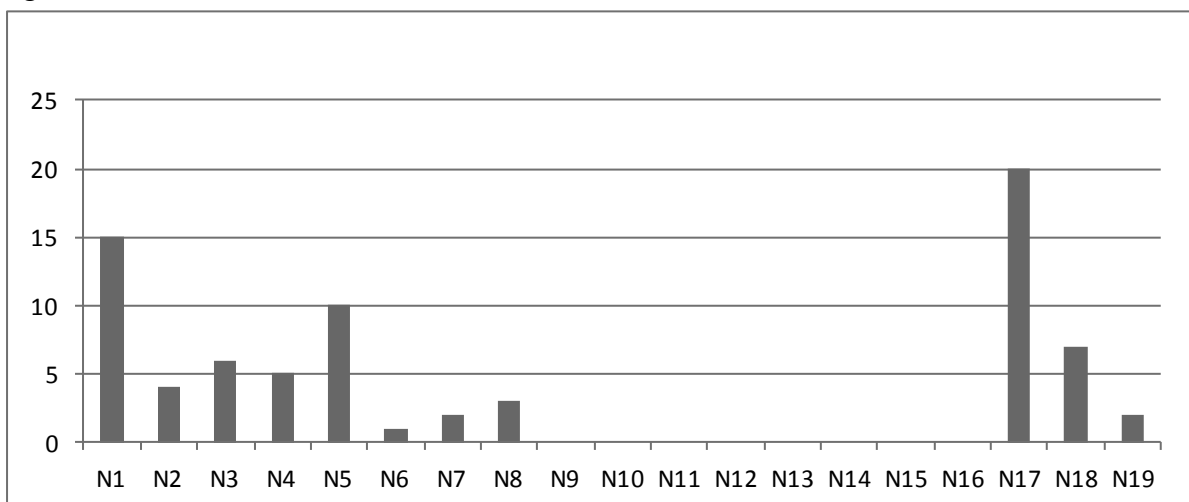
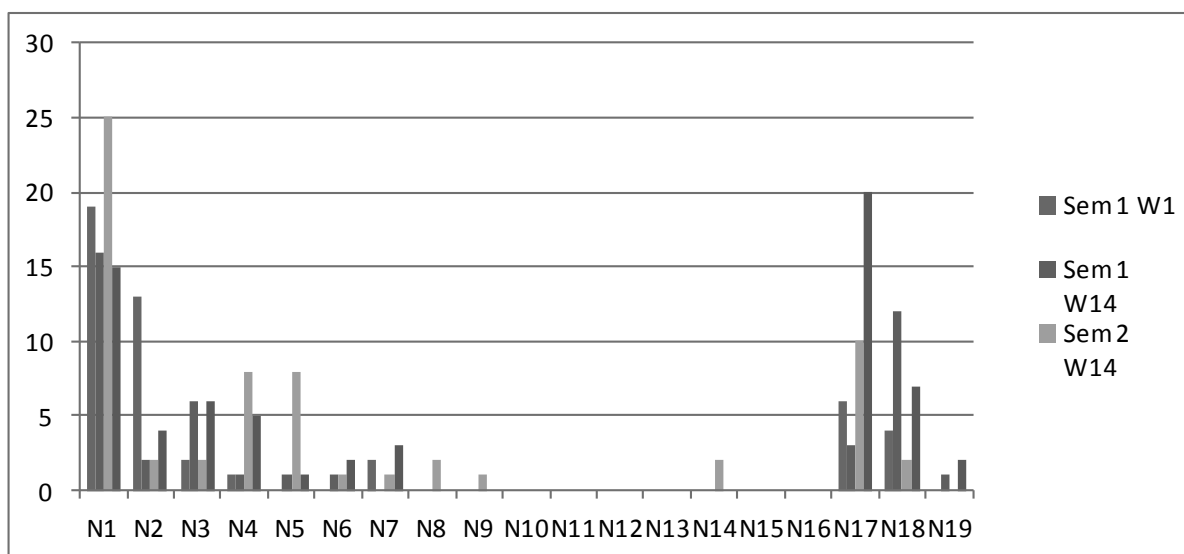


Figure 3: A comparison of the distribution and frequency of NGs from Semester 1 week 1; week 14; Semester 2 and Semester 1 of the third year of study.



This graph gives some indication of the growing use of complex nominal groups in the students' writing as they enter the third year of university. In such a small sample of writing, frequency would not be considered a major factor; but rather, the distribution of the nominal groups as the type of *genre* would have more impact on frequency as would the actual length of writing. It was also quite noticeable that the more complex nominal groups came in the rheme rather than in topical theme position. However, a much larger sample would have to be taken to draw any conclusions about the success of the genre approach to improve the academic writing of the students.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to see what effect the implementation of a genre-based approach to writing might have on the development of "academic" writing of university undergraduates. The focus was on the nominal group in Topical and Marked Topical themes position. The rationale behind this is that in each text there are different patterns of what comes first in the clause: this is how the genre, the overall social purpose of the writer and the mode, the interaction or

planning of the language is constructed. In writing, where the text is generally planned and edited, and normally, some thought goes into the organizing of the text and making clear its overall direction. Writers, therefore, have to be careful to make the necessary connections in the first part of the clause to summarize and link what follows.

Shifting focus when writing is very important and careful planning may need signposts to indicate what direction the text is taking. When linguists say that something is "unmarked," they mean it is the most common or expected. Conversely, when they say that something is "marked," they mean it is unusual and should be noticed because of the way it stands out; in other words, the text is taking a particular direction. Because choices are meaningful, when we find Marked Themes we look for the purpose behind the writer's patterning; the purpose may be to draw the reader's attention to a particular group or phrase, but more often than not it is to build a coherent text that is easy to follow.

A program, such as one based on the theory of "genre," which scaffolds the students' writing, can be useful, especially in an EFL context, to develop the language resources in different subject areas. Content

knowledge and skills cannot be separated from the linguistic means, through which that knowledge and skill is manifest. Approaches to content-based language instruction (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989) can be enriched through an understanding of "content," especially at university level. Consequently, as the difficulty of the concepts increases, we want the students' learning of the language that construes those concepts to also become more complex. For example, the movement from the presentation of a new idea in the rheme of one clause to the re-presentation of the same information in the theme of a succeeding sentence is a feature of academic writing that typically involves nominalization. Such forms of nominalization are often a dominant feature of many academic and scientific texts. Consequently, writing programs need to be developed that explicitly teach the strategies that are expected of the students in their writing. Such programs have to develop the linguistic capacities (such as complex nominal groups and nominalization) that display the students' knowledge. If students are unable to draw on the meaning-making resources of academic discourse, then they will be unable to fully demonstrate what they are capable of.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ENGLISH-ONLY POLICY IN THE TERTIARY EFL CONTEXT IN TAIWAN

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Abstract: The implementation of English-only policy in the English classes at Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages in Taiwan has continued for nearly 40 years. Its advantages and disadvantages have also been debated and challenged because of the rising demands on students' English proficiency in Taiwan. This study intended to reexamine the efficiency of the implementation of English-only policy in the English learning at a college of languages in Taiwan. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in the process of data collection. 279 English major and non-English major students were invited to answer questionnaires, and six participants were invited to join interviews. The process of data analysis included the analysis of both the quantitative questionnaire data and the qualitative interview data. This study found students' progress in English listening and speaking proficiency in the basic and lower-intermediate levels because of English-only policy. However, the interaction between teachers and some students was hampered because of the policy. Also, the ambiguity emerging in the insistence on using English only blocked some learners from comprehending the meanings of the texts they were learning, specifically the texts in the upper-intermediate and intermediate-advanced levels of English reading and writing courses. This study also found that proper tolerance of using both students' native language and English in TEFL classes in the way of code-switching may help students more than the implementation of English-only policy in a tertiary TEFL context.

Key words: English-only policy, TEFL, Taiwan, college English teaching

Abstrak: Penerapan penggunaan kebijakan bahasa-Inggris-saja (*English-only policy*) di kelas-kelas bahasa Inggris di Wenzao Ursuline Institute telah berlangsung selama hampir 40 tahun. Manfaat dan kerugiannya telah diperdebatkan dan dipermasalahkan karena meningkatnya tuntutan akan kecakapan bahasa Inggris siswa di Taiwan. Kajian ini bertujuan meneliti ulang kedayagunaan penerapan kebijakan bahasa Inggris saja dalam pembelajaran bahasa Inggris di sebuah institut bahasa di Taiwan. Metode kualitatif dan kuantitatif digunakan dalam proses pengumpulan data. Sebanyak 279 mahasiswa dari jurusan bahasa Inggris dan jurusan lainnya diundang untuk menjawab angket, dan enam orang peserta diundang untuk wawancara. Proses analisa data mencakup baik data kuantitatif dari angket maupun data kualitatif wawancara. Kajian ini menemukan kemajuan siswa dalam kecakapan mendengarkan dan berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris di tingkat dasar dan menengah bawah berkat kebijakan bahasa Inggris saja. Akan tetapi, interaksi antara siswa dan beberapa guru terhambat karena kebijakan tersebut. Selain itu, keambiguan yang muncul dalam desakan penggunaan bahasa Inggris saja menghambat beberapa pelajar dalam memahami makna dari teks-teks yang mereka pelajari, terutama teks di tingkatan menengah atas dan menengah mahir dalam mata kuliah membaca dan menulis bahasa Inggris. Kajian ini juga menemukan bahwa toleransi yang tepat dalam penggunaan bahasa ibu siswa dan bahasa Inggris di kelas-kelas bahasa Inggris untuk penutur asing dalam bentuk *code-switching* bisa membantu siswa lebih baik daripada penerapan kebijakan bahasa Inggris saja dalam konteks bahasa Inggris untuk penutur asing tersier.

Kata kunci: kebijakan bahasa Inggris saja, TEFL (Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris sebagai Bahasa Asing), Taiwan, pengajaran bahasa Inggris tingkat universitas

Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages in Kaohsiung, Taiwan, is a college that started implementing English-only policy in its English classes as early as around 1970. At the time in Taiwan, most schools taught English in the Grammar-Translation method and focused on assisting students to pass the entrance examinations of senior highs and colleges. However, as Wenzao is in the Technical and Vocational system of education in Taiwan, its consideration of students' career development in a globalized society prompted its implementation of the English-only policy in all English courses.

As most students in the Technical and Vocational system of education in Taiwan usually start applying for a job right after they graduate, the focus of the English education at Wenzao is on providing students with pragmatic and solid English proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing for their job requirements. In the 1970s, different from the English education at other schools in Taiwan, which focused on making their students pass the written tests in English in the entrance examinations, the English education at Wenzao focused on providing students with the opportunities to perform better English proficiency in their worksites. Instead of only focusing on reading and writing as in other schools, Wenzao placed no less emphasis on listening and speaking, which was highlighted by the implementation of English-only policy in all English classes.

At Wenzao, English is taught in an EFL tertiary context. Implementing the English-only policy diverts students' attention from merely reading English textbooks and acquiring bookish English ability to using English as daily communication skills. For students at Wenzao, English is more than a "course" to help pass examinations; instead, it has become a skill that provides them with the opportunities to excel in their daily communication with foreigners and in their worksites in the future. They acquire the proficiency to "communicate with people" more than enhancing the memorization of the crammed data to provide answers on

"a piece of test paper." For most Wenzao students, English has played the roles of broadening their views to foreign countries and strengthening their confidence after they acquire the language proficiency to perform a successful communication with foreigners, specifically native English speakers, during friends-making, daily activities or career establishment.

Because of the emphasis on English-only instruction, listening and speaking were more emphasized and fluency was more focused than accuracy at Wenzao. Students were taught to express English spontaneously. However, their expression was sometimes accompanied with grammatical errors, improper word choices or unclear and pidgin sentence structures. Improper communication or ambiguity often emerged and students were usually in the status of "rough guessing," instead of being in the status of "clear and precise understanding" between the two parties of communication.

Wenzao English teachers aimed to teach students to present themselves in English naturally and confidently, after they were educated with the English-only policy. Also, around 30 years ago, the result of such an education might have matched the demand of the Technical and Vocational education in Taiwan in forming an intermediate-level workforce to conduct international communication in the world. However, when more delicate and sophisticated English proficiency is required, besides fluency, accuracy is more than expected. Accordingly, the achievement of English education at Wenzao acquired in the past few decades has become inadequate because of students' lack of accuracy in English (Mylod, 2000), and the insistence on implementing the English-only policy in English classrooms met challenges and required reexamining.

English-only policy, as was discussed in Auerbach (1993), was both supported and challenged by different English educators and policy makers in ESL. In order to promote the national interest of the USA in immersing the non-native English speakers, specifically the immigrants, English-only policy

was implemented in ESL classes and the implementation made native English teachers take the policy as the most workable way because it is difficult for different immigrants to effectively communicate with one another in an ESL class using different foreign languages. However, the unsteady efficiency of learning English using English-only in ESL classes mentioned in Auerbach (1993) reveals the necessity of reconsidering the insistence of the English-only-policy.

Huang (2009) explained that English-only instruction improves students' listening proficiency and vocabulary. Also, students acquire more confidence when they are required to express themselves in spoken English. However, it is inevitable that students may confront tension and stress from peers in an English-only class. Specifically worth noticing in the implementation of English-only instruction is that students' proficiency levels, learning environments and students' interests may not be all well-observed and students feel disoriented in the class, when English-only instruction is implemented. Huang (2009) has suggested that in order to implement English-only instruction successfully, teachers' proficiency in rephrasing terms and interpreting ideas using a simple way or concrete examples should be strongly required. With such proficiency, teachers will be able to help students understand the content in English clearly and avoid ambiguity in the interaction between the teacher and students in the class taught in English only. Furthermore, the tolerance of L1 may also help.

According to Tien (2009), the implementation of L1 in the form of code-switching in an EFL class in Taiwan helps "avoid and resolve tensions and conflicts" (Tien, 2009, p. 188) between English teachers and learners. Also, as Tien (2009) found, it may help English teachers clearly explain English lexical items, phrases, sentences and grammatical rules. Besides, the allowance of L1 may make classroom management smoother and the teacher may also "build up solid relationship with students in classrooms" (Tien, 2009, p. 188). Accordingly, the

allowance of L1 does not only provide both teachers and learners better opportunities to complete the tasks of teaching and learning English language in an EFL context, it also consolidates classroom management and enhances the relationship between teachers and learners, which may advance the success of English language teaching.

The coercion of using English-only policy, according to Han (2004), may breed some phenomenological effects of fluency in teaching. However, more hidden problems related to lack of accuracy are actually waived from discussion because of the coercion of the policy by the decision makers and policy makers of English education at some institutes. The disadvantages of insufficient accuracy and lack of idiomatic English expression might become rooted and fossilized (Han 2004) and hard to be negotiated when they were found.

As Raschka, Sercombe, and Huang (2009) argued, trying to use only one language to teach English in such an EFL context as Taiwan is not practical because very obviously when the teacher and the learners of English are all L1 (Mandarin) speakers, the insistence on the English-only policy may meet challenges more than imaginable. It is also argued that "English-only seems to be a lazy rule" (Raschka, Sercombe & Huang, 2009, p. 170). It is "lazy" very possibly because it offers the teacher who knows only English the opportunity not to understand L1 when teaching English to non-native speakers in ESL or EFL contexts. The defense of English as the legality of English teaching may be used to cover such "laziness" and incapability of code-switching.

Tsao & Lin (2004) provided a research result about English-only instruction in Taiwan with a broader view. English-only instruction improves students' listening comprehension more than reading comprehension. However, according to Tsao & Lin (2004), the implementation of English-only instruction does not bring any significant change on students' learning anxiety, learning attitudes and learning motivation. Furthermore, when the research participants came from different

levels of education, such as primary school pupils and university students, the findings are different. English-only instruction offers a more positive impact on primary school pupils than on university students. Besides, according to Tsao & Lin (2004)'s empirical research, the influence of English-only instruction on the group of students taught in English only has little difference from that on the group of students taught in L1 only. The research concludes that it seems not necessary to implement English only. L1 should be allowed, but the allowance of students' native language should be confined in the situation when the teacher needs to explain grammatical structure and difficult vocabulary, explain complicated concepts, conduct class management, convey important administrative information, such as homework, exams, etc., fill up the communication gap and advance the interaction between teachers and students.

The challenge of English-only is specific in Japan. According to Hiroko, Miho & Mahoney (2004), "many [Japanese students] express reluctance to participate in English-only class" (Hiroko, Miho & Mahoney, 2004, p. 486). Students in Japan might not be so averse to English learning; however, they usually prefer that their English teachers use Japanese in their English classes when necessary (Hiroko, Miho & Mahoney 2004). Besides, for Japanese, since only those who may use English in their jobs need fluent English, taking English as the second official language in Japan is not an idea suitable for the Japanese society.

A similar case emerges in Korea, according to the study of Liu, Ahn, Baek & Han (2004), it seems that even though English-only is suggested in the high school English classes in Korea, "the teachers use English primarily to greet, give directions, and ask questions and they use Korean mostly to explain grammar and vocabulary," or "when they feel their students have difficulty understanding" (p. 632). In the high schools in Korea, though 50%-60% of English should be used in the English classes is considered as the goal in 2004, English-only is still making

both teachers and students challenged.

In another study by Wei & Wu (2009), a policy similar to English-only instruction was actually challenged by some Chinese students in the complementary schools in England. The students, disregarding the demand on the One Language Only (OLON) or One Language at a Time (OLAT), defy the demand and try to use their Chinese language proficiency to challenge the teachers' authority and even influence class interaction.

Similar to the above-mentioned research in various countries, some students at Wenzao College in Taiwan in recent years have tried to negotiate the demand of the English-only policy. This prompts the necessity to conduct research to understand how to reconsider the pedagogy implementation and curriculum arrangement in the English-only classrooms in the tertiary context in Taiwan.

METHOD

This study implemented both quantitative and qualitative methods. In order to find out learners' response towards English-only policy, using a questionnaire with 11 questions, in which three categories of issues were included, I collected quantitative data. The three categories were students' progress in English listening and speaking proficiencies, the interaction between teachers and students, and the ambiguity emerging in the insistence on using English only. 279 respondents answered the questionnaire. The answers on the questionnaire are on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. The last question is semi-open and students may write their own answers on the last part of the question.

In order to collect in-depth answers to explore the responses of the learners who were taught with English only, six participants at Wenzao College were invited to be interviewed. Each interview was conducted in around one hour and recorded with a tape recorder. All interviews were conducted in Mandarin as the interviewees felt more comfortable with responding in their native language. All the recording of the interviews was transcribed

by the author into English in Word files. The answers of the questions provide the author an opportunity to cross-check the data in order to reach the trustworthiness/reliability of the research project (Merriam, 1998).

The interviews were conducted after the questionnaire answers were collected. Therefore, in the interviews, the results of the questionnaire were mentioned to elicit the interviewees' responses. When some related questions emerged in the interviews, the interviewer followed the answers to ask further questions in order to seek deeper interaction and in-depth response from the interviewees (Kvale, 1996).

In data analysis, the data collected in the questionnaire were analyzed in a quantitative way. Simple sum-and-mean calculation was made from the questionnaire answers and then used to conduct the analysis about the relationship of the three categories of the questionnaire questions and cross-check the data acquired in the interviews. However, in order to focus on the exploration of the implementation of English-only policy, the qualitative aspect of an in-depth analysis of the interviews was more emphasized.

The accounts of the interviewees were taken to cross check the trustworthiness of the content of each interview. In addition, the result of the questionnaires was taken to cross check the content of the interviews to confirm the validity of both the interview and questionnaire data. Accordingly, this research project used the data collected from both quantitative and qualitative method to triangulate each other to avoid the disadvantages of implementing one method only (Neuman, 2000).

When the data from the questionnaire and interviews were analyzed and presented in the section of discussion of findings, all the names of the interviewees in this paper were pseudonyms. All the data quoted directly in the discussion of findings of this paper were sent to the interviewees for their confirmation and consent before they were presented in public.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This study found that most students at Wenzao approved the implementation of English-only policy in their English classes, and their confidence was strengthened. Confidence strengthening is also confirmed in Tsao & Lin (2004) who found the positive function of English-only instruction on students' confidence building. This is probably one of the most important functions of English-only policy in English classes.

According to the results acquired from Question 1 of the questionnaire, "Do you approve English-only policy at Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages?" 85.3% (238 out of 279 valid questionnaire answers collected) approved English-only policy. There are several explanations for the high percentage of approval. Tom, one of the interviewees, explained that "when there is an English-only program, students will try to keep up with the teacher and keep learning" (Tom, interview, May 11, 2010). What Tom tried to express is that as a non-native English speaker, when learning English, the learner has to concentrate on listening to the sound of the language. Otherwise, it might not be easy to catch what the speaker says. Tom's opinion was also supported by Nana, who approved English only teaching because it helped students acquire language fluency:

In other universities, every time students do not understand what the teacher said, the teacher may explain it in Chinese. However, at Wenzao, the teacher needs to explain it in English and it makes students able to be fluent in the language (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

Nana gave her positive emphasis on the use of English-only teaching. It indicates that using Chinese all the time when one learns English may block the learners' opportunities of forming the habit of using English naturally. Kathy mentioned that:

[i]f you study here and would like to learn English but all the time you hear Chinese, I

feel that it is of no help. Instead, if you like something and you try to be with it all the time, you will get improved [and form the habit of using the language naturally] (Kathy, Interview, May 10, 2010).

The data collected from Tom, Nana and Kathy confirm the approval of the implementation of English-only teaching in an English classroom and pinpoint the importance of forming the habit of using English naturally.

Progress in listening and speaking proficiencies

This study found that students made progress in English speaking and listening proficiency in the basic and lower-intermediate levels of English classes because of English-only policy. The finding matches the result of students' improvement in listening comprehension in Tsao & Lin (2004) and Huang (2009). Students were urged to use English only in their English classes no matter they liked it or not. Accordingly, students needed to concentrate on listening to any other speaker in the class and do their best to express themselves in English. This, in some way, made students get used to English sound and English sentence patterns. Also, under the circumstance where students had no other choice but use English, their repetitive usage of English shaped them to be more confident in speaking English.

In Question 4, "Do you think the English-only policy will increase students' listening comprehension?" 92.1% of students agreed that there was positive effect on students' listening comprehension. According to Question 3, "Do you think the whole English instruction can improve students' English communication abilities?" 85.8% of students gave positive answers.

The data collected from the interviewees reveal that Tom, Kathy, Nana and Lisa all agreed that English-only teaching enhanced their listening comprehension and communication ability. In Question 2, "Do you think the English-only pedagogy will enhance students' all English abilities?" 87.1% agreed

that students' whole English ability was enhanced. However, for Question 2 related to all English abilities, different interviewees gave different answers. Nana said:

I feel that in listening and speaking, English-only teaching helps. But in writing, it helps not much because in grammar and writing, no matter how the teacher explains in English, still, my grammar and writing do not improve so much (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

Lisa had similar opinion to Nana's; however, Lisa had her explanation:

I feel that English-only teaching will certainly help one a lot in listening and speaking. As for reading and writing, I think it requires attending the classes to improve them. But since in reading and writing, the courses are still conducted in English only, and you have to keep on listening and speaking in English, certainly your ability of listening and speaking will improve (Lisa, Interview, May 13, 2010).

It seems that both Nana and Lisa acquired progress in listening and speaking and casted doubt on the effect of English only on reading and writing. In their data, both of them seemed to claim grammar as the reason of their low improvement in reading and writing. When English grammar is taught in English only, both of them confronted challenges. Nana explained:

It also depends on the difficulty level of the grammar taught. Some just make me feel that no matter how, it is still difficult to understand. For example, in high school, when the teacher taught English Modal, even though it was taught in Chinese, we still needed to keep on asking our classmates about what the teacher was teaching (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

Nana's explanation reveals that it is challenging for students to understand some of the English grammar when the teacher teaches it in English only. Lisa was a student who spoke English fluently, but she still felt

challenged when she needed to learn English grammar in English:

In grammar, it is arguable. I may understand it, but for some parts which look similar, I may get confused. But, if the teacher gave us exercises, well, fine. But, most grammar was taught once only, and then, it was not taught again. Even though it is not taught in English, it is still easy to be forgotten, especially in the part of the grammar that usually makes me feel confused (Lisa, Interview, May 13, 2010).

The opinions of both Nana and Lisa do not mean that no learner at Wenzao acquired improvement in all English abilities. Kathy was the person who attributed her progress in English to the English-only pedagogy when she was taught in English only in a year:

When I was in the first year of the five-year college, I got only 99 points in College English Test¹ [out of the full mark of 380]. At the time, I felt that my English was very good because in the Entrance Examination for Wenzao, my score was a full mark [100] and I liked English very much. However, after I got the score of College English Test, I found that I was really poor in English. Compared to other students, I was really, really bad, but when I was in the second year of five-year college [at Wenzao], I had already got more than 210 points [out of the full mark of 380] (Kathy, Interview, May 10, 2010).

Kathy's opinion might indicate that it is possible that in the beginning or at the lower beginning levels of English classes, the implementation of English-only policy did help some students. However, in the upper-intermediate and intermediate-advanced levels of English classes, not only in reading and writing but also in listening and speaking, there are challenges on the interaction between teachers and students.

Interaction between teachers and students

This study found that more than half of the students at Wenzao felt challenged when they

needed to respond in English. According to the result of Question 5, "Do you think in the whole English instruction students will have difficulty in responding to the English questions?" 18 (6.5%) strongly agreed, 134 (48%) agreed and 83 (29.7%) answered neither. If we take half of the neither as "agree," 42 (14.9%) it will be considered positive in the answer. Then, 69.4% of the students responded that they had difficulty in responding to English questions. This indicates that more than two thirds of the students felt challenged in demonstrating their speaking proficiency when they were taught in English only. From the data of interviews, almost all interviewees expressed being challenged when responding in English. Tom explained why it was so:

When I don't know the vocabulary or when I could not find suitable words to express myself, it makes me at a loss and I could not express the meanings completely. Sometimes it might be that I couldn't understand what the teacher said and I could not answer it. Mostly, I think my problems came from lacking of sufficient vocabulary (Tom, Interview, May 11, 2010).

Vocabulary might be the reason; however, in Kathy's case, the challenges came from the ability of organization:

In a course, I understand what is taught. I know the answer. However, it is impossible for me to express it completely. That is why it makes me feel annoyed because I feel that I know a lot of vocabulary and I am good at memorizing vocabulary. But, I don't know why I have no idea about how to use the words I know. Probably I have a poor ability of organization. I scarcely have chances to practice expressing myself in English (Kathy, Interview, May 10, 2010).

Practice may be Kathy's problem. However, Kathy mentioned that Lisa usually had opportunities talking with native speakers and communicating with friends in English only. This does not guarantee that there were no challenges for Lisa. Lisa still felt challenged

¹ The full mark of College English Test in Taiwan is 380 points.

in some situations when native speakers did not understand her:

Probably they did not really know what I was talking about. Yes, and I personally feel very embarrassed. It seems that my ability is not good enough to make the teacher clearly understand me. I thought that probably I should try to improve my English and just pass away from the embarrassment in the class (Lisa, Interview, May 13, 2010).

According to Lisa, there seemed to be some ambiguity, specifically in the communication with native speakers when only English can be used. Nana's experience with the American teacher John (anonymous) is the example to support this argument:

When John asked me questions with high speed, I did not know how to answer. When students answered, he was not good at guessing what words students were using. Usually, after we found some words and expressed them, he just could not understand us. Or maybe we just understood part of his question and answered him. But after we answered, he felt confused and that made us also feel confused and hesitate in whether to continue answering him or not (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

According to the answers of Question 3, "Do you think the whole English instruction can improve students' English communication abilities?" 85.8% of students agreed that their communication abilities did improve. However, considering both the answers of Question 3 and 5, in which 69.4% answered that they had difficulty in responding to English questions, I infer that students under English-only instruction may acquire the opportunities to listen and talk and they may interpret the access to more listening and speaking as "improvement of communication abilities." Actually, the improvement could be interpreted as the improvement of communication "opportunities," instead of "proficiencies." More than 69% of them agreed that their "proficiencies" in communication,

specifically in speaking according to the answer in question 5, required improvement.

The English teacher might be able to grasp students' meaning if the teacher had more experiences of international and intercultural communication. However, if the teacher is not familiar with the learners' L1, it might not be easy for the teacher to "guess" what the learners mean when they hear or read the words and the sentence patterns the learners use. This may be further explained by the answers to Question 9, "Do you think under the whole English instruction environment, foreign teachers will be more appropriate than local teachers?" 9.3% of students strongly agreed, 22.9% agreed and 35.5% neither agreed nor disagreed. Taking half of neither as "agree," the positive answer will be 50%. Then, it means that the other 50% of students disagreed. The result from Question 9, different from the myth that English learners always want native speaking teachers, reveals a 50-50 preference, and it is also supported by the data in the interviews. Tom's answer supports the result of the questionnaire from 279 respondents:

I feel there is no difference because when a foreigner uses English to teach, the teacher is just using his or her native language. But for a local teacher, I think at least the local teacher has certain capability and is able to speak English as fluently as a native teacher as long as the teacher is recruited to teach at Wenzao (Tom, Interview, May 11, 2010).

The demand of Wenzao College may be one of the reasons that make students feel there is no difference between foreign teachers or local teachers in the college when they teach English in English only. However, according to Nana, both had their merits and defects:

I would say, not necessarily. There are both advantages and disadvantages. In the case of a local teacher, when we don't understand something, we might be able to ask in Chinese and the teacher may explain it in Chinese to make us understand it. In the case of a native teacher, when students don't understand some

words or some idea, the native teacher has tried his or her best to explain it, but students still could not understand it (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

Another interpretation is that different English courses may require different teachers. Some might require native speakers and others might require local teachers. According to Lisa:

It depends on the English courses taught. For listening and speaking, I think native speakers are more suitable. Native speakers' pronunciation and their ways of speaking will be suitable for students to get familiar with (Lisa, Interview, May 13, 2010).

Besides teachers' capability, merits and defects and differences of English courses, teachers' understanding about learners' cultural background might also be one of the reasons to consider whether native English teachers or local teachers are preferred. When learners' L1 is of a linguistic system different from that of English, the teacher's understanding of learners' English usually counts on the teacher's capability of distinguishing the differences between English and the learner's L1. It is not easy for a teacher without the background of a learner's L1 to precisely grasp the meanings of the learner and provide simple and clear explanations to students because ambiguity may emerge.

The ambiguity emerging in the insistence of English-only policy

The study also found that the ambiguity led by English-only teaching brings burden of learning and communicating to students. When students' vocabulary, sentence patterns and the background knowledge of English culture is insufficient, it is highly possible that teachers' explanation of the texts in reading courses may turn to be difficult to be understood by the students, and students' expression in writing may not be understood by the teacher either. Under the circumstance, the insistence on using English only in

reading and writing courses in an EFL context may become unsuitable. That is why, in the answers to Question 8, "When students couldn't understand what a teacher said in English, could they ask the teacher to explain it in Chinese?" 72.1% of students agreed that they needed the assistance of their native language to avoid the emergence of ambiguity in communication. Corresponding to the percentage acquired in the questionnaire, two out of three interviewees offered similar answers to this question. Tom, who had all the time immersed himself in English by seeing English movies and TV programs, was the person who felt that it was not so necessary for the teacher to explain in Chinese:

There is no such a problem. Probably the teacher rephrased the question or explanation and I could get it. But there is not anything so difficult that students need to ask teachers to explain in Chinese. To understand the teacher in English, preview turns are very important. We need to take some ways to compensate our lack of English listening proficiency. In the first class, if a student finds that he or she does not understand or cannot catch up with the teacher, then one needs to get a good preparation before coming to the class (Tom, Interview, May 11, 2010).

However, Tom's answer does not completely exclude the necessity of using Chinese in the class. For some special situations, he agreed that he needed the assistance of Chinese:

For some terms, for example, at the beginning of an article teaching, there might be some introduction about the article that mentions this -ism or that -ism, such as realism or romanticism, then it is better that the teacher explains it in Chinese (Tom, Interview, May 11, 2010).

However, in a different situation, Nana confronted challenges because she was taught by a native English speaker. She was desperate when no Chinese could be offered from the native English speaker to help her understand and communicate:

When students don't understand some idea, the native teacher has tried his/her best to explain it in English, but students still could not understand it. Also, there is the problem with communication. For example, I ever raised a question to a native teacher, but he did not understand what I was asking. Probably, I had problems with my grammar or something. I was wondering whether the native teacher really understood me or not. When I said something and the teacher heard what I said, he responded. But I found that it was not what I meant to ask. A local teacher is usually capable of guessing what I meant in Chinese when I expressed in English and tried to use another sentence or word to confirm what I meant. However, the native teacher couldn't do so and I could not ask the native teacher in Chinese and the native teacher couldn't answer me in Chinese. And I will think, oh, forget it, don't ask (Nana, Interview, May 12, 2010).

Nana's desperate situation might be released if she had had a teacher who could have explained to her in either understandable English or Chinese, as judged from Nana's reaction. Lisa's experience may explain why 72% of 279 students affirmed the need of the assistance in Chinese:

Now I am taking a course of practical grammar. The [local] teacher teaches us in English basically, but sometimes he says, "Ok, I will explain it again in Chinese." I feel it is good. When one listens to grammar rules in English, very possibly one just understands 50% of it. One might wonder where one is going to put some words. After the teacher explains it in Chinese again, it will impress us more. I feel it is not bad. I feel that for grammar and writing courses, it is suitable to use Chinese sometimes. It is a good idea to use our mother language as a bridge to help us express ourselves more clearly and learn English more efficiently (Lisa, Interview, May 13, 2010).

In the case of communication, conversational or written, the mutual understanding may count on the assistance of the understanding of different cultures

for a successful intercultural communication between a native English speaker and a non-native English speaker. If L1 is not allowed to be used in an ESL or EFL classroom, sometimes the interaction between teachers and some students might be unsuccessful and the ambiguity expands because of English-only policy.

Proper tolerance of using both L1 and L2

Accordingly, in a tertiary TEFL context, proper tolerance of using both students' native language and English in TEFL classes may help students more than the implementation of English-only policy. Similar to what is presented in Auerbach (1993), the tolerance of using both students' native language and English in an ESL classroom may allow both the teacher and students more possibility to understand each other and understand what is being taught. This is also revealed in Tsao & Lin (2004).

Students may not need teachers to provide Chinese explanation about the terms or abstract concepts as long as the teachers know how to use suitable, simple and clear words and sentences to explain complicated ideas. This is why in the answers to Question 10, 58.8% of students agreed that the teachers did not need to provide Chinese explanation. However, this does not mean that when students have problems understanding the terms or abstract concepts, they give up the option that their teachers communicate with them in L1. The findings in both Tsao and Lin (2004) and Liu, Ahn, Baer and Han (2004) support implementing L1 to explain terms and abstract concepts. That is why, in the answers to Question 8, 72.1% of students agreed that they would like their teacher to explain terms and abstract concepts in Chinese.

In a word, students may like their teachers to use English to give explanation so that they may learn to understand and express their thoughts in English fluently. However, when ambiguity emerges and students find that they cannot understand what exactly the teacher teaches and, they cannot express themselves in accuracy, they still consider taking the

assistance of their native language the final resort. Fluency might be what English-only instruction usually offers; however, when accuracy faces challenges because of the emergence of ambiguity, native language should not be sacrificed without any reason.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study found that most students at Wenzao College in Taiwan approved the implementation of English-only policy in their English classes. They revealed that teaching English in English only made them improved a lot in listening. As for speaking, they might have mistaken “having more opportunities” of speaking in English as “improving speaking proficiency”; however, it is ascertained that they felt more confident in speaking in public in the guidance of English-only teaching.

However, English-only teaching made more than two third of the students at Wenzao College feel burdened when they needed to respond in English. Some of them also felt challenged in higher level of reading and writing classes when only English was allowed because of the emergence of ambiguity in their communication with the teachers, specifically native-speaking English teachers. Accordingly, the allowance of L1 in EFL in the tertiary English education in reading and writing courses may help students acquire clearer comprehension and produce more confidence in sophisticated English expression. The pedagogy of English grammar may need more allowance of L1 in order to help students use English more confidently in formal written works and avoid the ambiguity in communication.

Furthermore, to implement English-only teaching counts on the consideration of teacher’s capability of explaining complicated terms and concepts in simple and clear words and ways, grouping students into suitable levels to avoid the burden to students in the two extreme sides of levels in a class, and the allowance of certain L1 in a course according to the complicatedness of the course content.

When a teacher is going to teach in English only, the teacher has to be able to use the English students are able to understand in teaching. Otherwise, the teacher may just confuse students and English-only teaching may not make sense under the circumstance.

English-only teaching is more suitable for small classes. It will offer teachers more chances to understand the challenges students confront, and students could have more chances to practice. What is important is that teachers have to understand students’ situation. They need to know how to teach in English only to non-native speakers. If there are 40 or 50 students in a class, they are probably surrounded by a few students who speak English well and some who do not really know how to answer in English. For those in between in a big class, the teachers might not be able take care of students’ learning when English only is implemented.

All three aspects have to be observed together in English-only teaching. The implementation of English-only teaching requires English teachers to possess the capability of rephrasing difficult words and concepts in understandable English, suitable grouping of students, and careful evaluation of the challenges of the content of the courses to be taught in English-only.

Wenzao College in Taiwan has implemented English only for more than 40 years, but not all students were able to pass the stage of ambiguity in comprehending input and performing output in English only. This study suggests that the allowance of both L1 and English in English teaching may be more suitable than the insistence of English-only teaching in tertiary TEFL education in Taiwan.

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NARRATIVE STRUCTURES ACROSS TELLINGS OF THE SAME “GOOD” TEACHING EXPERIENCE

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Abstract: This paper investigates narrative structures of the same story told three times by an advanced male EFL (i.e., English as a foreign language) learner. By narrative structures in this paper, I mean the sequence of narrative, especially in the light of the Labovian tradition of narrative analysis (Labov & Waletzky, 1997; Labov, 1972; Wu, 1995), and how each narrative component (e.g., *abstract*, *orientation*, *complicating action*, *result/resolution*, *evaluation*, and *coda*) is fleshed out within and across tellings. Data analysis in this paper will attempt to answer the question of the extent to which these structures in one telling are similar or different across tellings of the same “good” experiences (cf. Chafe, 1998; Polanyi, 1981; Prior, 2011). In Labov’s (1972) data, “bad” near-death experiences were elicited, and yet a “good” result is conspicuous: death was overcome. Being asked to tell his “good” story, the EFL learner concentrated on the favorable experience. This said, some hints at unfavorable experiences—typically filling in the *complicating action* slot, like in telling bad or embarrassing stories (as in Wu, 1995)—also emerged, which make analysis of “good” experiences worthwhile in its own right. In particular, it can be hypothesized that the underlying structure of good experiences fits into the Labovian narrative structure with some nuanced variations across tellings. The findings support the hypothesis and suggest that repeated tellings of the same story provided the speaker in this study ample room to reflect on his past experience such that subsequent tellings can be more engaging than the first (or previous) telling.

Key words: orientation, complicating action, evaluation, result/resolution, coda, discourse analysis

Abstrak: Makalah ini menyelidiki struktur naratif dari cerita yang sama yang diulang penceritaannya sebanyak tiga kali oleh seorang pelajar bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing mahir (EFL). Yang saya maksud dengan struktur naratif adalah rangkaian naratif, terutama dalam tradisi analisis naratif Labovian (Labov & Waletzky, 1997; Labov, 1972; Wu, 1995), dan bagaimana tiap komponen naratif (misalnya, *abstrak*, *orientasi*, *tindakan komplikasi*, *hasil/resolusi*, *evaluasi*, dan *penutup*) dipaparkan di dalam dan diantara tiap penceritaan. Analisis data makalah ini akan berupaya menjawab pertanyaan mengenai tingkat kemiripan struktur-struktur ini dalam satu penceritaan atau dalam penceritaan yang berbeda dengan pengalaman “baik” yang sama (cf. Chafe, 1998; Polanyi, 1981; Prior, 2011). Dalam data yang diperoleh Labov (1972), diperoleh pengalaman “buruk” mendekati kematian, tapi hasil yang “baik” terlihat jelas sehingga kematianpun bisa diatasi. Diminta untuk menceritakan pengalaman “baik”nya, pembelajar EFL tersebut fokus pada pengalaman baik. Beberapa isyarat yang mengarah pada pengalaman baik—biasanya mengisi bagian *tindakan komplikasi*, seperti dalam penceritaan cerita buruk atau memalukan (seperti dalam Wu, 1995)—juga muncul, yang membuat analisis pengalaman “baik” ini berharga. Khususnya, bisa diprediksi bahwa struktur mendasar dari pengalaman baik masuk dalam struktur naratif Labovian dengan beberapa variasi bertema di semua penceritaan. Temuan-temuan mendukung hipotesis tersebut dan menunjukkan bahwa penceritaan cerita sama yang diulang seperti yang diberikan oleh pembicara dalam kajian ini memberikan ruang yang cukup untuk bercermin pada pengalaman masa lalunya, sehingga penceritaan berikutnya lebih menarik pendengar dibanding sebelumnya.

Kata kunci: orientasi, tindakan komplikasi, evaluasi/hasil/resolusi, penutup, analisis wacana

Similar to other scholars in different schools of thought who analyze narratives (see review by Johnstone, 2003), narrative (in the Labovian tradition) is defined as one means of recounting past events. Structurally, Labov (1972) has suggested that narrative comprises clauses that are chronologically ordered. These clauses are then called *narrative clauses* (p. 361). Presumably, the series of clauses conveyed orally by a narrator represents (or are matched with) the actual order of events that happened in the past. If the chronological sequence of at least two narrative clauses is inverted by a narrator, the reversed clauses will result in different meanings (or inferences by a listener) from the narrative clauses prior to inversion. For example, in *I punched this boy and he punched me*, it can be implied that it was “I” who initiated the punching, whereas in *This boy punched me and I punched him*, it was “the boy” who did the punching first (pp. 359-360). Other clauses not expressing time sequence of past narrated events are *free clauses* (p. 361). There are also *restricted clauses*, “which can be displaced over a large part of the narrative without altering the temporal sequence the original semantic interpretation”—or the sequence of past reality engendered by a narrator in his/her current storytelling event—“but not over the entire narrative” (Labov, 1972, p. 362), the example of which will be provided in my analysis of the Results/Resolutions below.

A narrative sequence typically consists of six functional components, usually with the following order or structure (see Labov, 1972, pp. 363-393 for further details):

- (1) *Abstract* consists of one or two clauses that sum up the overall story to come;
- (2) *Orientation* presents characters, chronological and physical setting, and situation;
- (3) *Complicating action* consists of clauses that represent a sequence of past events up to a climax, which creates tension that may keep the audience’s attention. It is concerned with answering the question of “[a]nd what happened next?” (Labov, 1997, p. 402);

- (4) *Evaluation* often occurs before the result and serves to highlight the interesting or unusual point(s);
- (5) *Result* or *resolution* releases the tension and explains what eventually took place;
- (6) *Coda* is to indicate that the story is finished, e.g., *And that was that*, or to link the narrated past to the present situation, e.g., *And I see him every now and again* (Labov, 1972, p. 365).

Narrative clauses are typically located in the complicating action and free clauses prevail, especially in the evaluation part or elsewhere, such as in the abstract, orientation to physical setting, and coda. Besides, although evaluation is typically situated (or concentrated) in the fourth sequence in his data, Labov admitted that evaluation is ubiquitous. Whenever a speaker departs from a narrative clause (e.g., *Then I went to the house*) and uses a free clause to comment on an event (e.g., *It’s kind of creepy*), s/he is said to have evaluated the event either “externally,” like the hypothetical example I have just provided that shows his/her feeling, or “internally,” when the speaker animates his/her own speech (e.g., *I was like “There must be at least a ghost here!”*) or another person’s speech (e.g., *And grandma said, “Get out of here, you old mangy dog!”*) in the past narrated event (cf. Labov & Waletzky, 1997, pp. 34-35).

Of particular interest is whether the Indonesian EFL male student conformed to, deviated from, or modified such a Labovian narrative structure when he told and re-told his experiences in written, oral, and written modes respectively. An example of how the Labovian narrative structure is modified occurs in Wu’s (1995) data, where student E1 had some episodes (or cycles) of complications, evaluations, and resolutions in one story of cheating (p. 15). Variations of narrative sequence are always possible because one or more components in Labov’s (1972) sequence may be missing or one component (e.g., orientation) is not placed in its standard slot (e.g., the orientation is provided after the complicating action). More broadly, this study

can be a part of the variationist approach to discourse analysis where “one can analyze alternative forms that appear within specific slots in a narrative structure” (Schiffrin, 1994, p. 288).

On variations of “the same” story genres, Martin and Plum (1997, p. 302) came up with these categories after they analyzed their narrative data:

Table 1. Some story genres (Martin & Plum, 1997, p. 302).

<i>Genres</i>	<i>Open</i>	<i>Staging</i>		<i>Experience</i>	<i>Close</i>
		<i>Experience</i>	<i>Comment</i>		
Recount	(Orientation)	Record of events	[Prosodic]	--	(Reorientation)
Anecdote	(Orientation)	Remarkable event	Reaction	--	(Coda)
Exemplum	(Orientation)	Incident	Interpretation	--	(Coda)
Narrative	(Orientation)	Complication	Evaluation	Resolution	(Coda)

Furthermore, as two interviewers (an American English speaker and I myself) listened to and interrupted the student’s narrative development, it is crucial to investigate how the student fleshed out more details in terms of both narrative or free clauses and spoken utterances, either in his/her mother tongue Indonesian or English) in the spoken telling and subsequent written telling. Put another way, the question of whether the level of engagement or “involvement” (cf. Koven, 2011; Tannen, 2007) in re-telling stories as reflected in written clauses and spoken utterances increased or waned is to be substantiated through analyzing this student’s narrative data. Koven (2011) seems to insist on arguing that an “interlocutory role” (akin to Labov’s [1972] external evaluation) accounts for the degree of involvement, such that the more interlocutory roles are in a narrative, the more involved the story is. Following Tannen’s (2007) argument, however, the degree of involvement is much more than the interlocutory role. Drawing upon insights from a Bakhtinian notion of dialogue and conversation analytical framework, Tannen argued that involvement “strategies that work primarily (but never exclusively) on meaning include (1) indirectness, (2) ellipsis, (3) tropes, (4) dialogue, (5) imagery and detail, and (6) narrative” (p. 32). In the Labovian framework, dialogue is represented as internal

evaluation. It is unwieldy to address all of Tannen’s involvement strategies here.

More at issue is that the degree of involvement in this paper may be determined by an overall impression on the part of an audience (including me as a discourse analyst). More specifically, when a narrator expands on his/her abstract, orientation, or evaluation, among other components, in a subsequent telling of the same story, s/he can be said to have been more involved than the previous telling. A more complex picture, however, is that when a narrator is more involved in elaborating on his/her, say, orientation in one telling, but not that involved in a subsequent telling. This warrants further investigations, especially in a context where English is not used as a first language.

Furthermore, it is important to see if this study corroborates Chafe’s (1998) findings of regular or “random ordering” (or sequence), which I believe may not be entirely random upon closer scrutiny, across tellings of the same story (p. 269). It can be expected that the details may be different from one telling from another, but the underlying narrative structure may be similar. The most interesting part is how subtle or obvious differences in each component (e.g., abstract, orientation, or complicating action) transpire despite the same story and a similar narrative structure across tellings.

METHOD

Data from one male advanced EFL learner (let’s call him Bono) are used in the analysis. The degree of advanced proficiency was determined by his paper-based TOEFL prediction score that exceeded 500 at the time of data collection. The first written narrative of “good” experience was elicited in January, 2007. The same narrative was told sometime in February 2007 in a sociolinguistic interview with me and my American colleague (Vic) as the interviewers. I told Vic to ask Bono anything he would like Bono to elaborate. After the interview, I asked Bono to write the same story again and to include anything based on what had emerged in the interview or other details he would like to add. Bono’s written narratives were copied verbatim. I put clause or sentence numbers (in written narratives) and line numbers (of his recorded oral narrative) to facilitate data analysis. Prior to discussing the narrative structures in more depth, I find it important to establish why certain sentences or utterances are assigned with particular labels. After that, I will analyze the extent to which Bono’s story aligns with the Labovian narrative structure (see also Martin & Plum, 1997) in terms of its sequence and how each component (e.g., abstract, orientation, and evaluation) is embellished or played down across tellings. Insights from some approaches to discourse analysis (e.g.,

pragmatics, interactional sociolinguistics, Birmingham school of discourse, and critical discourse analysis [CDA]) will be briefly incorporated to illuminate analyses of some of the components.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Component naming

Assigning labels to each sentence/clause or utterance is a challenging task, especially because Labov (1972) himself concedes that evaluations are pervasive, especially external evaluations, which include lexical intensifiers (e.g., *he was all wounded* [p. 379]), shifts to a second person pronoun, repetitions, comparatives, superlatives, negatives, modals, and embedded clauses, among others. Consequently, in the data that I analyze, I may label a sentence or an utterance with two components. In Table 2, for instance, I assign the first sentence with a dual component of external evaluation and orientation. *I did not teach* uses a past tense form typical of narrative clause, which provides a time orientation. The negative marker *not* may be interpreted as Bono’s negative affect following his first teaching experience, where his mentor teacher defamed him (sentence 18). This orientation, one may argue, can be interpreted as one of the complicating actions. My own argument is that the orientation foregrounds corporate complicating actions that follow (sentences 2 to 8).

Table 2. Bono’s first telling (224 words)

Title or sentences	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)
My power	[Ext. Eval.]	[Abstract]
¹ I did not teach for a couple of week(s) after my first teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
² I was so afraid to continue my PPL program.		
³ I was haunted by the failure [sic] of my previous teaching.		
⁴ I hated the school where I did my PPL [i.e., teaching practicum].		
⁵ I hated my guru pamong [i.e., mentor teacher].		
⁶ I hated myself, for I could do nothing.		
⁷ In brief, I was very discouraged.		
⁸ I had no spirit to teach.		
⁹ But I thanked God.		[Abstract]
¹⁰ I had good friends who always supported me.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
¹¹ They encouraged to keep on going.	[Ext. Eval./Int. Eval.]	[Result/Resol.,]

¹² I should not give up.	[Ext. Eval. /Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
¹³ One of them said that I need to count on Jesus in my teaching instead of using my own strength.	[Int. Eval.]	
¹⁴ I applied my friend's advice.		
¹⁵ I confessed [sic] to Jesus that I was so stubborn and could not do anything without his presence.	[Int. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂]
¹⁶ As a result a miracle happened in my second teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₃]
¹⁷ I could teach well this time.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
¹⁸ After being mocked (dihina, dihujat hbs2an [defamed without mercy]) by Ms. Ax, I got a lot of praise from her.	[Complic. Act. ₁]	[Result/Resol. ₄]
¹⁹ I could not believe that.	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
²⁰ I thanked to Jesus as he enabled me to do so.	[Int. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. _x]
²¹ He helped me to face the PPL program.	[Ext. Eval.]	
²² Without him and my friends who always supporting me, perhaps I would get E instead of A for PPL.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
²³ They are my power to face PPL indeed.	[Ext. Eval.]	
²⁴ Jesus and my friends are hero [sic] during PPL.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Coda]

Notes: (1) Indentation has been adjusted to the original text; (2) [Orient.] = orientation, [Complic. Act.] = complication action, [Ext. Eval] = external evaluation, [Int. Eval] = internal evaluation, [Result/Resol.] = result/resolution; (3) explanations between square parentheses in some of the sentences are mine.

Each of sentences 2 to 8 in Bono's first telling (Table 2) qualifies Labov's (1972) notion of evaluation (e.g., *so afraid, haunted, failure, hated, very discouraged, had no spirit*). Viewed

individually, each of these sentences (or independent clauses) is a restricted clause and does not seem right to be included as a complicating action leads to another complicating action, culminating in a climax. However, if the overall story is taken into account, sentences 2 to 8 comprise a corporate complicating action following the defamation (sentence 18), that is why I used subscripts ₁ and ₂ respectively.² The issue of sequencing will certainly be discussed further in the following section. What matters now is to explain why I label my data as such.

Then, I label a sentence or an utterance as a result or resolution, I make it contrast to the complicating actions. While the complicating actions indexed Bono's unfavorable situations with the necessity of teaching under pressure, especially after being mocked by his mentor teacher in the first teaching experience,¹ the result or resolutions came to fore when Bono framed his story in positive light at some levels (e.g., applying his friend's advice

[sentence 14, first telling] and his mentor teacher's praise at last [sentence 18, first telling]), thus subscripts ₁ and ₂ again. When subscript _x is used, I am not sure when exactly the result took place. Sentences 20 and 21 in Bono's first telling, for example, show how he thanked Jesus. It is unclear, though, whether the thanking happened while he taught or in retrospect when he had been home, reflecting upon his teaching experience. Similarly, how Bono claimed to have counted on Jesus (sentences 58, 59, and 60 in his third telling; see Table 4) may have occurred either during the teaching experience or later after he figured out that his teaching session was praised by his mentor teacher. Other examples of results or resolutions will be discussed under the section(s) of narrative structure (within or across tellings). Despite the difference between complicating actions and results/resolutions, a sentence or an utterance in a past tense form or a historic present tense (e.g., utterance no. 8 in Table 3) is typically labeled as either a complicating action or a result/resolution.

¹ This constitutes his narrative of "bad" experience. Due to space constraints, I do not include the narrative here.

Table 3. Bono's 2nd telling.³

Line	Bono's excerpted utterances	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)
4	Well, the good one	[Ext. Eval.]	[Abstract]
6	Idem		
7	... after my first teaching...		[Orient.]
8	... I feel so down...	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₁]
9	... unwilling to teach...	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
10	But... my friends... gives me... support		[Result/Resol. ₁]
11	... my friends... who took [teaching practicum]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
12	... in school A		[Orient.]
13	They said... that's ok...	[Int. Eval.]	
14	One of my best friends also said... some verses from the Bible	[Ext. Eval., Int. Eval.]	
15	That I should not be worried... and I should count on Jesus, something like that	[Int. Eval, Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
16	That... strengthens me for my next teaching		
17	...unlike my previous teaching I just do whatever I can do...	[Ext. Eval.]	
18	...on my second teaching...		[Orient.]
20	...I just count everything to Jesus...		[Result/Resol. _{2 and/or 3}]
21	...I do not count on my strength	[Ext. Eval.]	
23	Every time I just believe what the verses said at that time	[Ext. Eval./Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
24	And I just do, do and do and finally I could uh have a better teaching than the previous	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. _{2 and/or 3}]
26	After [being defamed without mercy] at the first time [of teaching]	[Orient.]	[Complic. Act. ₁]
27	And ...my school teacher [praised]		[Result/Resol. ₄]
29	[praised me highly]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₄]
30	[My teaching style was so distinct that my friends were told to do like what I did in my second teaching experience]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
33	The same teacher		[Orient.]
36	[mentioning "to be defamed without mercy" in Bahasa Indonesia]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
50	[my friend who supported me is one of the student teachers in school A]		[Orient.]
52	and some other are not ..., just my friend		
54	Ya? [i.e., Bono seemed to be confused by my query]		
56	Ok [i.e., Bono agreed to elaborate on his second teaching experience]		
58	at that time, well [i.e., Bono agreed to elaborate on his second teaching experience]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
59	... I actually I taught the same class [as that in my first experience]		[Orient.]
60	...teaching the same class make me very very nervous because	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
62	... before I entered the class I was haunted with ... students' face	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
63	they kept in my... mind		

Mambu, Narrative structures across tellings of the same good teaching experience

65	that's very makes me [a false start]		
66	Well, it's hard to step ...on my feet it's very very difficult for me	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
67	and at that time I just [a false start]		
68	this is the first [hour]		[Orient.]
69	so there is also devotion...		
70	I just ... stand up ... and shout to some of my students		[Result/Resol. ₂]
71	call ... his [sic] name or (indecipherable) if I'm not mistaken	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂]
72	Well I asked them [sic]		
73	her name is Lenny		[Orient.]
74	I said to her: "Lenny, shut up!"	[Int. Eval.]	
75	I just said that "Shut up!"	[Ext. Eval, Int. Eval.]	
76	but at that time she was shocked and of course she was shocked		[Result/Resol. ₂]
77	and I also ... said to other students like that	[Ext. Eval.]	
78	And of course the students were... shocked and they were suddenly quiet		
80	and at that time ...I said to... them		[Result/Resol. ₂]
81	"what ...did you feel ...after I said like that?"		
82	...I said like that..."what do you feel?"		
83	and they answered that they were shocked and they were afraid ...		[Int. Eval.]
85	No [i.e., Bono's answer to my question that the students expressed their fear "at that time", not after his class was over]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
87	At that time		[Orient.]
88	"...what do you feel?"	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
89	And they asked me [a false start]	n/a	n/a
90	and then I ...also ask	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
91	"is it rude or polite expression that I used?"		
92	and then they answered that it is very rude		
93	...I said to them that this is what we are going to learn today, that's about command and request	[Int. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂]
95	the topic is about command and request	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
96	and ... I tried to move on to ...the lesson to explain to them, and they listen to me unlike the previous teaching ...	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂]
99	Ya [i.e., he was observed by the same school teacher]		
101	She [i.e., the school teacher was female]		[Orient.]
103	She gave good comments	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₄]
105	... I also include games		[Result/Resol. ₃]
107	A simple game Simon says		
111	yes, the game, and the pre-teaching [impressed the teacher]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
114	Ya [the pre-teaching]		
116	I shout [in the pre-teaching part]		
122	Not in English [i.e., the verse Vic asked Bono to recite was not remembered at first]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
125	[indecipherable]	n/a	n/a
126	oh in English yes ... we can do all things that we can do all thing with Jesus name ... if I'm not mistaken	[Ext. Eval./Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
127	That's	n/a	n/a

129	Ya ya [i.e., Bono confirmed Jos's statement that the verse was taken from Philippians 4:13]		
132	uh-huh [i.e., Bono's agreement with Vic's recited biblical verse]		
136	received? [i.e., Bono did not seem to understand Vic's question]	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
139	Ya [i.e., that Jesus enabled him to teach]		
141	well actually when ... they did devotion	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
142	Uh I ... just sat on my chair and ... pray that		
143	at that time I didn't know ... what to say	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
144	I just ... said, "God, let the Holy Spirit speak"		
145	"let the Holy Spirit speak ... to me"		
146	"not I who speak but the Holy Spirit ... I let the Holy Spirit to speak to me"	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
148	and everything that I say just like shouting to the students just flow away flowing away	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂ and/or 3]
149	I ... didn't think about it before		

An abstract is determined by a title or a sudden shift from miserable experiences to a relief, i.e., thanking God (as in the first telling and its ninth sentence), which is one of the main ideas of Bono's good experience. In the second telling, Bono spelled out the abstract "Well the good one" as he took up Jos's and Vic's elicitation (see utterance 4 in Table 3 and Appendix). In the third telling, the abstract was not mentioned in the first sentence—similar to that in the first telling—but in the third sentence (see Table 4). From the data, abstract can be in the form of a noun phrase (e.g., My power—the title of Bono's first telling) and a complete sentence (e.g., But I thanked God—Bono's ninth sentence in his first telling).

Coda not only indicates the end of the story, but also summarizes, as Bono's narrative suggests, the main point or his current affective stance of his story (see sentence 24, first telling [Table 2], and sentence 63, third telling [Table 4]). Put another way, the coda related his past to his current emotional standpoint (i.e., that Jesus was one of his heroes). His second telling is not explicitly marked with such a coda.

With regard to labeling external evaluation, I have recourse to Labov's (1972) framework of evaluative devices that include intensifiers, comparators, correlatives, and explicatives, each with its own sub-devices (p.

394). Due to space constraints, minute details of each evaluative device will not be included in the analysis. Suffice it to say here though that whenever I come across a sentence that contains a lexical intensifier (e.g., the noun phrase *my power*, the adverb-adjective compound *very discouraged*; see Table 2 sentence 7), or comparators by means of a negative and a modal (e.g., *I should not give up*; see Table 2 sentence 12), or embedded clauses representing explicatives (e.g., *I had good friends who always supported me*; see Table 2 sentence 10), then the sentence is regarded as entailing an external evaluation. Internal evaluation is relatively much easier to label, as it signals either Bono's own speech or other characters' speech, both of which were at the narrated event. Sometimes, both internal and external evaluations overlap in one sentence. For example, it seems to me that the sentence *They encouraged to keep on going* (11th sentence; see Table 2) is a combination of his friends' speech (internal evaluation) and the verb *encouraged* is a verbal intensifier (external evaluation), which is a "metapragmatic verb" (i.e., the verb for expressing encouragement on the part of speakers other than Bono himself; see Wortham, 2000, p. 159).

Table 4. Bono's third telling (774 words).

Sentences	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)	Narrative components in view of Labov (1972)
¹ My previous teaching experience had made me in deep trauma indeed.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₁]
² As a result, I decided not to teach for 2 weeks.		
³ But, thank God that I had a lot of friends who [?] me during my bad time.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Abstract]
⁴ They cheered me up and gave me lot of advice.	[Ext. Eval.]	
⁵ One of my best friends gave me a verse from the Holy Bible which says that I can do everything through Jesus who strengthens me.	[Ext. Eval./Int. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₁]
⁶ I held this verse tightly.		
⁷ I tried to count on Jesus instead myself on the next teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	
⁸ As the result...		
⁹ My heart beat so fast as the bell rang three times.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
¹⁰ It was a sign that the school activity was already started.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
¹¹ Outside, the students hurried to their own classes as Mr. BS one of the school teachers started to bawl at the students who were late.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
¹² I'd never felt so afraid before.		
¹³ If only the electricity had not gone off in my first day of teaching.		[Complic. Act. ₁]
^{14a} "God, why do you let me to teach the same class?"	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
^{14b} "O God, if it is possible, let this cup pass from me", I prayed.		
¹⁵ Along the way to the class, I was haunted by the failure of my previous teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
¹⁶ Dwi, Murni, and Lenny, their faces always appeared in my mind.		
¹⁷ I tarried with my steps waiting for Ms. Dini [perhaps one of the mentor teachers].	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
¹⁸ I was extremely afraid to enter the class alone.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
¹⁹ Through the window, I could see all students of class X.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
²⁰ Some of them scrutinized me with firm eyes which increased my fear.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
²¹ The devotion was started as I entered the class.		[Orient.]
²² It was awfully quiet, but I wouldn't be deceived anymore.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
²³ During the devotion, I just sat on my chair and prayed to God begging His presence while teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₂]
²⁴ To be honest, when praying I still didn't know what to say to start the session.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Corporate Complic. Act. ₂]
²⁵ The worst, I didn't have any idea of how to explain the material to the students.		
²⁶ Thank God, Ms. NF [most likely the mentor teacher who screwed up Bono's first teaching experience] finally came right after I finished praying.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₂]
²⁷ I was not alone anymore.		
^{28a} "Lenny, shut up!", I yelled.	[Int. Eval.]	
²⁹ She was aghast and the class was abruptly in silent.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₃]
^{30a} "Lenny, what do you feel when I said that [sic] words?", I asked.	[Int. Eval.]	
³¹ Actually, I have written down those words on the blackboard before directing those words to her.	[Ext. Eval.]	
³² She looked bewildered before she finally said that she was shocked.	[Ext. Eval./Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
^{33a} "What do you think about my utterance?"		
^{33b} "Was it rude or polite?", I continued my question.		
³⁴ She answered, "it was very rude, Sir".	[Int. Eval.]	
³⁵ "Well, could you make it more polite?", I asked again.		

³⁶ At that moment, I directed the same questions to the other students.	[Orient.]	
³⁷ Well, those questions were actually my pre-teaching activity of that day's topic "Command and Request".	[Ext. Eval.]	[Orient.]
³⁸ I tried to engage the students' attention by giving them a short command which was probably rude and asking them to change it into polite one.		
³⁹ Thank God, I made it.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₃]
⁴⁰ They were engaged and ready for the further discussion.		
⁴¹ Greatest glory to Jesus, unlike my previous teaching, my whilst-teaching went very well.		
⁴² I could explain the material well without being ignored by the students.		
⁴³ They did listen to me and did the exercise enthusiastically.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁴⁴ I didn't know why, but it was true.		
⁴⁵ Everything did go smoothly until the end of the session.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. _{3 and 4}]
⁴⁶ The best part of my teaching of that day was the game session.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁴⁷ We played an old game; "Simon says", of course I did a bit modification.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₄]
⁴⁸ At first, I was not sure with that game.	[Ext. Eval.]	
⁴⁹ I thought the students would be easily bored.	[Int. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁵⁰ Amazingly, they were excited instead.	[Ext. Eval.]	
⁵¹ We were really having fun.	[Ext. Eval.]	
⁵² Through the game, the students actually learn to produce simple commands as I nominated some of them to be the Simons.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. ₄]
⁵³ Above all, I could not believe with what had happened to me that day.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁵⁴ I could not imagine that my teaching would be successful.		
⁵⁵ In fact, I did less preparation for my teaching and I did not use any AVA as my previous teaching.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Complic. Act. ₁]
⁵⁶ I did not apply any teaching theories or strategies in my teaching which have been taught in TLS [Teaching Learning Strategies course].	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁵⁷ The only teaching strategy that I used at that time was just counted on Jesus.		
⁵⁸ I just surrendered all to Him.		
⁵⁹ As the results, God granted my wish.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. _x]
⁶⁰ He really be with me and gave me strength that enabled to teach.		
⁶¹ At that time, all I did and said just subconsciously flowed away.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Result/Resol. _{3 and/or 4}]
⁶² I didn't even have to think about what to talk next.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Evaluation]
⁶³ He sent the holly spirit [sic] to speak for me when explaining the material so that the students did not ignore me but listened carefully to the lesson instead.	[Ext. Eval.]	[Coda]

Narrative structures in each telling and across telling

Having discussed the Labovian narrative components, I am in a better position to delineate the narrative sequence of each narrative. To begin with, in view of Labov (1972) and Martin and Plum's (1997) story genres, it appears that each of the three tellings is narrative as it contains an optional orientation, complication, evaluation,

resolution, and optional coda. In fact, the first two tellings also have the abstract component. The intricate issue, however, is that each of these narrative components may not be necessarily sequenced by Bono in a nice or straightforward order. To demonstrate the meandering nature of each telling, I use either the second column or the merged column of "narrative components in view of Labov (1972)" (see Tables 3, 4, and 5), except

sentence 18 in Table 2. To illustrate, the first telling looks to be the most straightforward, though not entirely clear-cut because the abstract and evaluation parts recur in various parts of the narrative: Abstract → Orientation → corporate Complicating Actions₂ → abstract → Evaluation → Result/Resolution₁ → Evaluation → Result/Resolution₂ → Result/Resolution₃ → Complicating Action₁ vis-à-vis Result/Resolution₄ (see sentence 18) → Evaluation → Result/Resolution_x → Evaluation → Coda. At first glance, Tables 4 and 5 display the more complex pictures of narrative sequence in the second and third tellings respectively. As analysts can reconstruct or streamline Bono's narrative, nonetheless, the sequential structure of Bono's narrative in all tellings seem to coherently fit into Abstract Orientations → (Corporate) Complicating Actions_{1, 2, x} → Evaluation → Results/Resolutions_{1, 2, x} → (Coda), with the component being in parentheses meaning that it is optional for Bono. Furthermore, subscripted _{1, 2, x} are inclusive of any possible stages of complicating actions and results/resolutions.

Abstract. As discussed earlier in the previous section (i.e., Component Naming), the abstract is not mentioned in the first sentence in the written narrative of first and third tellings. One explanation for this is that Bono needed to sum up his adverse conditions briefly first before he made his overall point (or abstract) of his “good” experience. If this explanation is plausible, then it can be hypothesized that for many other good experiences to be abstracted, a glimpse of misery may occur first. It follows that experiences may not be more difficult to be regarded as “good” if it has no contrasting point (i.e., the “bad” experience). In the second telling, the abstract was provided by the interviewers, which was then taken up by Bono. Nevertheless, Bono went back to his unhappy story first very briefly (see utterances 8-9 in Table 3), before he resumed his focus on a happy ending. Foregrounding (or abstracting) a happy experience since the very beginning, though not necessarily in the first sentence(s), makes a narrative of “good”

experience distinct from a narrative of “bad,” near-death experiences typical in Labov's (1972) data, where utterances representing complicating actions seem to outnumber those of results/resolutions.

Orientations. In the second telling (see Table 3), Bono was likely to have had more ample opportunities than his first telling to orient his audience (or interviewers) to place, time, characters, and an activity involved in his story, either because he intentionally did it (e.g., utterance 7) or because the interviewers were curious about more details in his story (e.g., utterances 33, 50, and 52). For instance, orientation of time includes *after my first teaching* (utterance 7, Table 3), *on my second teaching* (utterance 18), *After [being defamed without mercy] at the first time [of teaching]* (utterance 26), or *this is the first [hour]* (utterance 68). An orientation of place entails *in school A* (utterance 12) and *I actually taught the same class* (utterance 59). At least, one explicit character not mentioned in the first telling was introduced in the second telling (e.g., *Her name is Lenny* in utterance 73, with *is* being a “stative predicate”; see Schiffrin, 1994, p. 284). Reference to the previously discouraging mentor teacher was also confirmed (*She*; utterance 101). The “Simon Says” game was also part of the orientation to an activity Bono applied in his teaching session (utterance 107).

In the third telling, orientations are relatively also as vivid as those in the second telling, e.g., the bell that signals that “the school activity was already started” (sentence 10, Table 4), the first mention of Ms. Dini (sentence 17), the devotion (sentence 21), and how Bono managed his activities of learning “Command and Request” (sentences 36-37). The “Simon Says” game, which was introduced in the second telling, was part of the results/resolution in the third telling.

Complicating Actions. Recall as well that what I elicited was a narrative of “good” experience, not a “bad” experience. Interestingly, although I can expect that there are more instances of result/resolution component emphasizing the “good”

experience in the narrative, in Bono's story the results/orientations seem to have been contrasted with unfavorable events in the past (see [corporate] complicating actions in the three tellings). Therefore, to make Bono's story (more) straightforward, it is part of a discourse analyst's (including my) task to reconstruct the narrative sequence after s/he (and I) understand the overall story of each telling. Subscripted labels reflect such reconstruction. That is, before Bono elaborated on his favorable experiences in the result/resolution part, I need to imagine what could have happened based on his narrative.

Let me begin with the first telling (see Table 2). Logically, the source of Bono's misery was his being defamed without mercy by his mentor teacher (sentence 18, labeled as Complicating Action₁), which led to his fear of the PPL (teaching practicum) program and hatred toward the school, the mentor teacher, and himself (sentences 2 to 8, labeled as Corporate Complicating Actions₂). The lists of (1) "I + was + so afraid.../haunted.../very discouraged" construction in sentences 2, 3, and 7, (2) "I + hated + Noun Phrase" construction in sentences 4, 5, and 6, and (3) "I + had + no spirit..." construction in sentence 8 also explain why sentences 2 to 8 belong to a Corporate Complicating Action₂. Lists (1) and (3) contain the past tense verbs "hated" and "had" as "active predicates", and list (2) comprises a stative predicate *was* (Schiffrin, 1994, p. 304). These lists dominated by the active predicates, however, can be encapsulated in one narrative clause like "I hated anything that caused my failure in and dislike of the teaching practicum" as one Complicating Action₂ after Complicating Action₁ (i.e., that Bono was defamed by his mentor teacher). Such encapsulation should be logical. To illustrate, the repetition of "hated" is "iconic simply because the introduction of different items through a single predicate structure is a linguistic reflection of their coexistence in a common conceptual realm" (p. 296)—hatred.

In the second telling (see Table 3), defamatory remarks by Bono's mentor

teacher also surface and constitute Complicating Action₁ (see Table 3, utterances 8, 26). Somewhat different than the Corporate Complicating Actions₂ in the first telling, in the second telling Bono seems to focus on the tension he encountered before entering the classroom when he "was haunted with students' face[s]" (utterances 62-63). The tension is likely to have reached its climax when he was sitting on his chair during the devotion – now already in the classroom – and praying, but he "didn't know what to say" (utterances 142-143).

In the third telling, the complicating actions are also divided into two phases (i.e., prior to [Complicating Action₁] and on the D-day of his second teaching session [Complicating Action₂]), but Bono provided relatively more details in each phase. On the first phase, he narrated how he was upset and traumatic after the blackout (sentence 13), which led him to mess up his teaching plan (which was narrated in his story of "bad" experience), and withdraw from teaching activities for two weeks (sentence 2). Interestingly, he did not explicitly explain that the trauma was associated with the mentor teacher. Put another way, the mentor teacher's role in making him traumatic was played down in the third telling, although the distress was still verbalized. The nuance of his terrified state of mind also surfaces in sentence 55 when he acknowledged that he was less prepared and did not use any audio-visual aids (AVA) in the second teaching session. On the second phase, the suspense on the D-day before his turn to teach was immense and more fleshed out than in the previous tellings because he mentioned about (1) his fast "heart beat" (sentence 9), (2) a teacher's "bawl[ing] at the students who were late" (sentence 11), which intensified his fear (sentence 12), (3) his being "haunted by the failure of [his] previous teaching" (sentence 15), (4) his being afraid of entering the class by himself (sentence 18), (5) the fact that some of his students "scrutinized [him] with firm eyes" (sentence 20), (6) his prayer to God (sentences 23-24), and (7) how, during his prayer, he did not know how to teach

(sentences 24-25), the last two of which are similar to those in the second telling. Despite nuanced differences across tellings, the most salient issue of Bono's complicating actions might have been associated with his offensive mentor teacher, which was not explicitly mentioned in the last telling, but which only exacerbated the second phase of his complicating actions (i.e., the fear of having to teach again).

Evaluation. Evaluations prevent narratives from being pointless. They not only represent a narrator's affect, but also make a story worth listening to (Labov, 1972; Polanyi, 1979). Bono's each telling is highly evaluated. Although evaluation is all over the place, the "standard" location of evaluation in Labov's (1972) study is that it concentrates between a series of complicating action and result(s)/resolution(s). This standard does not seem to hold true in Bono's tellings. What appears to be the case is that Bono's organization of telling is similar to Wu's (1995) findings on some episodes or cycles of complications, evaluations, and resolutions. In Bono's first telling, for example, the first cycle of evaluation (sentence 10) is between corporate complications (sentences 2 to 8), an abstract (sentence 9), another set of evaluations (sentences 12 and 13), and resolutions (sentences 14-16). After that, evaluations and resolutions take turns from one to another (sentences 17 to 23) before coda (sentence 24).

In the second telling, the concentrations of evaluations occur in (1) utterances 14 to 17 (about his friends' suggestion that he counted on Jesus), (2) utterances 21 and 23 (about his claim that he relied on Jesus), (3) utterances 56 and 58 (about his willingness to elaborate on his story at the interviewers' request), (4) utterances 81-83 (when he wanted to know his students' feelings after they were to shut up), (5) utterances 129, 132, and 136 (when he commented on his interviewers' remarks or questions), and (6) utterances 144-146 (when he re-emphasized his trust in Jesus), although in many other utterances, external or internal evaluations are embedded within

complicating actions or results/resolutions. The fourth series of evaluation just mentioned was repeated in the third telling (sentences 30-34; Table 4), but was not introduced in the first telling. The internal evaluation "Lenny, shut up!" (utterance 74 in Table 3 and sentence 28 in Table 4) and the fact that it is framed within a past tense form *I said to her* (in the second telling) or *I yelled*, thus being part of a result/resolution, will be discussed in its own right under the results/resolutions section.

Evaluations in the third telling expanded upon Bono's dialogue with God (clauses 14a and 14b, Table 4; see also Author, 2009c). Sentence 5 contains the biblical verse made salient by Vic in the second telling (see utterances 121-131 in Appendix). This suggests that what is co-authored by an interlocutor (cf. Schiffrin, 1994, p. 307) might have stood out in Bono's memory in the last telling. The menacing atmosphere was also highlighted (sentences 19 and 20 *It was awfully quiet...*). However, Bono also fleshed out his interactions with his students (sentences 30-35) and how students were more enthusiastic about his session based on his observation (sentences 43-44). Moreover, although the Simon Says game was introduced in the second telling, it was not until the third telling that he highly praised it for leading him to a successful teaching (sentences 46, 48-51). At last, he claimed to be divinely inspired, rather than pedagogically motivated (sentences 56, 57, and 62). These evaluations were not thoroughly narrated in previous tellings.

Switching from English to Indonesia also made some parts of Bono's story highly evaluative. Two of such occurrences include the expression *dihujat habis-habisan* or defamed without mercy in the first telling (sentence 18, Table 2), which perplexed Vic as a second language user of Indonesian (see his question in utterance 35 in the Appendix), but was not satisfactorily rendered by me at the time (see utterance 40), and was eventually mistranslated without further correction (Vic – utterance 45). Interestingly, this expression never occurred in Bono's third telling. The utterance *Dan sangat berbeda bahkan teman-*

teman saya disuruh melakukan seperti apa yang saya lakukan pada waktu mengajar (My teaching style was so distinct that my friends were told to do like what I did in my second teaching experience) is another case in point (see utterance 30 in Appendix), where Bono seems to have eschewed repeating the idea in the third telling. This avoidance strategy seems to confirm Torres's (1992) finding that switching to first language accounted for filling second language "lexical gaps" (p. 186). These Indonesian expressions may also be part of enhancing an evaluatively dramatic effect of Bono's story (Koike, 1987; Torres, 1992), but filling lexical gaps in the first two tellings appears to be a more tenable explanation for their absences in the English version in his third telling. It may be speculated that Bono was not confident about expressing his evaluations in English, which was eloquently articulated in his first language (cf. his quicker pace as indicated by utterance 30's being located between > and < symbols).

Results/Resolutions. Similar to Complicating Actions, the Result/Resolution parts can be divided into some stages, too. In the first telling, the resolution part starts from his friends' encouragement for Bono to "keep on going" (sentence 11, labeled as Result/Resolution₁), which was the case as he continued on teaching. The encouragement also led him to apply his friend's advice and "confess to Jesus" (sentences 14-15, labeled as Result/Resolution₂), and yielded "a miracle" (sentence 16; Result/Resolution₃), evaluated by sentence 17 when he said that he could "teach well" that time. The good teaching session was highly praised by his teacher (sentence 18; Result/Resolution₄). Other parts (Result/Resolution_x) are what I regard as "restricted clauses" in view of Labov and Waletzky (1997, p. 18). Labov (1972) distinguishes free clauses and narrative clauses, with the former departing from the advancement of plot (or "not confined by any temporal juncture") typically conveyed by narrative clauses (p. 361). By restricted clauses here I mean that they have temporal juncture as they are in past tense forms, and yet discourse analysts

cannot be totally sure where the events should precisely be located in the real, past narrated event, but these clauses might only represent or reconstruct past reality in a certain, though indefinite, slot (e.g., Result/Resolution, in this case, not as a Complicating Action). At first glance, sentences 20 and 21 are located after Result/Resolution₄. It may be possible that he thanked Jesus while teaching in his successful session, although it may also be the case that he did that after the session. Besides, when he claimed that Jesus had helped him "to face the PPL program," the help may have come in many, if not all, stages of his joining the program, especially when presumably Bono's strong faith in Jesus is taken into account. The same analysis may apply to Result/Resolution_x in sentences 58 and 59 in the third telling (see Table 4).

In subsequent tellings, Result/Resolution₁ took place when Bono said that his friends gave him support (utterance 10, Table 3) or that his friends "cheered [him] up and gave [him] a lot of advice", especially a biblical advice (sentences 4 to 8, Table 4). Different from the first telling (where Result/Resolution₂ was when he confessed how Bono had not relied on Jesus), in the second telling Result/Resolution₂ and/or ₃ apparently blended, that is, (1) reliance on Jesus (utterance 20), (2) doing his best in teaching (utterance 24), and (3) not thinking about what teaching strategies would be used (utterances 148-149) may have occurred at stages 2 and/or 3 of his resolution. Result/Resolution₂ itself is distinctive in that it supplies details of the first episode of his teaching session when he shouted at his students prior to explaining "Command and Request" and felt successful (utterances 70, 71, 74-78, 93, 96). Result/Resolution₃ is marked by Bono's second episode of his teaching session when he introduced the Simon Says game (utterance 105). The mentor teacher's commendation of Bono's successful teaching made up Result/Resolution₄ (utterances 27, 29, 103).

The last telling includes an event before Bono's teaching session commenced (i.e., his mentor teacher's presence which was

considered to be a relief than an enemy; see sentences 26-27 in Table 4), which I label as Result/Resolution₂. This episode was absent in previous tellings. Furthermore, in the last telling, Result/Resolution₃ is more akin to Result/Resolution₂ in the second telling; that is, Result/Resolution₃ in the final telling entails Bono's rich discussion about yelling at his students and interactions with his students to talk about "Command and Request" (sentences 28, 38-41; see also my explication above regarding evaluation on these interactions). Result/Resolution₄, about Simon Says game (sentences 47 and 52), is similar to Result/Resolution₃ in Bono's second telling. Slightly different than the second telling, however, in the final telling Bono demonstrated the coherence of his successful teaching: *Through the game, the students actually learn to produce simple commands [Result/Resolution₃] as I nominated some of them to be the Simons [Result/Resolution₄] (sentence 52)*

Of particular importance here is the "Shut up!"-shouting episode, which only appears in the second telling (labeled as Result/Resolution₂) and in the final telling (Result/Resolution₃). In light of the classroom discourse analytical (or Birmingham school of discourse) perspective (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), the episode occupies the *preliminary transaction* slot of a lesson, with a predominantly *directing* transaction, consisting of a *boundary* (i.e., starting after the devotion was finished), *teacher's direct* (i.e., "Shut up!"), and *teacher's elicit* (e.g., "Lenny, what do you feel when I said that [sic] words?"; see sentence 30, Table 4) (pp. 24, 25, 57). Though unusually shocking, how Bono structured (or narrated) his lesson is not atypical in classroom discourse. Further investigations should, therefore, be directed toward how the Labovian slot of Result/Resolution can be filled in other transaction slots (at preliminary, medial, or terminal position) in similar narratives of "good" pedagogical experiences.

From the pragmatics point of view, when Bono made his students shocked with a "Shut

up!", he intentionally displayed his impolite persona, who threatened his students' faces. Fortunately, this strategy did not backfire on him and seem to have confirmed Culpeper's (2008) contention that "impoliteness is 'more likely' to occur in situations where there is an imbalance of social structural power" (p. 39). Starting from feeling timid due to his disappointment in his first teaching session, Bono strategically positioned himself as a "real" teacher who established a sense of agency, if not also imbalanced social structural power, before his students. In his last telling only, Bono implied that he had mitigated the shouting effect by saying that he "had written those words [i.e., shut up!] on the blackboard before directing those words to her [i.e., Lenny]" (sentence 31, Table 4). However, his deliberate impoliteness due to his position as a teacher overpowered the note on the blackboard. More broadly, Culpeper's insight into (im)politeness may also be integrated in researching into teachers' result/resolution as well as evaluations. Whether or not teachers' impoliteness in their classes put them at a disadvantage, as reflected in their narratives, is still understudied.

The directive "Shut up!" in the second and third tellings is also part of Bono's "discursive aspects of power struggle and of the transformation of power relations" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 273). From this perspective of critical discourse analysis (CDA), Bono's internally evaluated Result/Resolution (i.e., "Shut up!") stands in stark contrast to his Complicating Action, which is associated with his dispiriting mentor teacher (recall his being defamed by the mentor) and students (e.g., utterance 62 "... I was haunted with ... students' face" [see Bono's 2nd telling in Table 3]; sentences 16: "Dwi, Murni, and Lenny, their faces always appeared in my mind" and 20: "Some of them scrutinized me with firm eyes which increased my fear" [see his 3rd telling in Table 4]). Bono's experience is, in fact, intertextually representative of many other student teachers' "bad" narratives (Author, 2009b). Similar to these student teachers' unfavorable experiences during

teaching practicum, Bono was initially underestimated by his students, most probably Lenny at whom he shouted “Shut up!”, and his mentor teacher. A simple but powerful directive “Shut up!”, nonetheless, signaled and paved the way for Bono’s taking “power over [classroom] discourse” (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 273), which had a transformative role in winning his students’ as well as his mentor teacher’s hearts. Bono’s “Shut-up!” interjection made him have a more equal power relation with his mentor teacher and his students (or other high school students who often bully or make fun of student teachers doing teaching practicum).

Coda. Only the first and the last tellings have overt codas: *Jesus and my friends are hero [sic] during PPL* (last sentence, Table 2) and *He sent the holly spirit [sic] to speak for me when explaining the material so that the students did not ignore me but listened carefully to the lesson instead* (last sentence, Table 4). While in the first telling Bono gave credit to Jesus and his friends’ belief in Jesus, in the final telling the role of Jesus was more emphasized. Moreover, both codas function as explicit indicators that the story was finished (Labov, 1972).

From the perspective of an interactional sociolinguistic approach to discourse, the codas, though not in his spoken narrative, make sense at least to Bono’s audience at the time of data collection (i.e., Vic and me) that he knew were (devout) Christians, who might have shared the same Christian logic or “situated meaning.” As Schiffrin (1994) noted: “a particular utterance”—as well as sentences such as Bono’s codas in his written narratives—“can act as a contextualization cue to the contextual presuppositions that inform and provide for its meaning[fullness] and use” (Schiffrin, 1994, pp. 107, 113). Following Gumperz, Schiffrin concurred that “... linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge”—like biblical phrasing and knowledge in Bono’s tellings—“... needs to be shared if conversational involvement is to be maintained” (p. 101) in mutual, “intersubjective,” and respectful ways (p.

307). Though personally involved in his own story and religious belief, Bono could not always expect his audience to share the same degree of involvement.

CONCLUSION

In spite of being emphasized on narrating good experiences, this small-scale study, on the whole, attests Labov’s (1972) legacy of outlining narrative structures. Besides, although Bono’s repeated tellings of the same experience seem to be more complex (or more randomly organized) than Labov’s basic narrative structure, my reconstruction of his narrative results in the same basic and coherent structure consisting of Abstract, Orientation, Complication, Evaluation, Result/ Resolution, and Coda. The contents of each of these six components were structured in similarly coherent ways (e.g., Complicating Actions_{1, 2, ...} and Result/Resolution_{1, 2, ..., x}), although the wording and/or elaboration might be different from one telling to another. The restricted clauses in Result/Resolution_x follow Labov and Waletzky’s (1997) model, though in a modified and simplified way. Besides, Bono’s third telling seems to be the most detailed, thus most personally engaged or involved (to use Koven’s [2011] or Tannen’s [2007] concept of involvement) in some regards (e.g., the Orientation, Results/Resolutions, and Evaluation components) compared to previous tellings, although his mentor teacher’s role in making him upset (see the Complications in his first and second tellings) and Indonesian expressions in the first two tellings were toned down and removed altogether respectively in this last telling.

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A CASE STUDY OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN A CHINESE HIGH SCHOOL

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Abstract: Nowadays in China, high school assessment is based solely on academic examination scores, which take the place of well-rounded assessments that should be given to students. The present assessment ignores the differences among individuals and goes against a people-oriented spirit; thus, it is not scientific. This one-sided assessment has caused many negative effects on students and society, and it is not beneficial to students' well-being. The author performed a study on a formative assessment method using a *Portfolio for keeping a record of English learning while growing up* to change the present situation of students being tired of study due to low scores. The assessment allows students to understand that their low scores are not because they lack a gift for learning languages, but because they themselves think they lack the ability to learn a foreign language, which leads to their unwillingness to learn English (Ames 1992; Vispoel & Austin 1995). The research examined 122 year-11 senior middle school students' views of the formative assessment method and their improvement in examination scores through the assessment over a period of one to two years. Qualitative and quantitative data were gathered via a questionnaire and interviews. All the data show and prove that the students who have been assessed using formative assessment enjoy going to school and have made more progress than those assessed using summative assessment. This assessment has been warmly welcomed by students, whether they are at a higher or a lower English level.

Keywords: Formative assessment; case study of formative assessment; implementation methods and achievements

Abstrak: Dewasa ini di China, penilaian sekolah menengah atas didasarkan hanya pada nilai ujian akademis, yang mengambil alih penilaian lengkap yang seharusnya diberikan pada siswa. Penilaian yang ada mengabaikan perbedaan diantara individu siswa dan melawan semangat yang berorientasi pada individu, sehingga tidak ilmiah. Penilaian satu sisi ini telah menimbulkan banyak efek negatif pada siswa dan masyarakat, dan tidak bermanfaat bagi kebaikan siswa. Penulis melakukan kajian terhadap metode penilaian formatif dengan menggunakan *Portfolio for keeping a record of English learning while growing up* untuk mengubah situasi kini siswa yang lelah belajar karena nilai rendah. Penilaian itu memberi kesempatan siswa untuk memahami bahwa nilai rendah mereka bukan karena mereka tidak berbakat untuk belajar bahasa, sehingga membuat mereka tidak mau belajar bahasa Inggris (Ames 1992; Vispoel & Austin 1995). Penelitian ini meneliti pandangan 122 siswa sekolah menengah kelas 11 terhadap metode penilaian formatif dan peningkatan mereka dalam nilai ujian melalui penilaian tersebut selama masa satu sampai dua tahun. Data kualitatif dan kuantitatif dikumpulkan melalui angket dan wawancara. Semua data menunjukkan dan membuktikan bahwa siswa yang telah dinilai menggunakan penilaian formatif senang pergi ke sekolah dan menghasilkan kemajuan yang lebih banyak dibanding mereka yang dinilai dengan penilaian sumatif. Penilaian formatif ini disambut hangat oleh para siswa, baik mereka yang tingkat bahasa Inggrisnya rendah maupun tinggi.

Kata kunci: Penilaian formatif, studi kasus penilaian formatif, metode penerapan dan prestasi

At present, most of China's high school education assessment is only based on academic examination scores, namely summative assessment, which takes the place of such well-rounded assessments as virtue, intelligence, physical education, arts, labor and so on that should be given to students. As long as the student's score is the highest, he is regarded as the most successful student, disregarding his bad behavior or unwholesome thoughts. Other students consider him to be a model to learn from, and even treat him as an idol. This student's high score can conceal everything else and acts as a camouflage, covering up his shortcomings. On the contrary, students with low test scores are considered to be bad students and are ignored by both teachers and classmates, even if they have done their best and are very talented in other aspects.

This one-sided assessment leads to students' singular pursuit of higher test scores, and they do not pay attention to their behavior or to improving themselves in the area of moral character. They are self-centered without showing concern for others and are unwilling to participate in activities that serve society. Some even resort to bad measures in order to get higher scores, such as cheating on exams. Some students are even proud that they have succeeded in cheating during exams without being caught. As a result, the school cannot make achievements to society or meet society's requirements. On the contrary, they do harm to our society.

In addition, students sit in the classroom all day in pursuit of test scores and do not have time to engage in physical exercise, which results in the majority of students becoming near-sighted and many students being poor in health. Schools mainly compete in students' getting high scores in their senior middle school entrance exams and college entrance exams and do not have time to care for students' mental health. As a result, there are some cases of high school students who have committed suicide as the result of not being able to overcome the difficulties and setbacks in their lives (news.163.com). Moreover, China's current education assessment forces

all students to consider attending college as the only path to a person's success. This idea ignores the differences that exist between students, and it goes against a humanistic spirit, so it is not a scientific assessment method. Because every student's level in a particular subject is different, and his starting point is not the same due to different levels of intelligence and talents, how can we compare students in a score-based examination to see who is a hard-working and who is a "good" student?

The reality is that a society needs people of all trades. Therefore, the success of our school education lies in enabling every student to discover his own strengths, experience success, and enjoy going to school. The author once took part in an Australian high school's semester award presentation and every teacher, every student with parents, some successful alumni and celebrities and guests were invited to attend. It featured outstanding students in all the areas of virtue, intelligence, arts, labor and various sports, such as basketball, soccer, and baseball and so on, who were praised and given awards. The number of students who went to the stage to receive awards rose above 80% and the students and parents were very happy. This presentation demonstrated that only such a diverse style of assessment can enable every student to enjoy going to school.

The purpose of the formative assessment is to change the current situation that involves academically poor students detesting going to school because of their current poor performance in exams. It wants poor students to understand that their low scores are not because they do not have a gift for learning languages, but because they believe they lack the ability to learn English, which leads to their unwillingness to learn English (Ames 1992; Vispoel & Austin 1995). Meanwhile, the formative assessment makes it clear to students that only by persisting in working hard every day can they improve their English step by step.

Formative Assessment is a method for providing feedback to teachers and students over the course of instruction (Boston, 2002). Black and William (1998b) defined

assessment broadly to include all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning. Under this definition, assessment includes teacher observation, classroom discussion, analysis of student work, homework, tests and so on.

The most helpful type of feedback on tests and homework is specific comments about errors and specific suggestions for improvement, which encourage students to focus their attention thoughtfully on the task rather than on simply getting the right answer (Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, & Morgan, 1991; Elawar & Corno, 1985).

Boston (2002) pointed out that when teachers know how students are progressing and where they are having trouble, they can use this information to make necessary adjustments, such as re-teaching, trying different approaches, or offering more practice opportunities. These activities can lead to improved student success. This type of feedback may be especially helpful to lower-achieving students because it emphasizes that students can improve by hard work, rather than remain underachievers due to a lack of innate ability.

Formative assessment supports that all children can achieve high levels of learning, and it is against the view that attributes students' poor performance to a lack of ability, causing students to become discouraged and unwilling to go on learning (Ames, 1992; Vispoel & Austin, 1995).

Feedback given as part of formative assessment helps learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their desired goal and their current knowledge, understanding, or skill and guides them through actions necessary to obtain the goal (Ramaprasad, 1983; Sadler, 1989).

Black and William (1998a) conducted an extensive research review of 250 journal articles and book chapters winnowed from a much larger pool and concluded that formative assessment techniques produce significant learning gains as measured by comparing the average improvements in the test scores of the students involved. This

style of assessment was shown to especially help low-achieving students and students with learning disabilities.

Two experimental research studies (Fontana & Fernandes, 1994; Frederikson & White, 1997) have shown that students who understand the learning objectives and assessment criteria and have opportunities to reflect on their work show greater improvement than those who do not.

METHOD

In this study, before teaching each module (book), the whole class of 60 students was divided into 10 study groups, with each group made up of 6 (six) students. A responsible group leader was chosen from each group to take the charge of the group's English study. The leader was responsible for the group's everyday oral activities, reciting the text, after-class reading, group assignments, helping poor students in the group and so on. Every student's study of a unit and a module was assessed through the *Portfolio for keeping a record of English learning while growing up*. So far, some people have done experiments using portfolios, and they have been proven very useful in promoting students' growing up and development (Frazier & Paulson, 1992). This is due to the fact that they are based on the school's education and teaching objectives and deliberately collect a student's works and other evidence which reflect the student's hard work and progress. This allows him or her to clearly set and achieve his/her goal as well as motivates him or her to achieve more through his/her recollection and changes. Furthermore, it displays the student's strengths and weaknesses through a rational system of analysis and interpretation (Dong, 2002).

The portfolio is different from others because it has many other functions besides the portfolio's general function, namely, the function of Part 7 (see below). On its cover, a student writes down his/her name, grade, school number, and group number, while on the other side of the cover is the table of contents. The portfolio consists of eight parts: 1. Study plan for learning English; 2. Test

scores & homework grades; 3. Teaching goals and requirements of a unit; 4. Self-assessment for the study of a unit; 5. Analysis and summary of the progress and failures on a unit's study and test; 6. Analysis and summary of the progress and failures on a module's study and exam; 7. Exhibition of study achievements; 8. Multi-assessments on a semester's study and the teacher's comments.

First of all, every student is required to make a study plan for learning the module. Each unit's teaching goals and requirements are photocopied from the teachers' book. After learning a unit, every student is to make a detailed self-assessment, summarize the unit's study and analyze what s/he did in the test and his/her detailed measures on how to improve. Then, the class course representative collects each student's portfolio and marks down each student's homework completion and its grade. Then, the teacher reads each of the student's self-assessment and summary and gives comments and advice to help solve their problems in time. After the module exam, each student writes his or her analysis. The teacher, then, checks and supervises students' work and writes his or her comments and advice. Finally, at the end of a semester, students finish the final module assessment form. First, each student assesses him/herself on his/her study process and achievements. Then, students have a group assessment, the class assessment and the teacher's assessment to get the overall score. In addition, the teacher writes down the module and semester comments for each student.

Steps for Implementation

Step 1: Handouts are given out to each student to make his/her own portfolio. The most important point of this step is that the importance and functions of the portfolio are made clear for and realized by every student. After that, each student writes his own study plan.

Step 2: (After finishing learning a unit) Each student has his/her self-assessment according to the teaching aims and requirements, fills in the assessment form, analyzes and summarizes his study for this unit and his advantages and

disadvantages in the test, and writes down detailed measures on how to make progress. The course representative fills in the homework grade and test score.

Step 3: (After finishing learning a module) After the module exam, every student analyzes and summarizes his/her study for this module, his advantages and disadvantages in the exam, and writes down detailed measures on how to make progress.

Step 4: (At the end of a semester) Every student is assessed fully by himself, his group, his class and the teacher on the semester's study.

Cooperative learning is carried out throughout the whole process, which fully embodies the student-centered teaching. It not only eliminates students' fear of learning, cultivates and promotes the friendship between their classmates, but also enables them to learn from each other, obtains collective wisdom, and thus, eventually makes them love study. Cooperative learning helps students to gain necessary communicative abilities, which include communicative strategies, emotion controlling abilities, relevant social knowledge and social skills. It also makes students aware of the different characteristics and effects of cooperation and competition so as to lay a foundation for their future life (Kang, 2006).

Five parts of the summary form of self-assessment

1. Every student is required to have a self-assessment on the following:
Previewing; Memorizing new words; Listening in class; Taking notes; Morning reading; Morning study attitude; Class involvement; Group discussion; Finishing homework; Evening study. The assessment is accomplished by ticking the answers honestly from three options. For example: for finishing homework, the answers would be: a) Can't finish on time and partially copied from others; b) Just finished teacher's tasks; c) Finished independently and earnestly on time. (The above detailed assessment causes students to realize that they have to do well in all the above aspects if they want to learn English well.)

2. The analysis and summary of a unit's study: Main achievements from autonomous, cooperative and inquiry study; Thoughts and gains from discussing with classmates; Problems in their English study. (Besides finishing the textbooks' requirements, this part also checks the student's study attitude and feelings, group study and learning problems, so that it can reflect the student's study from all sides.)
3. Study feedback for the teacher: Students' problems that need the teacher's help; advice for the teacher.
4. Parents' assessment and advice.
5. Self-assessment grade.

Participants

122 students from two ordinary classes from Xin'an Middle School, a national model senior middle school in Shenzhen China. 2004-2005 school year, one Year 10 ordinary class with 60 students. 2005-2006 school year, two Year 11 ordinary classes with 122 students.

Qualitative Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews with 10 students were carried out and audio-taped. These were performed with five students from each of the two classes chosen at random by drawing numbers from a box in July, 2006. The question that formed the focus of the interview was "What is your opinion of our formative assessment (portfolio)?"

Quantitative Data Collection

A questionnaire was carried out with all the 122 Year-11 students in July, 2006. Students were asked to choose the answers from A. strongly disagree, B. disagree, C. neutral, D. agree, and E. strongly agree. They filled in their answers in their answer sheets, and the school grading machine was used to retrieve the data from the student answer sheets. The items on the questionnaire included the following: (1) I like this kind of assessment; (2) This assessment has made me gain confidence in learning English step by step; (3) This assessment has promoted the communication between me, my parents and

the teacher; (4) This assessment has helped me improve my English.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Interview:

All the 10 students made comments that suggest they like the formative assessment (Portfolio). These comments are given below.

Student A: *I like the portfolio because it can make me conclude the experience of successes and failures so as to improve my English study step by step.*

Student B: *With the parents, students and teachers' involvement, the portfolio has become a bridge to communicate with each other and a place to tell our thoughts.*

Student C: *It can promote the communication between the teacher and students. What's more important is that I can tell the teacher the problems in my study in time so that I can get his or her help in time. In that case, I won't accumulate my questions and become confused.*

Student D: *I was inspired by the teacher's encouraging words and motivated to study hard. The portfolio can promote the feelings and love between the teacher and students. It also helps me improve my study methods.*

Student E: *My English was very poor. Although I studied hard, I couldn't improve it. Before adopting the portfolio, I was always regarded as a low level student and because of that, I once gave up studying English. Now with the new assessment, the teacher always praises me and says that I am a good student, which made me gain confidence and my English has improved accordingly.*

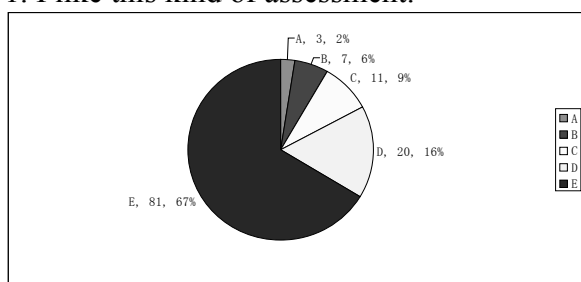
Student F: *At the beginning of the school term, the teacher made the assessment form of the module study public, which gave me goals of my study. Moreover, this assessment, which focuses on the process of everyday study, has made it clear that whether I am a top student or a low level student depends on my everyday work, and the improvement of our scores lies in my accumulation of knowledge. Only by*

working hard can I make achievements. At the same time, as long as I make an effort, I am sure to achieve something.

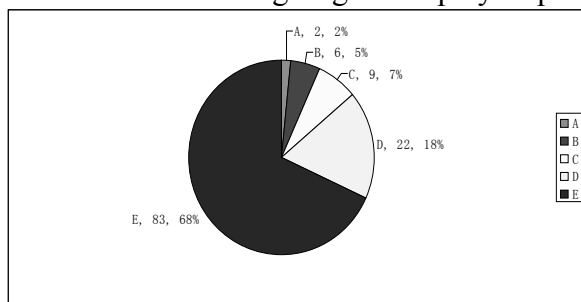
Questionnaire

The following graphs show the number and the percentage of students who chose: A. strongly disagree, B. disagree, C. neutral, D. agree, and E. strongly agree for the 4 questions above.

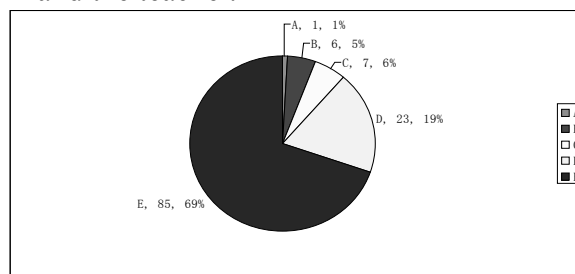
1. I like this kind of assessment.



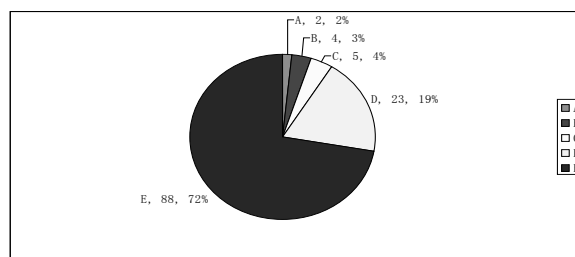
2. This assessment has made me gain confidence in learning English step by step.



3. This assessment has promoted the communication between me, my parents and the teacher.



4. This assessment has helped me improve my English.



Examination scores

In the final exam of the 2004-2005 school year held by Bao'an Education Bureau (The test papers which were bound to conceal the students' names were marked together by all senior 1 teachers from the district), the students made outstanding achievements.

Class	Number of students	Average score	Difference in score from other classes	Pass ratio	Difference in pass ratio from other classes
1	61	50.7	+5.3	32.8	+15.5
2	60	52.4	+3.6	36.7	+11.6
3☆	60	56		48.3	
4	61	53.6	+2.4	31.1	+ 17.2

Note: Altogether, there were 8 classes.

Class 1, 2, 3, 4 are ordinary classes—the lowest level.

Class 5 & 6 are key classes—the second level classes.

Class 7 & 8 are experimental class—top classes.

One student from class 3 ranked No. 11 in the grade, and six students were among the top 100 in their grade. The final exam of the 2004-2005 school year, compared with the placement test at the beginning is as follow:

Class	Number of students	Average score (pt)	Average score (ft)	Difference in average score from other classes
3	63	75.2	75.6	+ 0.4
4 ☆	62	74.5	76.8	+ 2.3
5 ☆	61	72.7	76.4	+ 3.7
6	61	78.2	76.9	- 1.3

Note: Altogether there were 8 classes.

Class 3, 4, 5, 6 are ordinary classes--- the lowest level.

Class 2 & 7 are key classes--- the second level classes.

Class 1 & 8 are experimental class--- top classes.

The average score of the whole grade only increased by 0.1 point.

Discussion:

The present research has supported and developed the findings mentioned in the literature review as follows. The findings support the claim by Boston (2002) that the formative assessment is able to find out how both learning and teaching are progressing and where students are having trouble, so that the teacher can use this information to make necessary adjustments on teaching, and students can adjust their learning to solve problems in time. These activities did lead to improved student success.

The findings support the claim by Bangert-Drowns, Kulick, & Morgan (1991) and Elawar & Corno (1985) that the teacher's specific comments about errors encourage students to focus their attention thoughtfully on the task, rather than on simply getting the right answer, as is often the case with summative assessment. The research also supports the claims by Ames (1992), Vispoel & Austin (1995), and Boston (2002) that formative assessment enables students to do away with the detrimental view that they cannot learn English well due to a lack of innate ability.

In addition, the following claims can be made based on the findings of the present research:

(1) The teacher's specific encouraging comments on students' study made them confident and motivated them to continue working diligently, particularly to low-level students because they lack confidence and perseverance; (2) The teacher's specific suggestions for improvement

guided students to be on the right track of learning English well; (3) The detailed self-assessment on a unit's study can enable every student to improve his or her English as long as s/he finishes his/her daily tasks according to the requirements, no matter how low his/her English level is; (4) The formative assessment can enable every student to experience success so that all of the students enjoy going to school; (5) The analysis and summary of each unit's test enables each student to realize his or her advantages and unique talents, so he or she can be confident and learn English well step by step, as long as he or she works hard; (6) The formative assessment focusing on students' autonomous, cooperative and inquisitive study enables students to learn from each other and make progress together through group work, while cultivating a cooperative spirit; (7) The formative assessment enables students to be the owners of their assessment so that they are motivated to participate and feel a sense of responsibility later on; (8) The multi-assessment leads to a greater understanding among teachers, students, and parents, while making their relationships closer; and (9) The exhibition of study achievements enabled students to share their work and feel confident and proud.

We can also say that summative assessment makes students, especially poor students, give up learning English and hinders students' development, while formative

assessment enables students to improve English step by step. Formative assessment can also enable students to tell the teacher his or her problems immediately so as to solve them in time, and can guide students' study and makes them understand that only by working hard day by day can they make progress. At the same time, as long as they make efforts, they will surely gain something, whereas portfolio assessment is a good place for parents, teachers and students to communicate with each other. The findings also indicate that teacher's encouraging words and comments, especially written ones, can have a great impact on students, which can motivate them to learn English, while self-assessment promotes students' learning English. In general, assessment can enable students to gain confidence and enhance the communication between the teacher and students.

In order to make students remain active and involved, the teacher must make each student know the importance of the assessment clearly from the onset. When students are finishing each task, the teacher should tell them what to do using clear and exact instructions to ensure that every student finishes the task according to the requirements. In addition, the teacher should walk around the classroom to supervise and offer help to those who need it. Furthermore, after learning a unit, the teacher should make sure that every student has handed in his/her portfolio. The teacher should, then, be sure to read each portfolio carefully, answer questions and write comments. Each time, the teacher should not forget to praise those who have finished the tasks well and timely in public so as to make others follow them.

For the difficult tasks, such as the study plan and the analyzing and summarizing a unit's study, the teacher should collect a few excellent ones as samples and use a slide show to give students a model to work with so they may revise their tasks. Moreover, the teacher should explain the benefits from writing one's own strong and weak points to encourage them to be honest with themselves. Furthermore,

the teacher should check every student's portfolio conscientiously and meticulously to find out whose portfolio is not finished correctly and which students has difficulty in finishing the tasks. Then, the teacher should coach the students individually. Because it is difficult for students to finish the tasks in English, the teacher should not require that all students write in English, but encourage those of a higher-level to try.

When forming groups, the teacher ensures that each group has a mixture of high-level and lower-level students. At the same time, each group should include both boys and girls to encourage them to make progress together. The teacher should write positive and encouraging comments to increase the confidence of students (State Council Document, 2000). At the same time, whenever a student tells the teacher s/he wished to be kept private from the rest of the class, the teacher should respect the student's privacy.

Each student must make his/her study plan according to his own circumstances and should not copy others. The study goal should not be too high or too low, but rather one that s/he can achieve with an amount of effort. His/her goal should be to produce a motivation that encourages him/her to work hard every day continuously. The analysis and summary of a unit's study is the most difficult part, and it cannot be dealt with hastily, with a few words. It should include four parts: a. Main achievements from autonomous, cooperative and inquiry study, which requires the students to write down what they have learned according to the aims and requirements of the unit; b. One's learning enthusiasm and initiative, which requires writing out their study attitude and feelings honestly; c. What they have learned from communicating with their classmates, which requires that they write down their group work and their feelings and achievements; d. Their problems, which requires that they write down their own problems in English. Whenever they have questions, they should put it forward without hesitation for group work and solve it through group discussions. When their group cannot

solve the problem, they should report it to the teacher.

The analysis and summary of a test should include: a. The points the students received for each test task and their own strengths and weaknesses; b. Whether they have made progress, compared with the previous examination; c. Their ranking among the students in their class; d. Their successful and unsuccessful experiences e. Their measures or steps to be taken.

The students should make full use of group work and improve their abilities in analyzing and solving problems. Whenever they have questions, they should not hesitate to ask. They should not withhold from asking questions for the sake of not losing face. At the same time, they should not hide their weaknesses or mistakes; instead, they should write down their failures and analyze the reasons for them.

They have to change their view from focusing on examination scores only to, instead, focusing on the process of everyday study to enjoy happiness and each individual success from the process. For the semester of final self-assessment, they should mainly assess their study attitude and how they cultivate and improve their study abilities. During their everyday study, they should collect works they feel satisfied with, and learn how to encourage themselves and experience success. They should be fully aware of the benefits of the formative assessment and be an active participant.

The items of the unit's test and the module exam are mostly multiple choices, which cannot show a student's English level completely. Various test items and oral test should be added. All the data in the research were collected in a Chinese high school, and we still do not know if the portfolio can be used in other cultures. So, its cross-cultural validity needs to be verified.

CONCLUSION

The achievements coming from the portfolio can give students timely and effective assessment and encouragement on their daily

study. It enables students to experience success and cooperative study to improve their interest and confidence in learning English. The study shows that formative assessment using portfolio promotes students' development regardless of whether they are good students or poor students.

The present research has proved that students who have been assessed by formative assessment enjoy going to school more and have made obvious progress compared to those assessed using summative assessment. The formative assessment approach has been warmly welcomed by students.

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TEACHERS' STRATEGY IN IMPLEMENTING ENGLISH CURRICULUM IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN INDONESIA

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Abstract: This study is a part of a bigger study investigating teachers' personal theories (beliefs) regarding English teaching and learning. Involving forty-two English teachers of fifteen Junior High Schools in the city of Sukabumi, West Java, this cross-sectional survey study used data gained from an open-ended questionnaire. A total of 3696 raw data items were gathered and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Relevant findings regarding the implementation of the curriculum in the daily process of English teaching and learning show that there are gaps between the mandated curriculum as stipulated by the government and the implemented curriculum at the classroom level. This departure from the mandated curriculum, in turn, diverts the course of curriculum implementation and leads to a level of accomplishment of the main goals of the English teaching and learning, which is different from what is stated in the mandated curriculum.

Keywords: English, teaching, learning, mandated curriculum, and implemented curriculum.

Abstrak: Kajian ini adalah bagian dari kajian yang lebih besar yang meneliti teori-teori (kepercayaan) pribadi guru sehubungan dengan pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris. Dengan melibatkan empat puluh dua guru bahasa Inggris dari lima belas Sekolah Menengah Pertama di kota Sukabumi, Jawa Barat, kajian "survey penampang silang" ini memanfaatkan data yang diperoleh dari angket terbuka-tertutup. Dari total 3696 data mentah, satuan data kemudian dianalisis secara kualitatif dan kuantitatif. Temuan-temuan yang relevan berkenaan dengan penerapan kurikulum dalam proses sehari-hari pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris menunjukkan adanya ketimpangan antara kurikulum yang diberikan, seperti yang ditetapkan oleh pemerintah, dan kurikulum yang diterapkan di tingkat kelas. Ketidaksiesuaian ini menyimpangkan arah penerapan kurikulum dan membawa pada tingkat pencapaian tujuan-tujuan utama pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris yang berbeda dari yang dinyatakan dalam kurikulum yang diamanatkan.

Kata kunci: Bahasa Inggris, pengajaran, pembelajaran, kurikulum yang diamanatkan, dan kurikulum yang diterapkan.

Many scholars who have conducted intensive and extensive studies on teachers and their conceptions and teaching activities, such as Anderson and Reynolds (1995), Ballone and Czerniak (2001), Fang (1996), Murphy (1999), and Pajares (1992), put forward that teachers' conception about the nature of teaching and

learning (e.g. their conceptions about the subject matter that they teach, how students learn, how to facilitate students' learning, as well as how they conceptualize their work) guides and determines their pedagogical decisions and practices as well as their development throughout their professional

lives. More specifically, according to Yero (2002), individual teachers—through their conscious or unconscious participation (or lack thereof)—have the power to make or break reform efforts. They shape the curriculum according to their own beliefs, teach their own personal values through the implicit curriculum, and operate their classrooms in accordance with their own particular definitions of teaching and learning.

As a matter of fact, curriculum as mandated by Ministry of National Education sets parameters that should confine teachers' instructional decision-making at the school level. However, as the implementers of the curriculum who translate it into practice, teachers are often confronted with many contextual problems that, in effect, "force" them to make decisions, which are not fully consistent with the aspiration of the mandated curriculum. These contextual forces include the lack of teaching and learning sources, parental demand (that their children should pass the English subject with good scores), test systems, etc. This kind of condition, in turn, drives the teachers to create and internalize their own maps that serve as the bases for making decisions and, in practice, becomes the teachers' implemented curriculum. Consequently, there are gaps between the curriculum mandated by the government and the curriculum that is implemented by the teachers in their daily teaching and learning process. This practice can lead to different levels of completion in attaining the main goals of the English teaching and learning as stated in the mandated curriculum.

Ideally, an education system should form a coherent whole from the upstream (at the central level) to downstream (at the school level). In practice, however, the system manifests differently in different places. Take this as an example: All teachers who participated in the study (100%) considered students' good scores as the major parameter used to justify the success of their teaching. This led the teachers—consciously or subconsciously—to teach English for the test. In this case, test has been one of influential

aspects of teaching context (Borg and Burns, 2006) that has shaped teachers' beliefs about themselves, about others, and the worlds around them (Murphy, 1999), and also has influenced almost every decision that they make (Chiang, 2003; Richards and Lockhart, 1995). Test, that is to say, drives instruction.

With high spirit of services, teachers have made a great deal of attempts to assist their students in learning English, although the decisions are contentious. The data in this study revealed that although basically the teachers believe that all the skills are important and should be taught in an integrated way in every session (as stated in the mandated curriculum), the content of the test, which has been found to be disproportional in terms of number of questions addressing each of macro linguistic skills and language elements, encourages the teachers to deliberately take reductionistic views on the teaching of English, including reduction of macro linguistic skills, reduction of language elements, reduction of teaching activities, and reduction of English test.

In the following sections, this article will present and discuss some findings relative to how the teachers of English at junior high school level in a regency in West Java implement the English curriculum to meet the kinds of demands coming from their actual teaching and learning contexts.

METHOD

This study is a descriptive (non-experimental) one in nature. It attempted to find out certain variables that were not easily identified or too embedded in the phenomenon to be extracted for study. No manipulations or treatments of subjects were devised in this study—the variables were characterized as they were.

In this non-experimental study, a total population of fifteen Junior High Schools in a regency in West Java was involved as the participants in the study. This level of schooling was chosen because it is the first level of education where English has been officially taught and, therefore, English teaching at this level can hold decisive impacts on students' further learning. In addition, logistically

speaking, these schools were relatively easier to access because the researcher was one of the English teachers.

To ensure that the data reflect a full picture of the condition, the total number of schools—represented by forty-two teachers of English—was taken as participants of the study. These participating teachers were non-native teachers of English. The majority of these teachers were female (61.90%) and the rest of them were male (38.10%). Most of them hold an S1 (bachelor's degree) as their highest degree (90.48%), or had D1 (one-year university diploma) (2.38%) and D3 (three-year university diploma) (2.38%). They all majored in English Education. Meanwhile, the remaining two respondents hold an S1 degree from different specialty areas of educational background (4.76%): one majored in Mechanical Engineering and the other majored in Management. In addition, the majority of the teachers reported that they had never taken any additional English courses (83.33%), while the rest did (16.67%).

In order to collect, organize, and integrate the data, this study employed a cross-sectional survey as its research design. This research design was employed because of the nature of the research questions as well as the scope of the study that involved a total number of populations of a relatively large geographic area (Merriam and Simpson, 1989; Merriam, 1991; Fowler, 1995; Scheureun, 2000; Trochim, 2001; McMillan and Schumacher, 2001; Walonick, 2004; Connor, 2006; Coe, 2006; etc.).

In order to collect the necessary data, the researcher administered a set of self-administered written questionnaire, which provides direct quotations, to the respondents. This instrument was chosen essentially for two reasons. One reason is that questionnaire is a very effective way to gain data from a big number of participants like in this study and, secondly, because it is less intrusive compared to any other data collection method (such as telephone or face-to-face surveys)—the participants were free to answer the questions on their own timetable.

The questionnaire utilized in this study comprises fifty-seven main questions. All of

these questions were developed based on the research questions that had been composed based on theories (through careful writing, editing, reviewing, and rewriting). In order to probe detailed information, most of the questions were open-ended and few of them were closed ones. According to Fowler (1995), asking open-ended questions is among the best ways to increase response, especially to measure complex matter. Fowler (1995) further emphasized that although the measurement result may not be as easy to work with; participants like to answer some questions in their own words.

Furthermore, to ensure the validity of their responses, some questions were deliberately designed with a specific function to check the participants' consistency. Besides, given that this study applied no other data collecting procedures, some sub-questions investigating the "hows" and "whys" related to certain main questions were given in order to solicit more information and to verify their responses.

In order to establish the whole pictures of the findings, the data gained were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. More specifically, the data were analyzed through precisely nine careful steps. *First*, every respondent was assigned a number (as an identity). *Second*, the respondents' responses were typed under each question consistent with the identification number of the respondents—this resulted in 88 sets of data. This typing process was done to file the raw data, to make the data more user-friendly and to make the analyses easier. Besides, this procedure made the verification of participants' consistency possible. It also made more straightforward the process of data analyses of every response and across responses of a question as well as across questions under the same issue and across issues. *Third*, each data set was read repeatedly to identify recurring topics. In this step, the recurring topics (the keywords stated on each response) were then highlighted using various kinds of symbol (e.g. ●, *, ⊕) and colorful highlighters. In some cases, especially in analyzing closed questions, the processes were easier because the questions

had directly provided the themes (such as important/not that important/unimportant), in which the data could be put into nominal-level categories right after applying the themes into the responses. *Fourth*, the recurring topics coming from each data set were organized into themes relevant to items of the questions in the questionnaire.

Afterwards, in the *fifth* step, the recurring themes were rearranged into categories (per data set), for example: language aspects, language skills, etc. In the *sixth* step, the categories were copied into a separate list of items complimented with the number of respondents. This procedure made possible the calculation of each category into percentages. *Seventh*, the data sets, which have been converted into categories and percentages, were organized based on corresponding research questions. Because all research questions required information from many different items of questions, references were made into “maps of questions” already prepared beforehand. In this way, all related information items could be put together. From this grouping, formulation of finding for each research question became possible. *Eight*, the (big number of) categories in each group of data set were reformulated into fewer bigger categories—there are four groups of data sets, including data sets about teachers’ beliefs about English, about learning English, teaching English, and about the teachers’ job. Finally, in the *ninth* step, a statement of generalization based on the final categories organized under each research question was formulated.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Curriculum has long been considered as the most important guidelines and component

of teaching and learning processes needed by teachers to achieve the purposes of their teaching activities. Related to this, the result of data analyses revealed that the teachers believed that *curriculum* and lesson plans were the most important guidelines that they mainly consulted in determining their daily teaching and learning activities—including in deciding on the exercises and evaluation that they usually administer, as shown in the Table 1.

Furhermore, the majority of the teachers agreed that curriculum was the reference they primarily consulted to do the following things: to choose the topic(s) they regularly presented in their daily English teaching activities (92.86%), to develop their lesson plans (88.10%), and to choose quality teaching sources (namely, English textbooks and students’ worksheets) both for the teachers and students (80.95%). In other words, it can be inferred that the teachers found themselves comfortable when they did English teaching based on curriculum—consulting curriculum is considered the best way for the purposes of their teaching activities.

However, although the teachers believed that curriculum was the major teaching guideline, in general, most of the teachers reported that facilitating their students to learn the materials stated in the curriculum was difficult because the materials to cover and the number of students to teach in every classroom were too many, whereas the allocated time and supporting materials and learning facilities were limited (85.71%). For example, in the context of 2004 curriculum, some teachers found the curriculum unrealistic in terms of both contents and expectations.

Table 1. The most important teaching guidelines

Daily teaching and learning Guidelines	Number of occurrences	Percentages
Curriculum and lesson plans	36/36	85.71%
The order of activities available in the student workbooks (LKS)	30	71.43%
The order of activities available in the textbook	27	64.29%
Guidance from the MGMP	19	45.24%
The agreement with the students	15	35.71%

As a matter of fact, when the teachers were asked about things that they do not understand about the 2004 curriculum, most of them commented on its impracticality (54.76%). They agreed that this curriculum was difficult and had no relevance to classroom conditions in their context, whose students were too many. They said that the curriculum set too high standards of goals of learning—the goals were unrealistic. Furthermore, the curriculum made them uncertain about the implementation of text-based teaching and learning, and the intended evaluation system. In the teachers' understanding, actually the curriculum put teaching and learning writing as the primary goal. In addition, the curriculum was impractical because, while the teaching and learning process is supposed to be based

on kinds of text types, certain text types are, indeed, quite difficult to locate.

Meanwhile, other teachers reported that the curriculum was difficult in terms of technical complexities (45.24%). These teachers said that they were confused about how to apply the newest genre-based teaching and learning cycles that consist of four levels, namely building knowledge of field (BKOF), modeling of text (MOT), joint construction of text (JCOT), and independent construction of text (ICOT). They wondered about what kind of method was best suited with these cycles because the curriculum brings into play certain learning approach (namely communication-based approach, literacy-based approach and genre-based approach).

Table 2. Responses about the 2004 Curriculum

Thing(s) I understand from the curriculum	Percentages
The 2004 Curriculum emphasizes the mastery of standard competency of English in order to produce students who are communicatively competent both in spoken and written mode	33.34%
The 2004 Curriculum emphasizes the teaching and learning process based on text types/genre, in which its focus is more on writing skill	26.19%
The 2004 Curriculum requires the students to be active learners	26.19%
The cycles of teaching and learning process cover the BKOF, MOT, JCOT, and ICOT	2.38%
Non-response	11.90%
- The 1994 Curriculum is more comprehensible and applicable than the 2004 curriculum (7.14%).	
- The materials to be taught (2.38%).	
- The process of making the teaching aids (2.38%).	
Total	100%

Therefore, it can be said that while, indeed, teachers found difficulties in implementing the 2004 curriculum, it is clear that these difficulties stem primarily from the nature of the curriculum, which is impractical. Additionally, another contributing factor of the difficulties is a lack of socialization. Indeed, in response to question about the thing(s) that they understand from the curriculum, the teachers gave quite various responses (as shown in Table 2).

In fact, through analyses of the data gained in this study, it is found that the

teachers conceptualized teaching and learning English as the teaching and learning of macro linguistic skills (85.71%). However, although they believed that all the skills should be taught in an integrated way in their daily teaching and learning process, further analyses revealed most of the teachers taught reading and speaking, together with *vocabulary* and *grammar*; more often than the other macro skills and language elements (writing, listening, punctuation, intonation, etc.). The teachers considered these language skills and elements the most important to be

learned by students, as these language skills and elements hold the highest proportion of a number of questions appearing in the national examination (UN). The students have to learn more of these because they must get good score to indicate the success of the teaching and learning process (see Table 3).

Furthermore, teachers' conception in believing reading, speaking, vocabulary, and grammar as the most important language skills and aspects in English is, indeed, reasonable. That is, these linguistic resources enable both teachers and students to achieve some real purposes in life both academically and socially.

Table 3. The most frequently taught language skill(s)

Language skills	Percentages
Reading	45.25%
Reading and speaking	11.90%
Reading, speaking, and writing	9.53%
Reading and writing	7.14%
Reading, listening, and speaking	2.38%
Reading, listening, and writing	2.38%
Reading and listening	2.38%
Speaking	11.90%
Writing	7.14%
Listening	0%
Total	100%

Academically, *reading* and *speaking* were important for students to master because the students need to read many English texts and do many exercises that involve many reading and speaking tasks. Meanwhile, socially, these skills are necessary to widen up their knowledge and life perspective, support them to attain higher education, sustain their prestigious life style, enhance their social relationships with others, and get many other real life purposes. In the same line, *vocabulary* and *grammar* as language aspects are important because these enable both teachers and students to express their ideas properly, use the right word with the right form, understand meaning in any kinds of text, explain the

intended meaning on the right time and place, and (most of all) communicate appropriately with others. In fact, when the teachers were asked to choose the language aspect(s) they like most to learn—covering vocabulary, intonation, pronunciation, grammar, and punctuation—most of them chose language aspects that would support their ability to speak (vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and intonation). As can be inferred from the table below, none of the teachers straightforwardly chose punctuation as a supportive aspect of English communication (in written mode). Indeed, the choice of punctuation can only be inferred from two teachers who reported liking to learn all the aspects (4.76%) (see Table 4).

Table 4. The most pleasurable language aspect(s) to learn

No.	Language aspects	Percentage
1.	Grammar	33.34%
2.	Pronunciation	23.82%
3.	Vocabulary	9.52%
4.	Vocabulary and Grammar	7.14%
5.	Vocabulary and Pronunciation	7.14%

6.	Grammar and Pronunciation	4.76%
7.	Grammar, Vocabulary, and Pronunciation	4.76%
8.	Pronunciation and Intonation	4.76%
9.	All language aspects	4.76%
Total		100%

Consistently, data analyses on the teachers' current teaching activities revealed that only eight out of forty-two teachers considered punctuation as a supportive aspect of their students' communication ability (see Table 5).

Table 5. The most important and supportive language aspect of students' communication ability

Language aspects	The most important aspect to be learned by students		The most supportive language aspect of students' communication ability	
	Number of occurrences	Percentages	Number of occurrences	Percentages
Vocabulary	42	100%	36	85.71%
Pronunciation	41	97.62%	22	52.38%
Grammar	40	95.24%	19	45.24%
Intonation	38	90.48%	10	23.81%
Punctuation	36	85.71%	8	19.05%

Ideally, there are two forms of communication—oral and written communications. These forms of communication should be developed through English teaching by facilitating students' learning with all the language skills and aspects in an integrated way. However, further analyses of the data described above confirmed that teachers' conception about the

importance of learning these language skills and aspects consistently translate themselves into instructional acts in the classroom (as reported in the questionnaire). That is, the teachers who believe in the importance of reading, speaking, vocabulary, and grammar, prioritize these skills and aspects in their teaching of English (see Table 6).

Table 6. The results of data analyses on English language skill(s)

Responses about ...		Language Skills (in percentages)			
		Reading	Speaking	Writing	Listening
Current English Teaching activities	The most important skill(s) to be mastered by students	54.76%	52.38%	33.34%	33.34%
	The most commonly taught skill(s)	80.96%	35.72%	7.14%	0%
	The most rarely taught skill(s)	7.14%	2.38%	33.34%	57.14%

Additionally, as articulated earlier, this condition is also driven by the reality that those skills and elements are included more often in the test in contrast with the other ones. Consequently, with the intention of assisting their students to get good score, the teachers used student worksheets as one of the most important teaching and learning sources, as it contains lots of exercises that

would train the students to answer questions correctly to get good scores. Results of data analyses indicated that the teachers believed that student worksheets (95.24%) facilitated their teaching and learning activities more than any other sources. As a matter of fact, these sources were the most frequently used as teaching sources in their daily teaching, as can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7. The usability of teaching sources in daily teaching

No.	Categories	The most frequently used teaching sources	
		Number of occurrence	Percentages
1.	Students Worksheets	40	95.24%
2.	Lesson Plans	38	90.47%
3.	English Textbook	36	85.71%
4.	Additional Teaching Media (Cards, pictures, charts, cassettes, Cds, etc.)	35	83.33%
5.	Authentic Material	34	80.95%
6.	Curriculum	33	78.57%
7.	Syllabus	29	69.05%

Although on one hand, it was quite surprising, further analyses found that the teachers were very practical in their daily teaching by choosing student worksheets as the primary source in guiding their teaching. That is, the worksheets are to some extent easier and more practical to use than other teaching sources, and cheaper than English textbooks—there are seventeen teachers out of forty-two, who reported that many of their students could not afford to buy the book(s) to support their learning (40.48%).

Moreover, similar to English textbooks, most of student worksheets are developed by expert teachers based on the mandated curriculum. The worksheets contain various materials, activities, exercises, and (most of all) review tests that are ready for use—these components are the most important things the teachers considered before teaching (97.62%).

Furthermore, it is also interesting to note that the worksheets provided for teachers are complemented with answer keys. Consequently, the worksheets made it easier for the teachers to help their students to cope with any kind of exercises, especially the ones that are commonly given in final test. Exercises done by students make it easier for teachers to evaluate their teaching and give score to their students' learning.

Additionally, it is also interesting to know that in general the teachers taught English through product-focused approaches, as opposed to process-oriented pedagogy that is propagated in the mandated curriculum because they use students' scores as the only parameter to measure the achievement

of their teaching activities. In general, this product-oriented teaching is reflected in the teachers' teaching activities (as stated in the questionnaire). During the English teaching, most of the teachers taught all the skills at the level of language usage (expressions/forms) rather than language use (meaning).

More specifically, during the pre-teaching activity, the majority of the teachers usually started the lesson by giving sets of questions, telling stories, showing pictures, giving games related to topics under discussion, doing the brainstorming related to the topic, relating the topic to their students' daily life, and or relating the previous lesson to the new one (97.62%).

Meanwhile, during the whilst-teaching activities, some specific techniques were chosen based on the skills to teach. More specifically, in teaching reading, for example, most of the teachers usually required the students to read the available text, discussed the text with the students (translated some words stated in the text in order to help them to comprehend the text and able to answer the questions), and subsequently answered the questions that follow. In teaching speaking, the teachers usually provided as many question-and-answer sessions as possible, required the students to perform dialog and do the role-playing activities based on the available texts in front of the classroom, and asked the students to make a short dialogue themselves based on the topic given afterward.

Furthermore, in teaching writing, the majority of the teachers applied an almost the same teaching pattern, ranging from

rewriting words up to rewriting the available text(s). During their teaching writing, they usually directed their students to develop certain words into sentences based on the examples given (sometimes they provided the students with certain topics in the form of pictures, themes, or vocabularies). Afterward, they instructed their students to develop the sentences into a paragraph, and then into a larger text. Moreover, in teaching listening, the teachers usually required the students to listen to the text read aloud by the teachers (and or listening to the tape) and subsequently did the exercises given.

Meanwhile, to conclude the lessons, the majority of the teachers usually reinforced their students' understanding of the material being discussed by way of giving reflections or conclusions about what they had learned, or by administering various kinds of exercises, quizzes (question and answer games), evaluation (both spoken and written), and or giving some homework. Generally, they would end their teaching activities after the students did the exercises given, without many further meaningful communication activities that would require their students to use the information at the discourse level. Even though some teachers gave relatively more room for their students' creativity in expressing their ideas (in speaking and writing) by providing the students with certain topics in the form of pictures, themes or vocabularies for them to develop, students' creativity was still limited. In fact, the topics were still determined by teachers alone and, in reality, they required their students to stick to examples they provided.

CONCLUSION

By way of conclusion, it is safe to say that teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning, which are reductionistic in nature, result from inconsistencies found in the mandated curriculum. That is, on the one hand, the English curriculum seems to champion the integrated nature of communicative language teaching, which requires that all linguistic skills be taught in an integrated way and

proportionally. On the other hand, the English test in the national examination only emphasizes reading while the other macro skills are neglected almost altogether. More specifically, there is no question assessing listening skills, writing is assessed through questions related to structure, and speaking is not assessed at discourse level. This condition encouraged the teachers to prioritize some skills and neglect the others. If we want English teachers to adopt more holistic and coherent conceptions of the English teaching and learning as reflected in the mandated curriculum, the test format and coverage should be revisited and reconstructed to better reflect those conceptions.

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THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH MULTIPLE INTERROGATIVES BY INDONESIAN SPEAKERS

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Abstract: This paper investigates the acquisition of English multiple interrogatives such as *Who did what?* by advanced learners of English whose first language is Indonesian. The underlying functional feature of multiple interrogatives is multiple focus features, which are not available in Indonesian. Unlike English, there is no equivalent structure of multiple interrogatives in Indonesian since *wh*-questions in this language are instantiations of unique focus constructions. Acceptability judgment tasks were administered on four *wh*-pairings: *who-when*, *who-where*, *what-when*, and *what-where*. The first task was in the form of questions with a pair-list answer and single answer, whereas the second was in the form of questions within the contexts. Conjoined interrogatives were also added into the tasks in order to observe the L1 transfer. The results clearly demonstrate that overall advanced learners of English were significantly different from the English native speakers in their ratings of acceptability of multiple interrogatives. However, the statistical data of each *wh*-phrase pairing demonstrates that L2 learners performed like native controls in their ratings of most of the pairings. These findings suggest that the present study lends partial support to Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis and No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis.

Keywords: multiple interrogatives, multiple focus features, acceptability judgment tasks

Abstrak: Makalah ini menyelidiki perolehan kalimat tanya bertingkat seperti *siapa yang melakukan apa* oleh para pembelajar bahasa Inggris tingkat mahir yang bahasa ibunya bahasa Indonesia. Fitur fungsional penting dari kalimat tanya bertingkat adalah fitur fokus bertingkat, yang tidak ada dalam bahasa Indonesia. Tidak seperti bahasa Inggris, tidak ada struktur yang sama untuk kalimat tanya bertingkat dalam bahasa Indonesia karena pertanyaan dari “*wh*” dalam bahasa ini adalah instansiasi dari konstruksi fokus yang unik. Tugas penilaian keberterimaan dilaksanakan dalam empat pemasangan kata tanya “*wh*”: “*who-when*” (siapa-kapan), “*who-where*” (siapa-di mana), “*what-when*” (apa-kapan), dan “*what-where*” (apa-di mana). Tugas utama dalam bentuk pertanyaan dengan jawaban sepasang dan jawaban tunggal, sementara yang ke dua dalam bentuk pertanyaan dalam konteks. Kalimat tanya gabungan juga ditambahkan ke dalam tugas-tugas tersebut untuk mengamati peralihan bahasa sumber. Hasilnya jelas menunjukkan bahwa secara keseluruhan pembelajar bahasa Inggris mahir secara signifikan berbeda dengan penutur asli bahasa Inggris dalam penilaian mereka terhadap keberterimaan kalimat tanya bertingkat. Akan tetapi, data statistik dari tiap pasangan frase “*wh*” menunjukkan bahwa pembelajar bahasa asing melakukan penilaian di hampir semua pasangan seperti layaknya penutur asing. Temuan-temuan ini menunjukkan bahwa kajian ini mendukung Hipotesis Peralihan Penuh/Akses Penuh dan Hipotesis “No Parameter Resetting.”

Kata kunci: kalimat tanya bertingkat, fitur fokus bertingkat, tugas penilaian keberterimaan,

The nature of L1 transfer to L2 grammars and Universal Grammar access at L2 grammars is one of the intriguing issues in generative second language acquisition, about which several hypotheses have been proposed. Two of them became the concern of the present study, namely Full Transfer/Full Access (Schwartz & Sprouse 1994, 1996), which contends that parameters can be reset to account for the new values in the L2, and No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis, which argues that parameters cannot be reset if they differ from those in the L1 (Hawkin 1998; Hawkins and Chan 1997).

The present paper shall present empirical evidence which will argue for or against one of the two hypotheses. In particular, it investigates the acquisition of multiple interrogatives in the interlanguage grammar of Indonesian-speaking learners of English, which implicates the acquisition of multiple focus features. Multiple interrogatives are common cross-linguistically, yet there are some languages that do not have a feature to allow them to build such constructions. One of these is Indonesian (or Bahasa Indonesia). Hence, in the context of second language acquisition, it is interesting to ascertain whether multiple interrogatives are acquirable by Indonesian learners of English.

The paper will be organized as follows. Section II will offer some theoretical frameworks about multiple interrogatives in English by outlining the fact that such constructions are possible in English due to the presence of multiple focus features at Logical Form (LF). This feature is not available in Indonesian due to the fact that Indonesian wh-questions are instances of unique focus constructions. Section III will describe some consideration of the issue at hand in light of the two hypotheses. Section IV will lay out the research question and the prediction made by each of the hypotheses: FTFA and NPRH. Section V will delineate the type of experiment, participants, test materials, procedures and results. Section VI will provide some discussion of the findings, and section VII will wind up the findings and discussion.

The interaction between wh-questions and focus structure has been widely elaborated by a number of syntacticians (Rochemont 1978, 1986; Culicover & Rochemont 1983; Horvath 1981, 1986; Kiss 1987 cited in Suranyi 2004). Wh-phrases in single questions are assumed as a sub-case of focus, an assumption that is evidenced by a variety of prosodic and semantic parallelisms, as well as syntactic similarities. With regard to structural descriptions, syntactic focusing which is represented by FocP (Brody 1990; Rizzi 1997 cited in Suranyi 2004) is commonly assumed to be the target of the same syntactic projection of moved wh-phrases.

Horvath (1986 cited in Stoyanova 2008) assumes a universal principle according to which focus is a syntactic feature that is assigned to a non-echo wh-phrase. Wh-movement is then assumed to occur for focusing reasons.

Given the above account, Calabrese (1984 cited in Stoyanova 2008) relates the fact that Italian disallows multiple interrogatives to the fact that it is not possible to have more than one focus of new information in the same sentence. Along the same line, Rizzi (1997) argues that wh-phrases and focused elements in Italian display the same syntactic properties. They are licensed in the same structural position of the left periphery and therefore have a complementary distribution. Rizzi further argues for a unique focus position in the left periphery of Italian to account for the fact that the language does not allow multiple interrogatives and multiple focuses.

In an attempt to examine specific internal properties of languages that do not exhibit multiple interrogatives, Stoyanova (2008) proposes the Uniqueness Hypothesis which states that

Languages that license wh-phrases only in a unique structural focus positions are languages without multiple wh-questions. The notion of uniqueness has to be understood as the interaction of the following parameters: 1) no focus in-situ, 2) no multiple specifiers of a FocP or alternatively no clustering of focused

constituents, and 3) no FocP-recursion.

Stoyanova (2008) hypothesizes that wh-phrases in languages that do not admit multiple wh-questions have an uninterpretable strong focus feature that should be checked off by a wh-phrase. Assuming that in such languages focus is realized in a unique structural focus position, multiple wh-questions cannot be licensed.

For the purpose of the present study, the Uniqueness Hypothesis was assumed by discarding the first parameter. The reason is that such a parameter fails to explain the absence of multiple interrogatives in Indonesian languages, which apparently allow in-situ focus. I will explore this issue in sub-section 3.

Multiple Interrogatives in English

English, like many other languages, countenances multiple interrogatives such as the following.

(1) Who did what?

In (1) while one wh-phrase, i.e. “what”, stays in the base position, the other wh-phrase, i.e. who, is extracted from the specifier of TP to the specifier of CP. In other words, multiple interrogatives in English require the presence of one wh-phrase in clause-initial SpecCP position. A simplified representation of (1) is given in (2).

(2) [_{CP}[_{C'} Who_i] [_{TP} <who>] [_{VP} <who> did what]]

In (2) ‘who’ is generated from the specifier of vP as the subject of the verb ‘did’. It then moves up to the specifier of TP to satisfy a strong uninterpretable feature of EPP (Extended Projection Principle) on T’ that requires something nominal be attached to. ‘Who’ ends up on the specifier of CP to check off a strong uninterpretable [uw^{*}] feature on C’.

According to Pesetsky (1987), a felicitous answer to (1) involves a set of ordered pair of people and things done, such as, *Ahmad bought the groceries; Hasan cooked lunch; etc.* This pair-list answer is indicative that “what” is paired with “who” at Logical Form

(LF), a syntax-semantic interface. This is essentially a proposal from Chomsky (1976) and has been advanced by Kayne (1979), Jaeggli (1980a, 1982), Aoun, Hornstein, and Sportiche (1981), Huang (1981), and others (cited in Pesetsky 1987). In this proposal, wh-in-situ, namely ‘what’ in (1), undergoes a covert movement at LF. This way, ‘what’ can also take scope over the entire clause. This Chomsky’s analysis is represented in (3).

(3) [_{Comp} what_i who_i] e_i did e_j]]

Hagstrom (1998 cited in Grebenyova 2006) attempts to account for this pair-list reading by proposing that wh-interrogatives with the pair-list reading denote a set of questions. Hence, the multiple interrogatives in (3) have the meaning of a set of questions, where each question is asking about the object done by each individual from the set of individuals denoted by the higher wh-phrase *who*. If the domains of individuals denoted by *who* contained two individuals, namely Ahmad and Hasan, there would be two questions in the set as in (4).

(4) What did Ahmad do and what did Hasan do?

The sentence in (4) becomes the representation of the multiple interrogatives in (3), which should be felicitously responded by a pair-list answer as in (5).

(5) Ahmad bought the groceries and Hasan cooked lunch.

The same idea is addressed by Krifka (2001 cited in Grebenyova 2006) who treats the pair-list reading of multiple interrogatives as a series of conjoined interrogatives, where each question is a separate speech act.

Interrogatives in Indonesian

Indonesian language is blessed with numerous ways of asking a question. There are three types of wh-questions as mentioned in Saddy (1991) and Cole & Hermon (1998): wh moved to its scopal position as in (6), partially moved wh in (7) and wh-in-situ (8).

- (6) Siapa yang akan presentasi minggu ini?
 who that will present week this
 ‘Who will present this week?’
- (7) Kamu fikir kenapa Eri pergi ke Amerika.
 you think why Eri go to America
 Why do you think Eri went to America.
- (8) Eri akan presentasi apa?
 Eri will present what
 ‘What will Eri present?’
- (9) Siapa presenter minggu ini?
 who presenter week this
 ‘Who will be the presenter this week?’

The distribution of the complementizer *yang* within the wh-questions appears to be contradictory. It is obligatory in verbal sentences such as (6) but barred in nominal sentences such as (9). As a matter of fact, this is not a contradiction at all as argued by Cole, Hermon & Tjung (2005). They claim that the solution to this seemingly contradictory restriction should be built upon three crucial claims: (a) in Standard Indonesian there is a requirement of parallelism between syntactic structure and information structure; (b) although the *yang* sentence like (6) appears to be a verbal sentence, a closer examination reveals that it is, in fact, a nominal sentence; and (c) the grammaticality of the sentences (6) is due to a general rule that optionally moves focused predicates to initial position, and such sentences are not instances of either wh-movement or of wh-in-situ subject position.

Cole, Hermon & Norhaida (2000) contend that the sentence (6) is, in fact, a nominal sentence, following Mashudi (1976) on Headless Relative Clause Hypothesis (HRCH). According to HRCH, *yang* questions consist of two NPs rather than one NP and one VP. *Yang* is not a main clause complementizer; instead it is the complementizer that introduces a headless relative clause. In (6) the two NPs, a headless relative clause and the wh-phrase *siapa* (who), are related in the structure, as in (10). The structure is claimed to correspond to the nominal sentence structure, as in (11).

- (10) [[_{NP}Siapa] [_{NP}yang akan presentasi minggu ini]]?
- (11) [[_{NP}Bill] [_{NP}dosen saya]]?
 Bill lecturer I

‘Bill is my lecturer’.

We see that in (10) the NPs are a wh-phrase and a headless relative clause, while in (11) both NPs are nouns. Each of the structures illustrated in (10-11) conforms to the Parallelism Hypothesis (Soemarmo 1970), according to which the focus or new information must occur in the predicate and the subject must be the old information (topic).

While the subject in Indonesian should only be occupied by a topic, the predicate should be occupied by a focus. The question is now, what is the status of the first NPs in (10-11) repeated below in (12-13)?

- (12) [[_{NP1}Siapa] [_{NP2}yang akan presentasi minggu ini]]?

- (13) [[_{NP1}Bill] [_{NP2}dosen saya]]

The answer is that the first NPs in (12-13) are topic elements that get focalized. Notice that the following structures (14-15) relatively mirror (12-13). In conformity to Parallelism Hypothesis, in (14-15) the first NPs are topic and the second ones are focus.

- (14) [[_{NP1}yang akan presentasi minggu ini] [_{NP2}Siapa]]?

- (15) [[_{NP1}dosen saya] [_{NP2}Bill]].

The sentences (14-15) do not contravene the Parallelism Hypothesis since there is an independently motivated process of predicate fronting, which moves a focused marked-constituent from the predicate to a sentence initial position (Cole, Hermon & Tjung 2005).

We now find empirical evidence that wh-construction in Indonesian is markedly different from that of English such that it is an instance of a unique focus construction (in spirit identical to the proposal of Cheng 1991; Martohardjono 1993; Cole & Hermon 2000; Cole, Hermon & Tjung 2005), where the wh-phrase is base-generated in the matrix clause and *yang* is the relativizer of a headless relative clause. *Siapa* and *Bill* move up from the focus position to the sentence initial position because there is a strong focus feature that requires locality of feature checking.

A major question that begs an answer is what prohibits multiple interrogatives from occurring in Indonesian. This is definitely an empirical question that necessitates an

investigation for an answer. Very unfortunately, though, until recently this issue has escaped from any linguistic investigation, entailing that the question has been left unanswered.

One probable answer is that the structural focus position in Indonesian is unique in the sense that it is impossible to build a clause with multiple focus positions or multiple wh-questions. This, in spirit, concurs with Stoyanova's Uniqueness Hypothesis. Let's observe the following sentences.

(16) **Siapa* yang akan presentasi *apa* minggu ini?

who that will present what week this

'Who is presenting what this week?'

(17) **Yang* akan presentasi *apa* *siapa* minggu ini?

that will present what who week this

'Who is presenting what this week?'

The ungrammaticality of (16) and (17) is attributed to the fact that there is more than one wh-phrase in a clause. Recall that wh-phrases in Indonesian occupy a focus position in light of information structure, which manifests in its syntactic structure. Hence, the unavailability of multiple wh-phrases in the language parallels to the unavailability of multiple focus features.

Considerations for SLA

Although multiple interrogatives have received copious attention in the linguistic literature (among others Cheng 1991; Dayal 2002, 2005), only a few studies have investigated this phenomenon in the context of second language acquisition, thus little is known as to how L2 learners of English whose L1 does not instantiate such constructions cope with it.

Among the few studies, Bley-Vroman & Yoshinaga (2000), for instance, report that high proficient Japanese learners of English rated the acceptability of multiple interrogatives in English significantly different from native speakers of English. In the same vein, Hawkins & Hattori (2006) reveal that Japanese speakers were significantly different from the English native speakers in their acceptance

of grammaticality and ungrammaticality of multiple interrogatives. They argue that Japanese do not have the uninterpretable wh-feature since it was not selected from UG inventory during the critical period.

The two studies (Bley-Vroman & Yoshinaga 2000 and Hawkins & Hattori 2006) clearly favor No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis, according to which the L2 grammar is assumed to have recourse only to those parameters instantiated in the L1. Subsequent resetting of parameters to admit new values in the L2 is deemed impossible. In other words, new features that are not realized in the L1 are claimed to be unattainable by the L2 learners (White 2007).

In contrast to NPRH, Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis maintains that there will be subsequent restructuring or resetting of parameters in response to properties of the L2 input (Schwartz & Sprouse 1994, 1996 cited in White 2007). According to this hypothesis, the L2 learners can acquire new functional categories or features which differ from those found in the L1.

The present study investigates the parametric variation between Indonesian and English in multiple interrogatives. The underlying feature that allows English to build multiple interrogatives is multiple focus features at LF, which are not available in Indonesian. At S-Structure, the two languages basically have the same focus feature, but Indonesian does not allow the focus feature to recur at LF. This may explain why multiple interrogatives are not exemplified in Indonesian.

Given the fact that the L2 learners are adult learners, who had passed the critical period when they started learning English, the investigation of this property is interesting in the context of second language acquisition research. It determines which of the two hypotheses can best account for the phenomena under investigation.

Hypotheses and Predictions

The purpose of the present study is to investigate whether Indonesian-speaking

learners of English who are considered to have advanced proficiency of English can acquire multiple focus features in English such that they accept multiple interrogatives in English. Conjoined interrogatives were also incorporated into this study to ascertain whether transfer effects obtain. The properties being investigated are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of properties

	Multiple Interrogatives	Conjoined Interrogatives
Indonesian	✗	✓
English	✓	✓

Whereas the two contesting hypotheses, namely Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis (FTFAH) and No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis (NPRH), are in agreement that the L2 learners will initially transfer the values of their L1 to their L2 grammar, they have two opposing predictions concerning the subsequent development. FTFAH predicts that the L2 learners will accept multiple interrogatives in English, indicating that they can acquire multiple focus features, NPRH predicts the opposite. The L2 learners, according to NPRH, will reject multiple interrogatives, suggesting that they cannot acquire multiple focus features since they are not realized in their L1.

Table 2. Summary of predictions

	Multiple Interrogatives	Conjoined Interrogatives
FTFA	Accepted by L2 learners and native controls	Accepted by L2 learners and native controls
NPR	Rejected by L2 learners but accepted by native controls	Accepted by L2 learners and native controls

THE STUDY

First Experiment

Participants

Two groups participated in this study: five Indonesian-speaking learners of English and six native speakers of American English. The L2 learners consisted of 1 undergraduate student and 4 graduate students at a variety

of universities in the United States. Their advanced level of English proficiency corresponds with their status as students at an American university in which they are at least exposed to English instruction. To confirm this assumption, TOEFL score was requested from each of the L2 participants. Their TOEFL score mean is 542.40, which is quite good. This score does not necessarily reflect their current proficiency due to the fact that it was taken before their arrival in the US. The L2 learners had been staying in the US for an average of 13.60 months at the time of the test. This residency period reinforces the claim that the TOEFL score does undermine the L2 learners' real English proficiency. Their English will have improved after this period of English exposure.

Table 3. Summary of information of participants

	L2 Learners	Native Controls
Number of People	5	6
Mean of TOEFL Score	542.40	-
Mean of Length of Residency	13.60 months	-

Material

The test material consisted of 14 questions, which were divided into two sets, of which one was multiple interrogatives as in (1-2) and the other one was conjoined interrogatives as in (3). Each question was followed by an answer. Two types of answer were provided: a question with a pair-list answer as in (1) and the one with a single answer as in (2). This division was designed to see if the L2 learners are sensitive to the felicity requirement of multiple interrogatives. Recall that when asked in isolation, multiple interrogatives felicitously require a pair-list answer. Conjoined interrogatives were also provided to see if the L2 learners transfer the L1 values to account for the values in the L2.

There were four different pairings of wh-phrases in the test material, i.e. who-when, who-where, what-where, and what-when. The adjunct wh-phrases 'how' and 'why' were not

included since they are not as much acceptable as other adjunct wh-phrases ‘when’ and ‘where’ (Huang 1982, Aoun et al. 1987 cited

in Bley-Vroman & Yoshinaga 2000). Some sample questions from the test material are presented in Figure 1.

1. Who saw Eri where?	1 Bad	2	3	4	5 Perfect
<i>Linn saw Eri at his office; Lauren saw him in the lunch room, and Danny saw him at the parking lot.</i>					
2. Who saw Eri where?	1 Bad	2	3	4	5 Perfect
<i>Linn saw Eri at his office.</i>					
3. Who saw and Eri where?	1 Bad	2	3	4	5 Perfect
<i>Linn saw Eri at his office.</i>					

Figure 1. A sample of questions from the test material

Procedure

The test material was disseminated to the research participants during November 2008. They were asked to rate the acceptability of each question with the given answer. A five-point scale was used, ranging from 1 “bad” to 5 “perfect.” The test material was distributed mostly online due to the extremely varying universities where each Indonesian participant is studying.

Analysis

To examine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the L2 learners and native controls in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives, a t-test analysis was used. The alpha decision level was set at .05 for all inferential statistics.

Results

The mean of the ratings and the p value indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between L2 learners and native controls in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives. The difference between the acceptance of L2 learners and native controls of multiple interrogatives with a pair list answer was very significant at $p < .05$, $p = .0005$. With single answer, the difference was statistically very significant at $p < .05$, $p = .0003$. This clearly indicates that L2 learners performed very differently in comparison to native controls.

In accordance to the prediction, L2 learners performed like native controls in their rating of conjoined interrogatives as seen in the p value. The results are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of mean and p value for L2 learners’ ratings and native controls’ ratings

	Multiple Interrogatives		Conjoined Interrogatives
	Pair-List Answer	Single Answer	
L2 learners	1.45	1.35	3.9
Native controls	3.13	2.83	3.96
p value	.0005	.0003	> .05

If we break down the results per pairing, we can see that for multiple interrogatives with a pair-list answer, there was no significant difference between L2 learners and native controls in their rating of who-when ($p > .05$, $p = .06$) and what-when ($p > .05$, $p = .12$). As for multiple interrogatives with a single answer,

the L2 learners rated significantly differently only for who-where pairing ($p < .05$, $p = .04$). No significant difference was identifiable from the L2 learners and native controls in their ratings of other pairings such as *who-when*, *what-when*, and *what-where* as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Summary of mean and p value per wh-phrasing pairing

	Multiple Interrogatives							
	Pair-List Answer				Single Answer			
	who-when	who-where	what-where	what-when	who-when	who-where	what-where	what-when
L2 learners	1.60	1.60	1.20	1.40	1.40	1.20	1.40	1.40
Native controls	3.17	3.50	3.17	2.67	3.00	3.00	2.50	2.83
p value	.06	.02	.01	.12	.10	.04	.20	.07

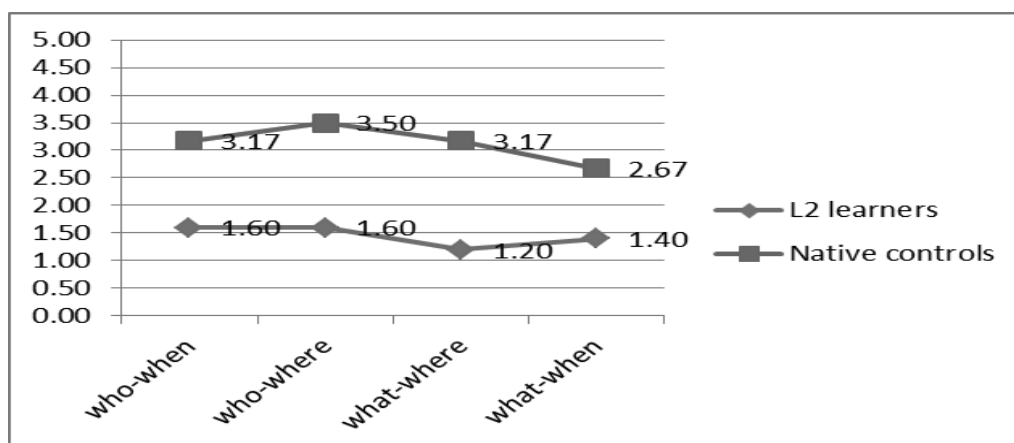


Figure 2. Mean differences among 4 types of multiple interrogatives with a pair-list answer

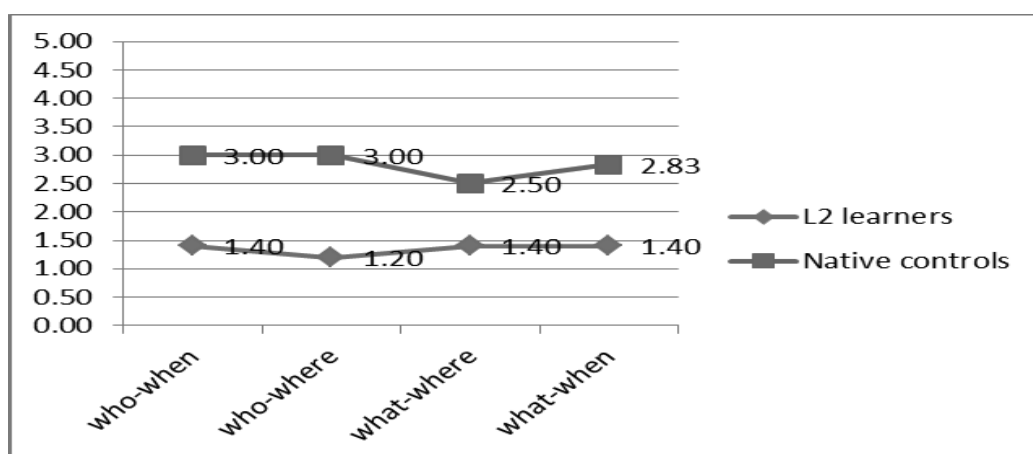


Figure 3. Mean differences among 4 types of multiple interrogatives with a single answer

Figure 2 shows a different pattern of L2 learners and native controls in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives with a pair-list answer especially with *who-where* and *what-where* pairings. Different pattern is also noticeable in Figure 3 in the participants' ratings of multiple interrogatives with a single answer only for *who-where* pairing.

Second Experiment

Participants

A total of 17 Indonesian-speaking learners of English and 23 native speakers of American

English participated in the second experiment. The L2 learners consisted of 3 undergraduate students and 14 graduate students at a variety of universities in the United States. They were considered advanced learners of English based on the mean of their TOEFL score, i.e. 582.18. This score apparently undermines their English proficiency since TOEFL was taken before they came to the US. Besides, they had been staying in the US for an average of 17.76 months at the time of the experiment. The summary of the participants' information is given in Table 6.

Table 6: Summary of information of participants

	L2 Learners	Native Controls
Number of People	17	23
Mean of TOEFL Score	582.18	-
Mean of Length of Residency	17.76 months	-

Material

In general, the test material in the second experiment was relatively similar to that of the first one such that it was split into two sets, multiple interrogatives (1) and conjoined interrogatives (2). The difference was that

each question was presented within a context of situation.

There were six different situations in the test, each of which was followed by a multiple interrogative or a conjoined interrogative. The situations and the questions were scrambled in such a way that the participants would not make any attempt of hyper-analyzing the test by comparing the items or they would not easily figure out what is being investigated. The situations were designed solely in a pair-list answer since such answer is more felicitous than a single answer. A sample of test material is presented in Figure 4.

1. Dave is setting up some knives, forks and spoons on the dinner table. He knew that his mom had made some seating arrangement for the family and guests, but forgot it. Dave wants to figure it out, so he asks his mom: Who will sit where?	1 Bad	2	3	4	5 Perfect
2. Dave is setting up some knives, forks and spoons on the dinner table. He knew that his mom had made some seating arrangement for the family and guests, but forgot it. Dave wants to figure it out, so he asks his mom: Who will sit and where?	1 Bad	2	3	4	5 Perfect

Figure 4. A sample of questions from the test material

Procedure

As in the first experiment, the research participants were asked to rate the acceptability of each question within the given context of situation. A five-point scale was used, ranging from 1 “bad” to 5 “perfect.” The test material was also distributed online.

Analysis

T-test was also used to help determine examine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the L2’ learners and native controls in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives. The alpha decision level was set at .05 for all inferential statistics.

Results

The mean acceptance and p value show that L2 learners still performed significantly differently from native speakers of English in their ratings of multiple interrogatives at $p < .05$, $p = .02$. Surprisingly, the L2 learners outperformed the native controls in their acceptance of conjoined

interrogatives. The summary of the mean acceptance and p value is given in Table 7.

Table 7. Summary of mean acceptance (1-5) and p value

	Multiple Interrogatives	Conjoined Interrogatives
L2 learners	2.51	3.56
Native controls	3.46	3.22
p value	.02	.61

Table 8 presents a more detailed comparison of the L2 learners and native controls in their ratings of each of the questions. As a matter of fact, L2 learners rated such pairings as *who-where* and *who-when* significantly differently from native speakers as obvious from the p value = .001 and .003, respectively. Other pairings of multiple interrogatives were rated by two groups of participants in a relatively similar way. As for the conjoined interrogatives, the L2 learners rated *who-where* significantly differently from the native controls at the p value = .004.

Table 8. Summary of mean and p value per wh-phrasing pairing

	Multiple Interrogatives				Conjoined Interrogatives			
	who-where	who-when	what-where	what-when	who-when	what-where	what-when	who-where
L2 learners	2.65	2.53	2.35	2.18	2.53	4.24	4.29	3.29
Native controls	4.26	3.78	2.83	2.83	2.65	4.00	4.26	1.96
p value	.001	.003	.31	.013	.80	.46	.90	.004

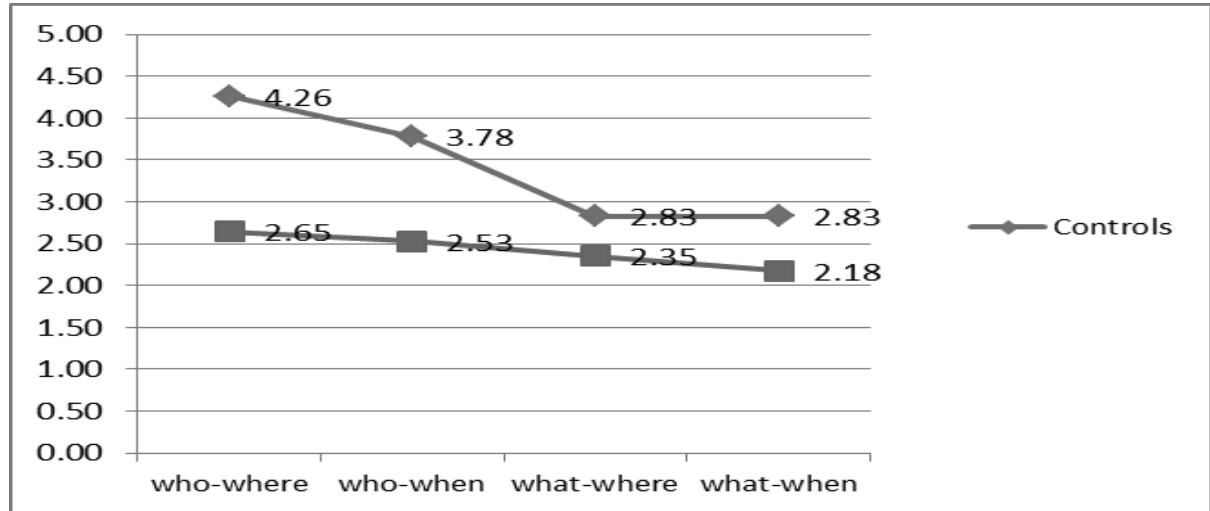


Figure 5. Mean differences among 4 types of multiple interrogatives

Figure 5 shows that the L2 learners do not pattern native-like in their ratings of multiple interrogatives with such pairings as *who-where* and *who-when*, while Figure 6 shows

that the L2 learners pattern differently in their rating of conjoined interrogatives only with *who-where* pairing.

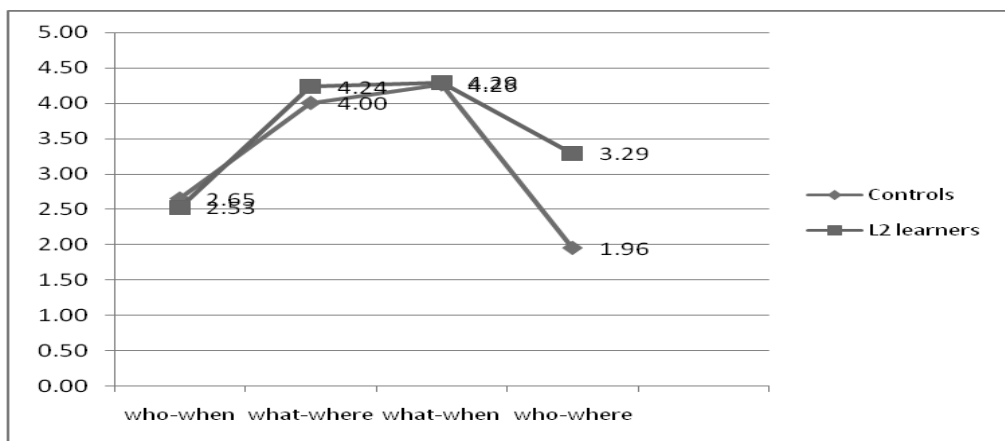


Figure 6: Mean differences among 4 types of conjoined interrogatives

DISCUSSION

The question under investigation is whether high proficient learners of English who are native speakers of Indonesian can acquire multiple focus features such that they can accept multiple interrogatives in English or,

they perform like native speakers in rating the multiple interrogatives. Overall, the statistical results from the first and second experiments confirm that they performed significantly differently from native speakers of English in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives.

In the first experiment, the L2 learners rated the multiple interrogatives both with a pair-list answer and single answer significantly differently from native controls. However, as the results were broken down, we can clearly see that the L2 learners did not reject multiple interrogatives in all possible pairings in English. They accepted most of the wh-phrases pairings except for *who-where* and *what-where* pairings.

One possible reason why the L2 learners rated *who-where* and *what-where* very differently from the native controls could be that they might find it hard to imagine a plausible situation where such a question and answer could be addressed.

In the second experiment, after each question was presented within the context, the L2 learners still did not perform as well as the native controls, particularly in their ratings of

who-where and *who-when*. Recall that they also did not accept *who-where* pairing in the first experiment. At this point, it appears to be baffling to find explanation as to why they accepted some pairings but rejected others. The type of wh-phrase in the pairing did not seem to matter in this respect since almost all of the pairings contained a combination of an argument wh-phrase, i.e. *who* and *what*, and an adjunct wh-phrase, such as *when* and *where*. It might be the case that the situations in which certain wh-phrase pairings are put are not clear enough for the L2 learners so that they might have a hard time figuring out how the multiple interrogative is plausibly addressed. The role the context plays in the L2 learners' acceptance of multiple interrogatives is essential as evidently shown in Table 9. Their ratings increased quite significantly when multiple interrogatives were presented in the contexts.

Table 9. Comparison of mean and increase percentage of L2 learners' ratings

	who-when	who-where	what-when	what-where
Experiment I	1.50	1.40	1.40	1.30
Experiment II	2.53	2.65	2.18	2.35
% of increase	69	89	56	81

Another factor that may contribute to the L2 learners' poor performance for some wh-phrase pairings is input frequency. Multiple interrogatives are not frequently produced by native speakers so that the L2 learners lack positive input that will allow them to reset the parameters. It might be the case that in real-life situations, such multiple interrogatives are frequently avoided because people tend to

request for single information at a time.

Another interesting finding that is worth elaborating is the fact that the L2 learners rated the conjoined interrogatives higher than the native speakers of English did. In particular, the L2 learners rated *who-where* higher than native controls did. We can see the comparison of the participants' ratings in Table 10.

Table 10. Comparison of the participants' ratings in conjoined interrogatives

	Experiment I				Experiment II			
	who-when	who-where	what-when	what-where	who-when	who-where	what-when	what-where
L2 learners	3.60	4.00	4.00	4.00	2.53	3.29	4.29	4.24
Native controls	4.17	3.50	3.83	4.33	2.65	1.96	4.26	4.00
p value	.53	.36	.82	.57	.80	.004	.90	.46

As seen in table 10, there was a very significant difference between the L2 learners and the native controls in their rating of *who-*

where with the p value = .004. This statistics reveals an asymmetry in terms of the potential meaning of *who-where* pairing in the provided

context between the L2 learners and the native speakers of English. Let us look at the context in the test material where *who-where* pairing was situated.

Dave is setting up some knives, forks and spoons on the dinner table. He knew that his mom had made some seating arrangement for the family and guests, but forgot it. Dave wants to figure it out, so he asks his mom: *Who will sit and where?*

The L2 learners seem to generalize the acceptability of conjoined interrogatives in any possible pairings. This strategy may be working since in general there appears to be no semantic restriction in most wh-phrase pairings as obviously seen in the L2 learners' ratings of conjoined interrogatives that mostly pattern like native controls'. This strategy did not work quite well, however. It turns out that the conjoined interrogative *who-where* is not compatible with the given situation. Some native controls pointed out that *who will sit and where* implies that only a certain people out of a group of people will sit probably due to the limited seats. Thus, one possible scenario such a question might fit is where Dave's mom invited a large number of people to come for a party, yet due to limited seats only certain people can sit. In that kind of situation, the question appears to be possible.

The asymmetry indicates that the L2 learners were not aware of the semantic restriction of a particular conjoined interrogative. They employed their L1 values to account for it. In their L1, no such restrictions exist, so the L2 learners may overgeneralize the usage of conjoined interrogatives in their L2. This asymmetry could be attributable to the fact that the L2 learners might be lacking positive input that would enable them to assume the semantic restrictions of certain conjoined interrogatives.

In table 9, we can also notice another fact that both L2 learners and native speakers of English rated the conjoined interrogative *who-when* equally low (mean: 2.53 and 2.65 respectively). This is interesting since the L2 learners exhibited some sensitivity to semantic restriction of this pairing, in contrast

to the situation with *who-where*. Again, this asymmetry might be attributed to the frequency of such conjoined interrogative.

With regard to the prediction made by the two contesting hypotheses, i.e. Full Transfer/ Full Access Hypothesis (FTFAH) and No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis (NPRH), the findings of the current study lend partial support to both hypotheses.

Statistically speaking, NPRH's prediction is borne out due to the fact that there was a significant difference between the L2 learners and the native controls in their acceptance of multiple interrogatives. On the other hand, the fact that the L2 learners performed quite well in their ratings of certain wh-phrase pairings appear to disagree with the prediction. The L2 learners seem to have reset their parameters for certain combination of wh-phrases which sharply contrasts with the NPRH's prediction.

The FTFAH's prediction is also confirmed by the fact that the L2 learners apparently accepted some of the wh-phrase pairings in multiple interrogatives constructions. It indicates that they have reset their parameters to admit new values that are not instantiated in their L1.

It should be noted that I am not making any claims of the end-state grammar of the L2 learners. In other words, the findings of this study do not necessarily confirm that certain properties being investigated are eventually unattainable or not. Besides the fact that there was no test to ascertain if the L2 learners have reached the end-state grammar, all of them were students at a variety of American universities at which case their L2 grammars could still be developing.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the findings of this study suggest partial resetting of focus feature to the L2 value, favoring the prediction of Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis. The L2 learners accepted most of wh-phrase pairings relatively in the same way as the native controls did, thus indicating the restructuring of parameters to the L2 values. At the same time, the statistical data reveals that overall

the L2 learners were significantly different from the native speakers of English in their ratings of multiple interrogatives in the two experiments, lending support to No Parameter Resetting Hypothesis.

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HOW ENGLISH STUDENT TEACHERS DEAL WITH TEACHING DIFFICULTIES IN THEIR TEACHING PRACTICUM

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Abstract: In the process of becoming professional, every single teacher will normally go through a series of experiences that are cognitively, physically, and emotionally challenging. One of the first steps they have to go through is a form of first teaching experience with real students and real school environment like what many student teachers are required to face in their teaching practicum. This paper explores kinds of teaching difficulties and efforts carried out to overcome them by English student teachers in the context of teaching practicum conducted in 14 different secondary schools in Bandung, Indonesia. Qualitative case study is applied as the research design, with interviews as the main instrument in collecting the data. This study involves the participation of students enrolled in an EFL Methodology class in collecting the data as a part of their course assignment. The results of data analysis reveal that there are a variety of problems that can be mainly categorised into three types, namely problems related to students, to the supervising teachers, and to the student teachers themselves. Several efforts carried out are also identified and some suggestions are also highlighted at the end of the paper.

Keywords: student teachers, novice teachers, supervising teachers, teaching practicum, teaching difficulties

Abstrak: Dalam perjalanan menjadi seorang profesional, setiap guru akan melewati beragam proses dan tantangan yang bersifat kognitif, fisik, maupun emosional. Diantara berbagai hal yang umumnya harus dilewati adalah pengalaman mengajar untuk pertama kalinya yang biasanya diperoleh dalam program praktik lapangan, terutama pada saat mereka menjalani pendidikan guru di tingkat akhir. Tulisan ini mengupas jenis-jenis kesulitan pengajaran serta upaya penanganan kesulitan tersebut oleh para guru bahasa Inggris pemula (mahasiswa calon guru bahasa Inggris) selama menjalani praktik mengajar di 14 sekolah menengah berbeda di kota Bandung. Desain penelitian yang digunakan adalah studi kasus yang bersifat kualitatif, dengan penggunaan wawancara sebagai alat utama dalam mengumpulkan data. Penelitian ini melibatkan partisipasi dari para mahasiswa yang terdaftar dalam mata kuliah Belajar dan Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris, terutama dalam melakukan wawancara terhadap 14 mahasiswa senior yang sedang melakukan praktik mengajar di lapangan, sebagai salah satu bentuk tagihan tugas mata kuliah. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa bentuk-bentuk kesulitan pengajaran yang dihadapi pada dasarnya dapat dipetakan ke dalam tiga bagian besar, yakni terkait siswa, terkait guru pamong, dan terkait mahasiswa calon guru itu sendiri. Bentuk-bentuk upaya penanganan kesulitan pengajaran yang dihadapi pun dikupas pada bagian pembahasan, disertai dengan beberapa kesimpulan dan saran terutama terkait pengembangan kualitas pendidikan guru bahasa Inggris.

Kata Kunci: guru pemula, guru pamong, praktik mengajar, kesulitan pengajaran

Teaching practicum for student teachers becomes one of the essential stages in which they have a chance to apply what they have learned during the academic program in the real teaching situations. By following this kind of activity, student-teachers, according to Richards & Crookes (1988, as cited in Gebhard, 2009), will have a chance to experience many valuable things, such as getting practical classroom experience, putting theories into practices, gaining insight from observing experienced teachers, improving lesson planning ability, improving ability in designing and developing materials, sharpening their teaching ability, strengthening their understanding of teaching in terms of theory and practice, and improving decision-making ability in teaching by looking and exploring into themselves and other's teaching practices. It is also believed that through teaching practicum, "as teachers reflect on their practice, they try to make sense of it and in so doing develop their own principled understandings" (Murray & Christison, 2011, p. 199).

Applying knowledge in teaching practicum is not as simple as one can imagine. Not much has been known on how teachers transform what they believe and know into what they practice in the real teaching situations. Putting theories into practice is one of the complex areas that many are still investigating, especially in the context of second language teacher education. Many potential factors, in this case, can contribute to the success of a teacher in delivering the lesson to the students.

The experience of student teachers in applying what they have learned in teacher education program during their teaching practicum can become one potential field of research that can contribute to providing insight on how second language teacher education can be further developed. By carefully examining student teachers' prior beliefs and knowledge, how they practice what they believe, kinds of difficulties they face in the classrooms, and reasons for choosing certain pedagogical solutions over others, it is expected that teacher educators have a wider perspective on how to improve the quality of student teacher

preparation program prior to releasing them to the real teaching situations and how to design a more effective clinical supervision for these novice teachers to become pedagogically more mature by passing this kind of program.

This paper presents the results of a study that explores kinds of difficulties faced by the student teachers during their teaching practicum in secondary schools and the efforts they do to overcome such difficulties. The presentation of the issues is made in the form of elaboration that is combined with some visuals for the ease of communication. Some implications for better student teacher education are also highlighted.

Teaching Practicum: A Place for Practicing and Reflecting

As a part of many teacher education programs, teaching practicum is also known in a variety of terms, such as "practice teaching, field experience, apprenticeship, practical experience, and internship" (Gebhard, 2009). This activity, as many believe, is mainly intended to provide an opportunity for student teachers to become a pedagogically more practical person by having a real teaching experience by observing and applying (most of) what they have learned in the teacher education program in the real classrooms with real students, teachers and curriculum (Farrel, 2008). By directly teaching in the field, the student teachers have the chance to sharpen their ability in making instructional decision and improve their teaching skill through the process of reflective practice (Moore, 2003). By learning to teach, student teachers will also have a chance to construct "a cognitive map of the key elements of the classroom and school environment" (Hammond & Bransford, 2005, as cited in Darling-Hamond, 2006).

Teaching practicum can be regarded as a realization of the importance of experience in the process of teaching and learning. In the point of view of experiential learning theories, practice, in its many forms, including problem-based activities and work-based learning, is essential in teaching and learning (Jarvis, Holford, & Griffin, 2003). Teaching

practicum, in this case, provides an experience in which student teachers bring together with them cognitive, physical, and emotional capabilities into the real teaching practice in order to adjust and modify them according to the needs of teaching and learning in the classroom. From experiential learning perspectives, experience one gets through practice is important in shaping knowledge. Experience according to Boud et.al. (1993, as cited in Gregory, 2006, p.118) is important in terms of the followings:

1. Experience is the foundation of, and the stimulus for, learning;
2. Learners actively construct their experience;
3. Learning is a holistic process;
4. Learning is socially and culturally constructed;
5. Learning is influenced by the socio-emotional context in which it occurs.

Experience provided by teaching practicum is also seen to serve the basis of human expertise. By practising, teachers will better strengthen their “knowing how” of teaching. According to Tsui (2005), “at the core human expertise is ‘knowing how’ rather than ‘knowing that’” (p. 167). The process of improving the quality of “knowing how” through teaching practicum involves many kinds of possible activities, starting from teaching a class, doing self-observation and reflection, observing other (usually more senior) teachers, and having a discussion with supervisors. When student teachers can do all the suggested activities well, the way to the right track of teacher professional development is in front of them.

Another important issue in teaching practicum is the quality of supervision. Many studies have indicated that during their teaching practicum, student teachers need a lot of guidance and support from their supervisors, especially those of pedagogical and emotional kinds (Farrel, 2008). However, it has been quite unfortunate that in many contexts of language teaching, there is still a lack of concern on how to provide adequate training to help faculty members or lecturers

to become effective supervisors (Bailey, 2009). In many teacher education programs, the low quality of supervision for pre-service students has become one of the serious problems to overcome, especially in terms of the commitment and the quality of the guidance given by the supervisors, both the supervising teachers and faculty supervisors (see Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Farrel, 2008). In comparison to conducting research and publishing, supervising preservice teachers is not regarded to be awarding for many faculty members (Beck & Kosnik, 2002).

In the current approach to supervising student teachers, Gebhard (1990, as stated in Bailey, 2009) stated that supervisors are needed to help the student teachers achieve their “ideal teaching behaviour.” Supervisors should no longer take the role of an expert but more as a partner who can help the student teachers to gain valuable insight from their teaching through the process of reflection and exploration (Chamberlain, 2000, as cited in Bailey, 2009).

Guiding future teachers to be reflective in their teaching has been considered as an integral part in teacher professional development. Reflection is important for teachers to provide different perspectives about themselves and how they work, so that they can learn about themselves more critically in terms of who they are and how they teach (see Aubusson & Schuck, 2008). By practicing reflective teaching, teachers will have to be an active character who is more critical by doing repeated observation before making decision in relation to teaching and learning in their classroom. Reflective teaching according to Pollard and Tann (1993, p.9, as cited in Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995, p.11) is characterized by six important characteristics as follows:

1. Reflective teaching implies an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency.
2. Reflective teaching is applied in a cyclical or spiralling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously.

3. Reflective teaching requires competence in methods of classroom enquiry to support the development of teaching competence.
4. Reflective teaching requires attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness.
5. Reflective teaching is based on teacher judgment, which is informed partly by self-reflection and partly by insights from educational disciplines.
6. Reflective teaching, professional learning and personal fulfilment are enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues.

In relation to this, Richards (2010) mentioned that the ability to reflect to oneself in an conscious and systematic way will hold an important role for a long term professional development. He exemplified some questions that teachers can ask to themselves when conducting reflection. Among some of the questions are as follows:

1. What kind of teacher am I?
2. How do my students and colleagues view me?
3. How and why do I teach the way I do?
4. What are the gaps in my knowledge?
5. What is my philosophy of teaching and how does it influence my teaching?

(Richards, 2010, pp. 119-120)

Doing reflection, Richards further suggested, can be realized in many possible ways (e.g. discussions, analysing critical incidents, journal writing). He also underlined that reflection should involve “both looking back at teaching experiences as well as looking forward and setting goals for new of changed directions” (p.120).

Student Teachers in Their Teaching Practicum: Problems and Performance

Most student teachers in their practicum can be seen as new comers in the profession of teaching. In terms of level, they can be regarded as novice teachers, who are still in the process of finding their ways to become more professional in teaching. Many of them, especially during their teaching practicum, will face many challenges in dealing with a variety of situations involving not only those

related to students but also a lot more related to the socio-cultural contexts in a certain school where they conduct their practicum. In this paper, I use the term student teachers and novice teachers interchangeably to refer to teachers who are still new in the profession of teaching.

Several studies on how novice teachers experience the process of teaching and learning indicated some important findings to underline. The first issue, which is often considered to be the biggest main concern for novice teachers, is classroom management. As many studies indicated, many novice teachers found serious problems with classroom management (see Nunan, 1992, cited in Borg, 2005; Moore, 2003; Farrel 2009). Novice teachers often spent much of their attention to enforce discipline and appropriate techniques to control student behaviour to create a conducive and positive atmosphere for effective learning in the classroom. In comparison to more experienced teachers, Andrews (2007) stated that novice teachers tend to exhibit a low level of competence in behaviour-related language awareness in their teaching practice. This may become an indicator that many novice teachers’ attention to linguistic content is not as much as what is shown by more experienced teachers. Novice teachers, in this case, tend to focus on how to manage, to control, and at the same time to please the students in order to create a good atmosphere so that students can carry out every single task given to them. Novice teachers’ focus on classroom management indicated Freeman’s (1989, as cited in Bailey , 2006) belief that novice teachers may have good understanding of declarative knowledge, that of “knowing what”, but they “may lack the skills for working with real language students” (p. 242). Real teaching, therefore, is not only about mastering the declarative or scientific concepts of the subject matter, but more about creating strong and reflective dialogue with the realities in the field (everyday concepts) to create a stronger understanding to be further used as the basis for making any pedagogical decisions (see Johnson, 2009).

Richards, Li, & Tang (1998, as cited in Borg, 2005) highlighted another issue concerning the performance of novice teachers. They found that there are at least four poor aspects of novice teachers' teaching performance, namely (1) positioning themselves to be students who think about the subject matter, (2) mastery of the subject matter, (3) presenting a well structured subject matter, and (4) ability to make a connection between language learning and the curricular objectives. Understanding students, mastering the content, and pedagogical skills tend to be the main problems, and therefore, influence how the novice teachers practice their teaching.

Another important thing from novice teachers' experience is that the role of creating identity. Part of constructing teacher professionalism is creating an identity, particularly that of becoming "a 'real' teacher within an established school culture" (Farrel, 2009). This identity construction is mostly socio-culturally bound since novice teachers do not only struggle with "the how to teach" but also have to be familiar and be able to adjust with the school community as a whole. From the sociocultural perspective on teacher education, therefore:

[L]earning to teach ... is based on the assumption that knowing, thinking, and understanding come from participating in the social practices of learning and teaching in specific classroom and school situations. Teacher learning and the activities of teaching are understood as growing out of participation in the social practices in classrooms; and what the teachers know and how they use that knowledge in classrooms is highly interpretative and contingent on knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum, and community.

(Johnson, 2009, p.13)

METHOD

The study from which the paper is based is qualitative in nature. This study applies a case study design, in which the focus is directed on a unit of study that has a bounded system (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005). The

unit of study, in this case, is English student teachers conducting their teaching practicum in secondary schools, namely Junior High School, Senior High School, and Vocational School. The problems explored in the study are: 1) What teaching difficulties do the English student teachers face during their teaching practicum in secondary schools? and 2) What kinds of efforts do they carry out to overcome those difficulties?

Participants

14 English student teachers participated in this study, consisting of 11 females and three males. All of them conducted their teaching practicum in 14 different secondary schools in Bandung, Indonesia. Six of them (all females) conducted teaching practicum in Junior High Schools; seven of them (five females and two males) taught in Senior High Schools; and the other (1 male) taught in a Vocational School. The study itself was conducted in the middle of the semester, at the time when the teaching practicum entered the third month, out of the 4 required months for practicum.

Each of the student teachers was guided and supervised by 2 supervisors, that is, one faculty supervisor (a lecturer) and one supervising teacher appointed by the school authority. For the supervising teachers accompanying the student teachers, 8 of them had been professionally certified, while 6 of them had not. This note on whether or not the students were accompanied by certified teachers is made explicit in the hope that this can provide additional information and valuable insight towards interpretation of possible related findings.

Data Collection

This study involved the participation of students in an EFL methodology class, in which I taught, as a part of students' assignments. In this class, one of the assignments that were required was that the students in pairs had to conduct an interview and an observation on the process of teaching and learning conducted by their senior students during their practicum. A number of issues were essentially addressed

for the assignment; however, only some parts of the data were used for the study, specifically those related to kinds of teaching difficulties experienced and efforts done by the student teachers to overcome those difficulties.

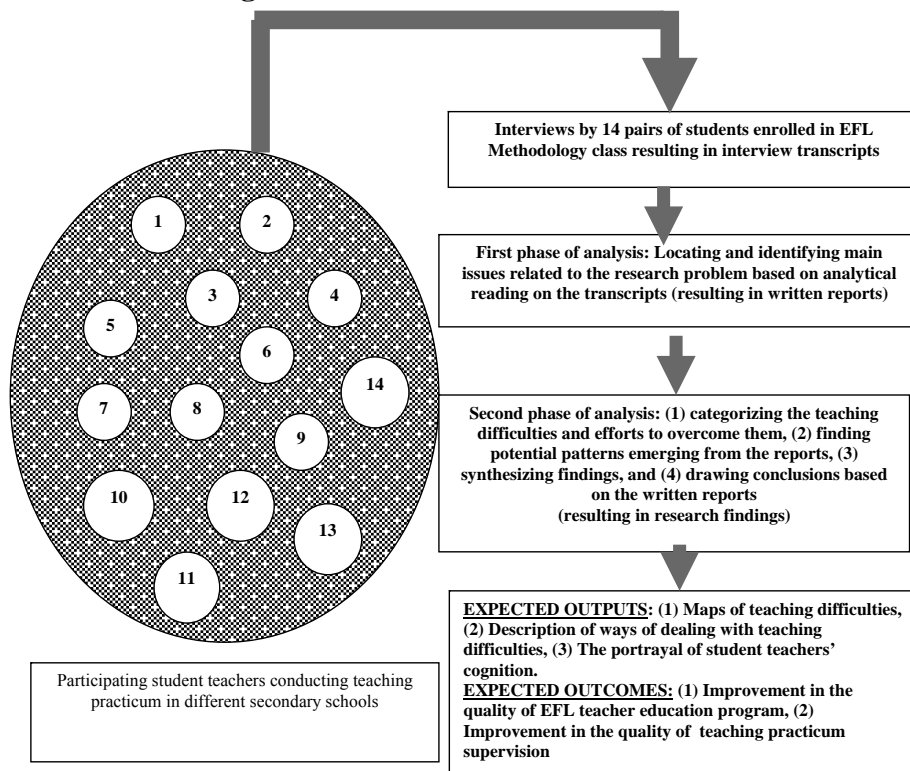
The main instrument in collecting the data was interview. 14 different pairs of students were assigned to conduct an interview to their senior student teachers doing teaching practicum in different schools. Two main umbrella questions on teaching difficulties and efforts carried out became the focus of the interview. The students were asked to conduct an interview to explore as much information as possible related to the issues by emphasizing that they had to explore not only their senior student teachers' understanding in terms of what they know, but also in terms of what they believe and feel on the two particular issues. This was partly done to aim at exploring the student teachers' cognition, which refers to the "mental lives" or the "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching—what teachers know, believe, and think" (Richards, 2008; Borg, 2005) and has been regarded to play an important roles in determining the practice of teaching and pedagogical decisions made by teachers.

Data Analysis

The data that had been collected from the interviews were then transcribed by the students and further analysed. The process of analysis itself was conducted in two phases. The first phase of analysis, which is the basic one, was conducted by the students themselves. They were assigned to locate and identify the main issues related to the problem of the study. In this initial phase, the students, in pairs, were asked to read the transcription of the interview carefully, then to underline the important points that emerged as the result of their analytical reading. What they found from their analysis was, then, submitted in the form of written report as a part of requirement of EFL methodology course.

The second phase of analysis is conducted by analysing the reports made by the students. What was conducted here included (1) categorizing the teaching difficulties and efforts to overcome them, (2) finding potential patterns emerging from the reports, (3) synthesizing findings, and (4) drawing conclusions. The mechanism of the research in general is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The Mechanism of research

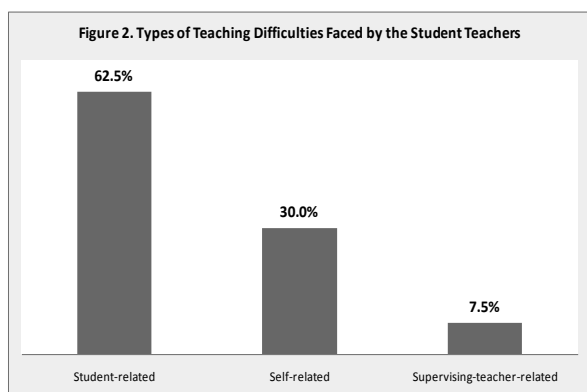


FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from this study are further elaborated in two main parts, first related to kinds of teaching difficulties and secondly about the efforts carried out to deal with such difficulties. Each part of the findings will be further discussed in reference to what theories and previous related studies have said.

Teaching difficulties faced by the student teachers

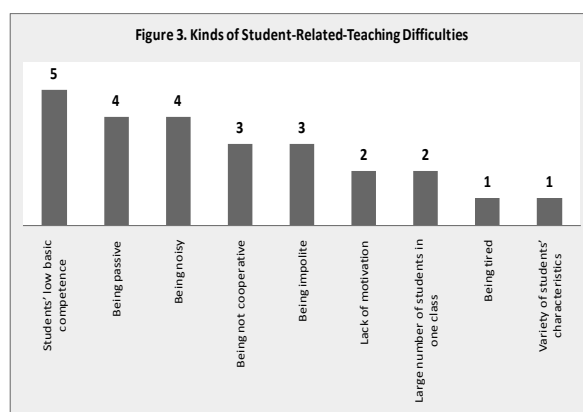
Based on the results of data analysis, teaching difficulties faced by the student teachers during conducting their teaching practicum in several secondary schools can be basically categorised into three main types, namely (1) **student-related difficulties**, (2) **self-related difficulties**, and **supervising-teacher-related difficulties**. The categorisation is made based on the consideration that it is mainly the sources of the difficulties that can best summarize and create a systematic elaboration on what the analysis has resulted in. Figure 2 depicts how the difficulties are distributed among the student teachers.



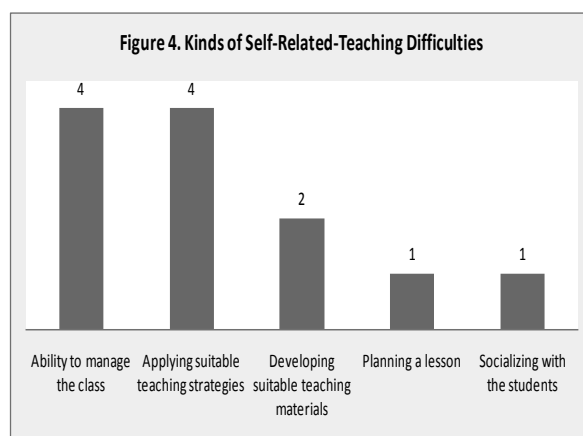
Student-related difficulties become the most frequently mentioned by the student teachers in the interviews. From the total of forty teaching difficulties reported, 25 of them (62.5%) are related to the students they teach; 12 of them (30%) are related to their personal competence; and 3 of them (7.5%) are related to their supervising teachers at schools.

As reported in the interviews, there are many kinds of student-related problems that are mentioned. From the most to the least

frequently mentioned difficulties include students' low basic competence, being passive, being noisy, being not cooperative, being impolite, lack of motivation, large number of students in one class, being tired, and a variety of students' characteristics. The distribution of the difficulties is presented in Figure 3.

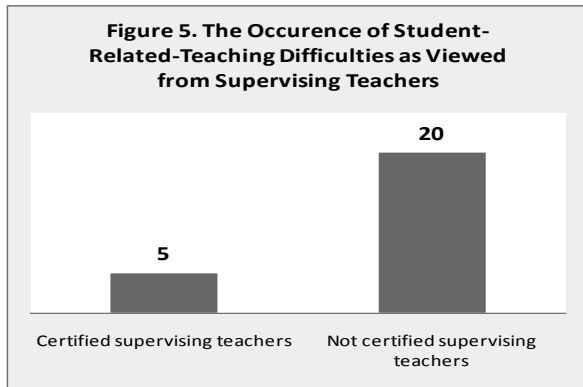


In relation to self-related difficulties, the ability to manage the class and to apply suitable teaching strategies becomes the most popular issue. Others include how to develop suitable teaching materials, planning a lesson, and socializing with the students. Figure 4 depicts the distribution of kinds of self-related difficulties.



The last type of difficulties mentioned by the student teachers is related to their supervising teachers. For this type of difficulties, three important things are mentioned, namely/ (1) lack of guidance, (2) giving a lot of teaching hours, and (3) forcing

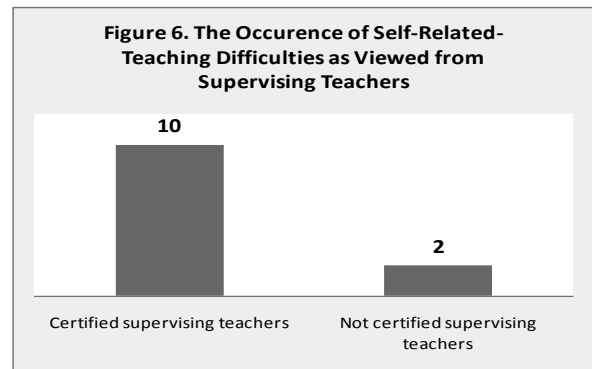
certain teaching materials. Each of them is mentioned only once, none of which becomes more dominant than others.



From all the findings presented above, there are several important patterns that can be identified. While the distribution of teaching difficulties does not show any interesting patterns when viewed from the types of schools in which the student teachers conducted the teaching practicum, interesting pattern emerges when the distribution of teaching difficulties is viewed from whether the supervising teachers have been certified or not. Student-related-teaching difficulties are far more frequently mentioned when the supervising teachers have not been certified (20 out of 25); meanwhile, only 5 out of 25 cases of student-related problems are reported when the supervising teachers have been certified. On the other hand, the number of self-related-teaching difficulties is lower (2 out of 12) whenever the supervising teachers have not been certified. Ironically, those students supervised by certified teachers tend to have more self-related-teaching problems (10 out of 12) in this case. The following figure presents the comparison of the difficulties seen from whether or not the supervising teachers have been certified.

Reflecting on the whole patterns of the findings, several important notes can be drawn. **First**, most of the student teachers have difficulties related to the students they teach. From what the result of analysis has shown, most of the problems have to do with how to manage students' behaviour.

Things like dealing with passive, noisy, uncooperative, and impolite students will, of course create, a difficult challenge for many novice teachers having the status of "new comers" or someone with little authority. As reported by many student teachers, it requires somewhat a long period of time just to direct the students to be ready to follow the lesson they give. Many times, more than half of their teaching time spent only for dealing with students' behaviour before ensuring that they can follow the lesson well.



This finding confirms the idea proposed by Farrel (2009) and the result of previously conducted study, such as that of Moore (2003). As suggested by Fuller & Brown (1975, as cited in Farrel, 2009), on their first stage of teaching experience, novice teachers are usually concerned with "survival and mastery." Among many important things to consider, class control and teaching materials become two highly regarded concerns for novice teachers. This is also in line with what Moore (2003) found in her study, which underlined that management and maintaining control become among the greatest challenges in teaching practicum.

Second, the professional capacity of supervising teachers may have a relationship with the types of difficulties faced by the student teachers in the classrooms. While it is found that student teachers who are accompanied by certified supervising teachers tend to have less student-related-teaching difficulties than those accompanied by non-certified teachers, it surprisingly becomes an irony when this is viewed from the number of

self-related difficulties faced by the student teachers.

One possible explanation related to this finding is that most certified teachers are senior teachers who have taught for more than five years. This can strongly influence the level of expertise in terms of how to deal with students' characteristics and behaviour. Therefore, student teachers with certified supervisors will potentially get more valuable information and feedback related to how to deal with students' behaviour and how to manage a class.

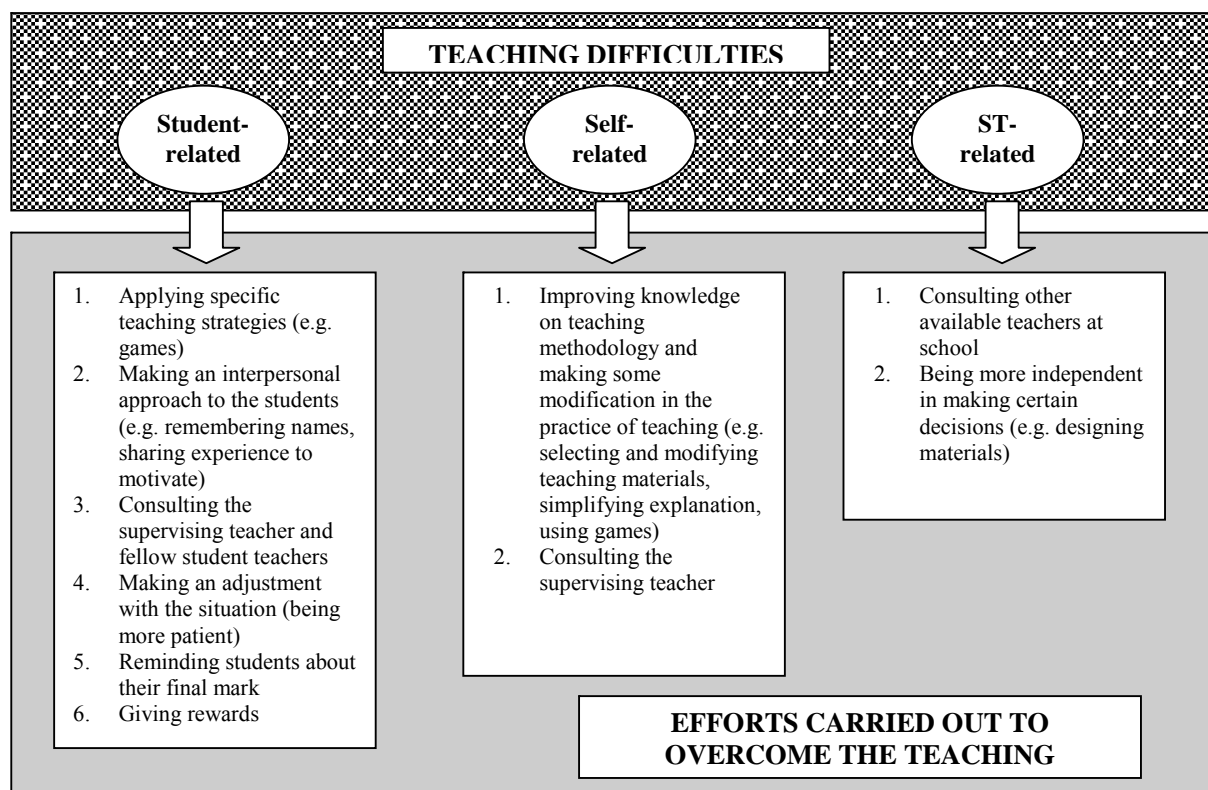
The last important point is that some student teachers still think that they still have some pedagogical weaknesses, especially in relation to classroom management, designing teaching materials, and applying suitable teaching strategies. Classroom management can range from managing the students to follow instructions, managing the kinds of

tasks to be conducted in the classroom, to managing how to structure materials to be given to the students. This will, of course, require the student teachers to do more reading, to have more discussions, and to have more teaching practices in the classroom. The role of supervisors in this case will become very crucial and meaningful. Improving student teachers' understanding through explicit examples and good quality feedback will be something that is highly expected from the supervisors.

Efforts carried out to overcome the teaching difficulties

In terms of finding ways out to overcome the difficulties, several efforts were reportedly carried out by the student teachers. To give a big picture of measures taken by the student teachers, the following figure summarizes the result in a more simple form.

Figure 7. Efforts carried out by the student teachers to overcome teaching difficulties



The figure above contains the simplification of student teachers' efforts to deal with three types of teaching difficulties that have been identified and discussed in the previous part. Basically, from the analysis of the interviews, the student teachers' answers are further categorised based on similarities and differences in terms of the nature of the action taken.

In dealing with student-related teaching difficulties, such as students being noisy, uncooperative and impolite, there at least six important kinds of efforts carried out by the student teachers in this study. First, they apply some specific teaching strategies according to contextual needs. To take an example, when the students looked bored and tired, one of the student teachers mentioned that she modified her teaching by combining the lesson with games. Another example is that when the student teachers felt that their students could not understand the English instruction given, some of them made a decision to teach bilingually. The second strategy is by making interpersonal approach to the students. Some respondents admitted that remembering students' names and sharing their past experience as a student could help build a better relationship and bring more respect from the students. Students seemed to feel that the student teachers also tried to position themselves as friends, so that they found it a lot easier to share their learning difficulties in the lesson given by the student teachers. Third, when the student teachers feel that they cannot solve teaching difficulties alone, they often ask suggestions from the supervising teachers and other fellow student teachers. Even though the suggestions given do not always work effectively, at least they can gain different perspectives on how to deal with their problems. This finding seems to indicate that in the process of learning to teach, student teachers often need some emotional support from other colleagues or someone considered more experienced than them. The other three ways in dealing with teaching difficulties include adjusting with the situation, reminding (or even warning)

the students about their final mark, and also giving rewards in a variety of forms. Some respondents said that one of the ways they could do was by being patient. Patience could help them understand why the students created problems in the classroom and also help them to become a wiser character. Warning students about final results (their final marks) is also regarded to be quite effective in drawing the students' attention to the lesson. However badly the students behave in the classroom, some student teachers believe that they are still concerned about their marks, about passing the final examination. The last form of efforts, namely giving rewards, is also often practiced by the student teachers. The rewards they give may range from a simple smile and a compliment to many kinds of small foods.

For self-related teaching difficulties, not many kinds of efforts are carried out. The main thing the student teachers do is doing self-reflection and improving their knowledge and skills through doing more reading and then modifying the teaching strategies in the classrooms. For this specific effort, some respondents stated that most of what they did was related to pedagogical modification, many of which needed a highly creative thinking.

In relation to problems from the supervising teachers, two main actions are taken here, namely trying to ask other available teachers at school for gaining some perspectives and suggestions and trusting themselves to become more independent in making certain pedagogical decisions. Whenever they find it difficult to get some suggestions or just some perspectives from teachers at school, relying on oneself becomes the only thing they can do instead of doing nothing. Often times, they try to overcome teaching difficulties, including those related to the supervising teachers, by carefully interpreting the situations and trying to be more informed before making a decision.

CONCLUSION

This study, to some extent, has shown that teacher professional development is more about a continuing process that will always be accompanied by many complex issues

surrounding the struggle of a teacher in finding their own meaning of professionalism. Every process towards becoming a professional teacher will, of course, be started from becoming a student teacher who will have to struggle hard facing many teaching challenges and thinking about ways out to overcome those challenges successfully.

Special concerns on supervision and specific materials for teacher education programs become critical regarding what has been found in this study. While it is widely believed that student teachers should not be left alone in their teaching practicum, teacher educators and supervisors will have to pay a serious attention on how to improve the quality of their supervision. Effective measures that include improvement in quality time with the student teachers and commitment are critically important. The quantity and quality of materials on specific issues, such as how to effectively deal with students with a variety of behaviours and characteristics also need special attention, particularly in the training programs for basic pedagogical knowledge and skills.

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CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: THEORY AND METHOD IN SOCIAL AND LITERARY FRAMEWORK

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Abstract: Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) serves as one of the tools to analyze the linguistic and the social. This article aims at investigating the relevance of ideas amongst CDA figures—Fairclough, Van Dijk, Wodak, and Kristeva—to both social and literary studies. This includes some significant points such as discourse, social practice, representation, power and intertextuality. The article shows, based on literary study, the aim of CDA applied linguistic aspect is to reveal the hidden in the analytical level of individual, institutional or social, i.e. domination and the abuse of power. CDA figures agreed to some extent that the complex interactions of discourse and social could not be analyzed, unless it utilized the approaches of linguistic and social. In the course of identity, for instance, CDA abridges the social and the linguistic realm. CDA, in this regard, mainly advocates the under-privileged representations of everyday life.

Key Words: Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), social practice, literature, power, identity

Abstrak: Salah satu aspek analisa bahasa yang dapat dipakai sebagai metode dalam kerangka kajian sosial maupun sastra adalah Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) atau Analisa Wacana Kritis. Artikel ini menekankan relevansi ide tokoh-tokoh CDA dari Fairclough, Van Dijk, Wodak, dan Kristeva dalam kajian sosial dan sastra. Beberapa aspek penting CDA meliputi ‘discourse’/wacana, praktek sosial, ‘representasi’, ‘power’/kuasa dan intertekstualitas. Melalui studi pustaka, artikel ini menunjukkan tujuan CDA dengan menggunakan aspek bahasa untuk mengungkap apa yang tersembunyi dalam analisa tingkat individu, institusional maupun social, seperti dominasi dan penyalahgunaan kuasa. Para tokoh CDA menyepakati bahwa interaksi antara wacana dan masyarakat tidak dapat dianalisis kecuali dengan menggabungkan pendekatan sosial dan bahasa. Dalam hal analisa problematika identitas, misalnya, CDA mampu menjembatani antara ranah bahasa dengan ranah sosial. CDA, dengan demikian, utamanya berpihak terhadap representasi yang terpinggirkan dalam problematika kehidupan.

Kata Kunci: CDA (Analisa Wacana Kritis), praktek sosial, sastra, kuasa, identitas

The issue of identity questions the inter-relationship between particular entities such as society, religion and culture. Understanding the changing issue of how people express themselves related to both social and cultural

discourse seems necessary in order to achieve a constructive communication. According to Van Dijk (1995), CDA is a special approach in discourse analysis, which focuses on discursive conditions, components, and consequences of

power abuse by dominant (elite) groups and institutions. It examines, as Van Dijk argued, patterns of access and control over contexts, genres, text and talk, their properties, as well as the discursive strategies of mind control. The author continued to say that it studies discourse and its functions in society and the ways society and, especially, forms of inequality are expressed, represented, legitimated, or reproduced in text and talk. Van Dijk's research shows that CDA does so in opposition against those groups and institutions who abuse their power, and in solidarity with dominated groups, e.g., by discovering and denouncing discursive dominance, and by cooperating in the empowerment of the dominated. In this respect, Benwell (2006, p. 105) stated that Van Dijk is clear that Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) implicitly treats identities as effects of the ideological work. Benwell went on to say that CDA is not a sub-discipline of discourse analysis, nor a single method or theory, but a critical perspective of doing research. The author further argued that this perspective has a common interest in the role of language in the transmission of knowledge, the consolidation of hegemonic discourses and the organization of institutional life.

The Dawn of Critical Discourse Analysis and Prominent Figures

This section discusses the emergence of CDA in a historical framework. This description unpacks some major figures representing CDA development from Fairclough, Van Dijk, Wodak to Kristeva. These efforts of emphasizing the four lead to the characteristics and the relevance of CDA in the realm of social encounter.

Concerning CDA, Fairclough (1997, p. 5) initially explained the relationship between textual analysis and the sociocultural analysis, in that textual analysis can often give excellent insights about what is "in" a text, but what is absent from a text is often just as significant from the perspective of sociocultural analysis. The implicit content of the text, as Fairclough maintained, is a sort of halfway house between presence and absence.

Fairclough also believed that in some cases, the presupposition is absent from the text in the sense that it is not actually asserted there, and is commonly seen as supplied by the listener or reader in interpreting the text.

Explaining the discourse, Fairclough (1992, pp. 63—64) tried to regard language use as of a form of social practice, rather than a purely individual activity or a reflection of situational variables. According to Fairclough, this has various implications, such as discourse as a mode of action, a form in which people may act upon the world and especially upon each other, as well as a mode of representation. The research further states that it also implies a dialectical relationship between discourse and social structure, in that the social structure is both a condition for and an effect of a social practice. Discourse, as the author points out, is then a practice not just of representing the world, but of signifying the world, constituting and constructing the world in meaning.

The distinction of the three aspects of the constructive effects of discourse, according to Fairclough, can be seen as follows. Discourse contributes to the construction of what are variously referred to as "social identities" and "subject position" to social "subjects" and types of "the self." Secondly, discourse helps construct social relationships between people. And thirdly, discourse contributes to the construction of the systems of knowledge and belief. These three effects correspond respectively to the three functions of language and dimension of meaning which coexist and interact in all discourse—what Fairclough calls the "identity," "relational" and "ideational" functions of language. The author further argued that the identity function relates to the ways in which social identities are set up in discourse. The relational function, as Fairclough stated, relates to how social relationships between discourse participants are enacted and negotiated. Fairclough (1992) concluded that the ideational function relates to ways in which texts signify the world and its processes, entities and relation. Likewise, Cross (2010, p. 10) stated that if the

linguistic analysis of the text deals with both Fairclough's second level concerns of text production, interpretation and distribution and third level attention to discourse events, then the effect of competing ideologies and their bounded areas of power-knowledge on individual subjectivity and group identities and attitudes become subject to analytical scrutiny.

Furthermore, Fairclough (1992) argued that social practice has various orientations—economic, political, cultural, ideological—and discourse may be implicated in all of these without any of them being reducible to discourse. The author further stated that in this line, discursive practice is constitutive in both conventional and creative ways: it contributes to reproducing society (social identities, social relationships, systems of knowledge and belief) as it is, yet also contributes to transforming society.

To the role of discourse, Fairclough (2002, pp. 193—194) stated that one cannot take the role of discourse in social practices for granted, it has to be established through analysis. Discourse in this act, as Fairclough argued, shares three ways in social practice. First, it figures as a part of the social activity within a practice. Fairclough also believed that discourse as a part of social activity constitutes *genres*. Genres, as Fairclough maintained, are diverse ways of acting, of producing social life, in the semiotic mode. According to Fairclough, examples are everyday conversations, meetings, political and other form of interviews, and book reviews. Second, Fairclough went on to say that discourse also includes representations. The author continued to argue that social actors within any practice produce representations of other practices as well as “reflexive” representations of their own practice, in the course of their activity within the practice. Fairclough also argued that discourse also includes in ways of being, in the constitution of identities, for instance the identity of a political leader.

Elaborating social order, Fairclough stated that social practices networked in a particular way constitute a social order—for instance,

the social order of education in a particular society at a particular time. The research further states that the discourse/ semiotic aspect of social order is what we can call an order of discourse. The author further argues that it is the way in which diverse genres and, discourses and styles are networked together. An order of discourse, as Fairclough believed, is a social structuring of semiotic differences. Fairclough also argued that one aspect of this ordering is dominance: some ways of making meaning are dominant or mainstream in a particular order of discourse, while others are marginal, oppositional or alternative. For instance, as Fairclough maintained, there may be a dominant way to conduct a doctor-patient consultation in Britain, but there are also various other ways, which may be adopted or developed to a greater or lesser extent in opposition to the dominant ways. According to Fairclough (2002), an order of discourse is not a closed or rigid system, but rather an open system, which emphasized on what happens in the actual interactions. Concerning the open flexibility of CDA, Cross (2010) quoted Fairclough, in that CDA should open its analysis to different theoretical discourses which construct the problem in focus in different ways. Cross went on to say the items are as follows: colonization/ appropriation; globalization/localization; reflexivity/ ideology; identity/difference. According to Cross, there are two pervasive concerns within this agenda, which cut across items and are, therefore, best not included as items: power and hybridity. Cross concluded that given the orientation to problems, power and struggle over power are constant concerns for CDA.

Having discussed the relationship between Fairclough's text and its social context, it is now turning to what has been stated by Van Dijk (1993) on a study of relations between discourse, power, dominance, social inequality, and the position of the discourse analyst in such social relationship. Van Dijk claimed that in other word, the main concern deals with how one goes about doing “critical” analysis of text and talk.

According to Van Dijk (1993, pp. 249—

150), the study and the critique of social inequality focus on the role of discourse in the reproduction and challenge of dominance. Van Dijk pointed out that dominance is defined here as the exercise of social power by elites, institutions or groups that result in social inequality, including political, cultural, class, ethnic, racial and gender inequality. This reproduction process, as Van Dijk explained, may involve different “modes” of discourse—such as power relation, enactment, representation, legitimation, denial, mitigation or concealment of dominance, among others. More specifically, Van Dijk suggested that the analyst wants to know what structures, strategies, or other properties of text, talk, verbal interaction or communicative events play a role in these modes of reproduction.

Van Dijk continued to argue that the very effort is to contribute to a theoretical, descriptive, empirical, and critical framework between discourse and socio-political analysis. In this regard, as Van Dijk (1993) showed, CDA deals primarily with the discourse dimensions of power abuse and the injustice and the inequality that result from it. The author went on to say that it requires true multidisciplinary, an account of intricate relationships between text, talk, social cognition, power, society and culture.

Regarding power and dominance, Van Dijk (1993) stated that the concept of hegemony and its associated concepts of consensus, acceptance, and the management of the mind also suggest that a critical analysis of discourse and dominance is far from straightforward and does not always imply a clear picture of villains and victims. Van Dijk also maintained that many forms of dominance appear to be “jointly reproduced” through intricate forms of social interaction, communication and discourse. The analysis, as Van Dijk argued, will be able to contribute to our understanding of such intricacies. Van Dijk also believed that power and dominance are usually organized and institutionalized. The social dominance of groups, as the author suggested, is thus not merely enacted individually, but it is enacted by its group members, sanctioned by

the court, legitimated by laws, enforced by the police, and ideologically sustained and reproduced by the media or textbooks. Van Dijk also maintained that this social, cultural, and political organization of dominance also implies a hierarchy of power, some members of dominant groups and organizations have a special role in planning, decision making and control over the relations and processes of the enactment of power. According to Van Dijk, these small groups will be called here as the power elites. The definition of elites, as Van Dijk believed, deals with precision in terms of their “symbolic power” as measured by the extent of their discursive and communicative scope and resources.

Van Dijk (2009, pp. 248—253) further stated the relation between the discourse and contexts. Context, as the author pointed out, is defined as a theoretical term, within a broader theory of discourse that must account for the ways discourses are produced and understood as a function of the properties of communicative situation—as they are understood and represented by the participants themselves. The author further maintained that contexts may represent face-to-face communicative situations (micro contexts), such as a parliamentary speech or debate, but also various micro and macro levels of social situations and structure, such as parliament as an institution, or even democracy as a system. Such levels, as Van Dijk argued, may be made more or less relevant for ongoing text or talk. Also, as the author showed, we need to further examine the textual or contextual status and properties of the media that manifest discourse.

Furthermore, Van Dijk (1995) examined the nature of social power and abuse, and, in particular, the ways dominance is expressed or enacted in text and talk. The author went to argue that if social power is roughly defined as a form of control of one group by another, or if such control may extend to the actions and the minds of dominated group members, or if dominance or power abuse further implies that such control is in the interest of dominant group, this means that dominant social group

members may also exercise such control over text and talk. Van Dijk pointed out that discursively implemented dominance involves preferential access to text and context taken as a basis or resource of power, comparable to such social resources as wealth, income, a good job, position, status, knowledge, and education.

CDA as Van Dijk (2010) tried to define, deals with basic concepts, such as micro vs. macro and power as control. Van Dijk continued to argue that language use, discourse, verbal interaction, and communication belong to the micro level of the social order. Van Dijk also maintained that power, dominance and inequality between social groups are typically terms that belong to a macro level of analysis. This means that, as the author suggested, CDA has to theoretically bridge the well-known gap between micro and macro approaches. The author also believed that the macro and micro levels form one unified whole. Van Dijk explained that, for instance, a racist speech in parliament is a discourse at the micro level of social interaction in the specific situation of a debate, but at the same time it may enact or be a constituent part of legislation or the reproduction of racism at the macro level. In this regard, Van Dijk continued to say that there are several ways to analyze and bridge these levels, and thus arrive at a unified critical analysis: members-groups, action-process, context-social structure and personal and social cognition.

Regarding power as control, Van Dijk stated that a central notion in most critical work on discourse is that of power, and more specifically, the social power of groups or institutions. Thus, groups, as the author suggested, have more or less power if they are able to more or less control the acts and minds of member of other groups. According to Van Dijk, this ability presupposes a power base of privileged access to scarce social resources, such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge, information, culture, or indeed various form of public discourse and communication.

The historical perspective of the CDA, as Wodak (p. 5) in Kendall (2007) argued, began

in 1991 with a meeting organized by Van Dijk in Amsterdam, often viewed as the formal and institutionalized beginning of CDA. Wodak contributed to the focus of interdisciplinary and implementing interdisciplinarity.

The term “critical”, according to Wodak in Kendall (2007), means not taking a case for granted, opening up complexity, challenging reductionism, dogmatism and dichotomies, being self reflective in the research, and through these processes, making opaque structures of power relations and ideologies manifest. Wodak also suggested that “critical” does not imply the common sense meaning of being negative or rather skeptical. The author concluded that proposing alternatives is also part of being critical.

Wodak continued to argue that the most important development in CDA is a new focus on identity politics (transition and social change), language policies, and on integrating macro social theories with linguistic analysis. Moreover, Wodak signified the analysis of new genres (visual, internet, film, chat rooms, SMS, and multimodality). In this line, as the author maintained, CDA methodology integrates linguistic methods with a critical social standpoint. Wodak also believed that the theoretical approach in CDA is inherently interdisciplinary because it aims to investigate complex social phenomena which are inherently inter- or trans-disciplinary and certainly cannot be studied by linguistics alone. The notion of retroductable, as Wodak in Kendall (2007), argued, manifests since such analyses should be transparent so that any reader can trace and understand the detailed in-depth textual analysis. The author concluded that in any case all criteria which are usually applied to social science research apply to CDA as well.

Likewise, Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) underlined the notion of critical to be understood as having distance to the data, embedding the data in the social, taking the political stance explicitly, and a focus on self-reflection as scholars doing research. In doing so, Wodak argued that the tasks of critical theory were to assist in remembering

a past that was in danger of being forgotten, to struggle for emancipation, to clarify the reasons for such a struggle, and to define the nature of critical thinking itself.

CDA in this regard, as Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) pointed out, emphasizes the need for interdisciplinary work in order to gain a proper understanding of how language functions in, for example, constituting and transmitting knowledge, in organizing social institutions or in exercising power. Arguing on power, intertextuality, and recontextualization, Wodak stated that an important perspective in CDA is that it is very rare for a text to be the work of any one person. The author also showed that in texts, discursive differences are negotiated; they are governed by differences in power which are themselves, in part, encoded in and determined by discourse and genre. Therefore texts, as the author suggested, are often sites of struggle in that they show traces of differing discourses and ideologies contending and struggling for dominance. According to Wodak, a defining feature of CDA is its concern with power as a central condition in social life, and its efforts to develop a theory of language which incorporates this as a major premise. The author also believed that not only the notion of struggle for power and control, but also the intertextuality and recontextualization of competing discourses are closely attended to.

In relation to power, Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) pointed out that power is about relations of difference, and particularly about the effects of differences in social structures. According to Wodak, the constant unity of language and other social matters ensures that language is entwined in social power in a number of ways: language indexes power, expresses power and is involved where there is contention over and a challenge to power. Power, as the author maintained, does not derive from language, but language can be used to challenge power, to subvert it, to alter distributions of power in the short and long terms. Additionally, Wodak stated that language provides a finely articulated means for differences in power in social hierarchical

structures. The author also argued that CDA takes an interest in the ways in which linguistic forms are used in various expressions and manipulations of power. Power, as the author believed, is signaled not only by grammatical forms within a text, but also by the writer's control of a social occasion by means of the genre of a text. Wodak continued to say that it is often exactly within the genres associated with given social occasions that power is exercised or challenged. The ways in which some CDA research is directly and indirectly related to research produced in the tradition of critical theory, as Wodak maintained, are particularly evident when one considers central concepts with which the various areas work, and social phenomena on which they focus. Wodak further explained that examples of these are pertinent in their approaches to questions such as: what constitutes knowledge; how discourses are constructed in and constructive of social institutions; how ideology functions in social institutions, and how people obtain and maintain power within a given community.

It is generally agreed, as Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001), p. 11) argued, that CDA must not be understood as a single method but rather as an approach that has different levels. According to Wodak, at each level a number of selections have to be made. At the programmatic level, a selection, as the author maintained, is made of (a) the phenomena under observation, (b) some explanation of the theoretical assumptions, and (c) the methods used to link theory and observation. Wodak further believed that methodical procedure will make it easier to record findings and to compile reports of experience. Secondly, at a social level, the author also stated that a specific peer group is formed as a distinctive part of a scientific community, and thirdly, at a historical level, each approach to social research is subject to fashion and expiry dates. According to Wodak, the nature of the problems with which CDA is concerned is different in principles from methods, which do not determine their interest in advance. In general, as the author suggested, CDA asks

different research questions. Wodak showed that CDA scholars play an advocatory role for groups who suffer from social discrimination. Whatever the case, in respect of the object of investigation, as the author maintained, it is a fact that CDA follows a different and critical approach to problems, since it endeavors to make explicit power relationships which are frequently hidden, and thereby, derive results which are of practical relevance.

In accordance with this, CDA, as Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) argued, refers to such extra-linguistic factors as culture, society and ideology. The author signified that in any case, the notion of context is crucial for CDA, since this explicitly includes social-psychological, political, ideological components and, thereby, postulates an interdisciplinary procedure.

Furthermore, as Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) argued beyond this, CDA, using the concept of intertextuality and interdiscursivity, analyses relationship with other texts, and this is not pursued in other methods. The author also suggested that from its basic understanding of the notion of discourse it may be concluded that CDA is open to the broadest range of factors that exert an influence on texts.

According to Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001), in relation to context, language and society, CDA does not take this relationship to be simply deterministic but invokes an idea of mediation. Wodak believed that there is a difference between the various concepts of discourse. The author explained that Fairclough defined the relationship in accordance with Halliday's multifunctional linguistic theory and the concept of orders of discourse according to Foucault, while the author, like Van Dijk, introduces a sociocognitive level. Wodak further stated that this kind of mediation between language and society is absent from many other linguistic approaches, such as for example, conversation analysis. Explicitly and implicitly, as the author argued, CDA makes use of a concept of the linguistic surface. Wodak also said that, for instance Fairclough speaks of a form and texture at the textual level, and the author of

forms of linguistic realization.

CDA, as Wodak in Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (2001) pointed out, should be based on a sound theory of context. The author went on to say that within this Van Dijk claimed that the theory of social representations plays an important part. Social actors involved in discourse, in Wodak's view, do not exclusively make use of their individual experiences and strategies; they mainly rely upon collective frames of perceptions, called social representations. Social representations, as Wodak suggested, are shaped amongst members of a social group. Wodak also stated that, thus, they form a core element of the individual's social identity. Social representations, as the author believed, are bound to specific social groups and do not span society as a whole. Wodak (2001, p. 21) further pointed out that they are dynamic constructs and subject to permanent change.

Regarding this procedure, Wodak explained that data collection is never completely excluded, and new questions always rise, which can only be dealt with if new data are collected or earlier data are re-examined. Wodak also stated that Fairclough and Van Dijk preferred mass media coverage, while the author postulated that CDA studies always incorporate fieldwork and ethnography in order to explore the object under investigation as a precondition for any further analysis and theorizing.

According to Wodak (2001), CDA places its methodology, rather, in the hermeneutic than in the analytical-deductive tradition. As a consequence, as the author maintained, no clear line between data collection and analysis can be drawn. However, the author stated that the linguistic character of CDA becomes evident that CDA strongly relies on linguistic categories. This does not mean that, as Wodak argued, topics and contents play no role at all, but that the core operationalizations depend on linguistic concepts such as actors, mode, time, tense, argumentation, and so on.

Pertaining to validity of research, Wodak suggested triangulation procedures to ensure validity—which is appropriate to

whatever one's theoretical orientation or use of quantitative or qualitative data. Wodak's triangulatory approach can be characterized as theoretical and is based on the concept of context, which takes into account four levels: (1) The immediate language, or text-internal co-text; (2) the intertextual and interdiscursive relationship between utterances, texts, genres and discourses; (3) the extra-linguistic (social) level, which is called "the context of situation" and explained by middle-range theories; and (4) the broader socio-political and historical contexts. Permanent switching between these levels and evaluation of the findings from these different perspectives, as Wodak believed, should minimize the risk of being biased. In Wodak's view, in Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (2001), triangulation among different types of data, participants' definitions of significance and issue-based analysis to establish the significance of the sites of engagement and mediated actions under study are suited to bringing the analyses back to participants in order to get their reactions and interpretations: to uncover divergences and contradictions between one's own analysis of the mediated actions one is studying and those of participants. Wodak (p. 30), in Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (2001), continued to say that in the tradition of critical theory, CDA aims to make transparent the discursive aspects of social disparities and inequalities. CDA in the majority of cases, as the author argued, takes the part of the underprivileged and tries to unpack the linguistic means used by the privileged to stabilize or even to intensify iniquities in society.

To summarize, CDA according to Wodak (p. 65) Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (2001), is not concerned with evaluating what is right or wrong. The author suggested that CDA should try to make choices at each point in the research itself, and should make these choices transparent. It should also, as the author further pointed out, justify theoretically why certain interpretations of discursive events (events given great media coverage) seem more valid than others.

Along with CDA's notion of intertextuality, Kristeva (1986, pp. 36—37)

stated the notion of intertextuality replaces that of intersubjectivity, and poetic language is read as at least double. The author further argued that defining the specific status of the word as signifier for different modes of (literary interaction) within different genres or texts put poetic analysis at the sensitive center of contemporary human sciences—at the intersection of language the true practice of thought with space the volume within which signification, through a joining of differences, articulates itself. To investigate the status of the word, as the author maintained, is to study its articulations with other words in the sentence and then to look for the same functions or relationships at the articulatory level of larger sequences. The word's status, in Kristeva's view, is thus defined horizontally: the word in text belongs to both writing subject and addressee, as well as vertically: the word in the text is oriented towards an anterior of literary corpus. The author further explained that the addressee, however, is included within a book's discursive universe as discourse itself. According to Kristeva, the addressee thus fuses with this other discourse, this other book, in relation to which the writer has written his own text. Kristeva concluded that hence horizontal axis (subject-addressee) and vertical axis (text-context) coincide, bringing to light an important fact: each word (text) is an intersection of word (texts), where at least one other word (text) can be read.

Kristeva continued to explain that the word as minimal unit, thus, turns out to occupy the status of mediator, linking structural models to cultural (historical) environment. The word, as the author suggests, is spatialized: through the very notion of status, it functions in three dimensions (subject—addressee—context) as a set of dialogical elements. Kristeva (1998, p. 37) further signified that the novel in particular exteriorizes linguistic dialogue.

In relation to cultural shift in post-modernity, Kristeva (1998) also noted that society is witnessing a period of depression. The values of good and evil are no longer the focus since these values have been so fundamentally questioned. In the contemporary

image on television, we witness an exposure of a phenomenon that is both psychological and political: the pulverization of identity. This occurs through violence and carnage. The pulverization of identity is not without risk. As Proust remarked, instead of being, one tries to belong. This shift from being as the foundation to identity to belonging forces a desire to adhere to a group, to an ideology, to a sect—because religions are in crisis. We ask questions about the image. We have critical attitude toward the image.

According to Pollock (1998, p.37), pertaining to the intertextuality, Kristeva believed that texts present a unified meaning and began to view them as the combination and compilation of sections of the social text. As such, as the author argued, texts have no unity or unified meaning on their own, they are thoroughly connected to on-going cultural and social processes. Kristeva's approach, in Pollock's view, seeks to study the text as a textual arrangement of elements which possess a double meaning: a meaning in the text itself and a meaning in what she calls the historical and social text. Meaning, as the author suggested, is always simultaneously inside and outside the text.

The Characteristics of CDA as a Theory and Method

This part describes the characteristics of CDA as one of the alternative approaches investigating power relations, hegemony and discourse. As a theory and method, CDA reveals texts and their social relation contexts. The review of CDA shares, as Fairclough and Wodak (p. 141) have stated, an eight-point program to define Critical Discourse Analysis as follows:

- (1) CDA addresses social problems.
- (2) Power relations are discursive.
- (3) Discourse constitutes society and culture.
- (4) Discourse does ideological work.
- (5) Discourse is historical.
- (6) The link between text and society is mediated.
- (7) Discourse analysis is interpretive and explanatory.
- (8) Discourse is a form of social action.

Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) intensified preliminary investigation to the distinctive trait of CDA as a method in that the first question of researchers is not, "Do we need a grand theory?" but rather, "What conceptual tools are relevant for this or that problem and for this and that context?"

Let us turn to the field of politics. Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) stated that if we take politicians, for example, as specific individuals and not as a homogeneous group of elites, then they are best seen both as shapers of specific public opinions and interests and as seismographs, that react and reflect to the articulation of changing interests of specific social groups and affected parties. The relationship between media, politics of all genres, and "people," as the author suggested, is very complex. Up to now, Wodak argued that we have not been able to provide clear answers about who influences who and how these influences are directed. Only interdisciplinary research, in Wodak's view, will be able to make such complex relationships more transparent. The author went on to say that simple conspiracy theories do not seem valid in our global societies. In research of this kind, critical discourse analysis, as the author maintained, is only one component of the multiple approaches needed. Wodak also believed that not only discursive practices are to be focused on, but also a wide range of material and semiotic practices. Thus, research in CDA, as Wodak pointed out, must be multitheoretical and multimethodical, critical and self-reflective.

What should be noted by analysts is that, according to Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001), CDA deals with certain approach. The discourse-historical approach, committed to CDA, adheres to the socio-political orientation of critical theory. As such, as Wodak argued, it follows a complex concept of social critique which embraces at least three inter-connected aspects, two of which are primarily related to the dimension of cognition and one to the dimension of action:

1. "Text or discourse immanent critique" aims at discovering inconsistencies, (self)

contradictions, paradoxes, and dilemmas in the text-internal or discourse-internal structures.

2. In contrast to the “immanent critique,” the “socio-diagnostic critique” is concerned with the demystifying exposure of the – manifest or latent—possibly persuasive or “manipulative” character of discursive practices. With socio-diagnostic critique, the analyst exceeds the purely textual or discourse internal sphere. She or he makes use of her or his background and contextual knowledge and embeds the communicative or interactional structures of a discursive event in a wider frame of social and political relations, processes and circumstances. At this point, we are obliged to apply social theories to interpret the discursive events.
3. Prognostic critique contributes to the transformation and improvement of communication (for example, within public institutions, by elaborating proposals and guidelines for reducing language barriers in hospitals, schools, courtrooms, public offices and media reporting institutions as well as guidelines for avoiding sexist language use).

In relation to the principle of triangulation, as one methodical way for a critical discourse analyst to minimize the risk of being biased in CDA, Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) stated that one of the most salient distinguishing features of the discourse–historical approach is its endeavour to work with different approaches, multimethodically and on the basis of a variety of empirical data as well as background information.

Wodak in Wodak & Meyer (2001) further explained that in investigating historical, organizational, and political topics and texts, the discourse-historical approach attempts to integrate a large quantity of available knowledge about historical sources and the background of the social and political field in which “discursive events” are embedded. According to Wodak, further, it analyses the historical dimension of discursive actions by exploring the ways in which particular genres of discourse are subject to diachronic

change. Lastly, and most importantly, as the author pointed out, this is not only viewed as “information.” At this point, in Wodak’s view, we integrate social theories to be able to explain the so-called context.

The most important characteristics of historical CDA approach, according to Wodak (pp. 67-70) in Wodak & Meyer (2001) are as follows:

The approach is interdisciplinary. Interdisciplinarity is located on several levels: in theory, in the work itself, in teams and in practice. The approach is problem-oriented, not focused on specific linguistic items. The theory as well as the methodology is eclectic; that is theories and methods are integrated which are helpful in understanding and explaining the object under investigation. The study always incorporates fieldwork and ethnography to explore the object under investigation (study from the inside) as a precondition for any further analysis and theorizing. The approach is abductive: a constant movement back and forth between theory and empirical data is necessary. Multiple genres and multiple public spaces are studied; and intertextual, and interdiscursive relationships are investigated. Recontextualization is the most important process in connecting these genres as well as topics and arguments (*topoi*). The historical context is always analyzed and integrated into the interpretation of discourses and texts. The categories and tools for the analysis are defined according to all these steps and procedures as well as to the specific problem under investigation. Practice is the target. The results should be made available to experts in different fields and, as a second step, be applied with the goal of changing certain discursive and social practices.

Pursuing clear common features of CDA, I address what Jorgensen & Phillips (2008) stated about the use of the label of CDA in two different ways, both to describe the approach

and the label for a broader movement within discourse analysis. This broad movement, according to Jorgensen, is a rather loose entity and there is no consensus as to who belong to it. Jorgensen tended to discuss Fairclough's approach, consisting of a set of philosophical premises, theoretical methods, methodological guidelines and specific techniques for analysis. According to Jorgensen, some key elements shared by all approaches in CDA included:

...the character of social and cultural processes and structures is partly linguistic-discursive; discourse is both constitutive and constituted; language use should empirically analyzed within its social context; discourse functions ideologically; and critical research .

According to Jorgensen & Phillips (2008), it is central to Fairclough's approach that CDA tries to unite three traditions of detailed textual analysis, macro-sociological analysis of social practice and the micro-sociological, where everyday life is treated as the product of people's action, in which they follow a set of shared common sense rules and procedures. The benefit derived from drawing on the macro-sociological tradition, as the author suggested, is that it takes into account that social practices are shaped by social structures and power relations and that people are often not aware of these processes.

Pertaining to CDA review, Jorgensen & Phillips (2008) stated that Fairclough applies the concept of discourse in three different ways. In the most abstract sense, the author went on to say that discourse refers to language use as social practice; secondly, discourse is understood as the kind of language used within a specific field, such as political or scientific discourse. And thirdly, in the most concrete usage, Jorgensen stated that discourse refers to a way of speaking, which gives meaning to experiences from a particular perspective. In the last sense, as the author maintained, the concept refers to any discourse such as a feminist discourse, a consumer discourse or an environmentalist discourse. Jorgensen also argued that discourse contributes to the construction of: social identities, social

relations and systems of knowledge and meaning. In any analysis, as the author points out, two dimensions of discourse have these important focal points:

1. The communicative event—an instance of language use, such as a newspaper article, a film, a video, an interview or a political speech;
2. The order of discourse—the configuration of all the discourse types which are used within a social institution or a social field. Discourse types consist of discourses and genres.

A genre, according to Jorgensen (2008), is a particular usage of language which participates in and constitutes part of a particular social practice, for example, an interview genre, a news genre, or an advertising genre. Examples of orders of discourse, as Jorgensen stated, include the order of discourse of the media, the health service or an individual hospital. In Jorgensen's view, within an order of discourse, "there are specific discursive practices through which text and talk are produced and consumed or interpreted ."

Jorgensen & Phillips (2008) further stated that for instance, within a hospital's order of discourse, the discursive practices which take place include doctor-patient consultations, the scientific staff's technical language (both written and spoken) and the public relations' spoken and written promotional language. Jorgensen also argued that in every discursive practice—that is, in the production and consumption of text and talk—discourse types (discourses and genres) are used in particular ways. Jorgensen explained that every instance of language use is a communicative event consisting of three dimensions, seen as Fairclough's three-dimensional model for CDA: it is a text (speech, visual image or a combination of these); it is a discursive practice which involves the production and consumption of texts; and it is a social practice.

Relevance of CDA Approaches to Literary Research

The section discusses some elements of CDA and their relevance to literary study. Part

of the discussion is the relation between literature and cultural aspects. Discourse, as Beaugrande (2010) argued, serves as not merely something that people learn to produce and receive, but something that mediates most other modes of learning. In this act, according to Beaugrande, the text as a written and presumably closed artifact is “decentered” into discourse, as an open-ended transaction, which for some theories (such as Foucault’s) extend to broad social and institutional frameworks. Beaugrande signified the term intertextuality gained some currency for the visions of the “open” text as a meeting point or “weaving” of other texts.

Regarding a relational mode of CDA—containing various types of discourses—and literature in postmodernism framework, Hutcheon (1988, p. 184) stated that fiction can be read from the perspective of a poetic of postmodernism within which language is inextricably bound to social and ideological. Like much of contemporary theory, it argues that we need to critically examine the social and ideological implications operative in the institutions of our disciplines—historical, literary, philosophical, and linguistics. Hutcheon quoted the notion in Terry Eagleton’s term that discourse, sign-systems and signifying practices of all kinds, from film and television to fiction and the languages of natural science, produce effects, shape forms of consciousness and unconsciousness, which are closely related to the maintenance or transformation of our existing systems of power.

Furthermore, Hutcheon (1988) argued that we still need a critical language in which to discuss those ironic modern and postmodern texts. This, of course, according to Hutcheon, is where the concept of intertextuality has proved so useful. Intertextuality, as Hutcheon maintained, replaces the challenged author-text relationship with one between reader and text, one that situates the locus of textual meaning within the history of discourse itself.

Pertaining to CDA framework and interdisciplinary research of CDA, Wodak (2001) in Wodak & Meyer (2001) sought

to explore the political and discrimination discourse studying various media of investigation. The case varies, as Wodak tried to illustrate, from the publication and the media treatment; political commemoration; a memorial; and the premiere of the play *Heldenplatz* by Thomas Bernhard, which deals with Austrian anti-Semitism then and now and its psycho-terrorizing long term-impact on surviving Jewish victims.

The attribution of different genres and discourse in diverse discursive practices may correlate to the CDA research since it constructs, as Fairclough argued, the micro and macro aspects of entities. This act, I believe, will uncover the motivational ideologies and assumptions which sometimes are neglected. The literary genre—such as fiction, as a part of genres as a whole—constitutes the new development of CDA, as Wodak suggested, toward the emphasis of identity politics.

CONCLUSION

The dawn of CDA with some representations of figures discussing the field signifies the relation between language use and its social practices. This foundation leads to the analysis of events in everyday practices, which include further investigation on individual, institutional and social levels. In so doing, I am of the opinion that CDA actually underlines the discussion of power relations, ideological and social practices. CDA acts upon understanding strategies and tactics to advocate non-privileged representations in everyday life.

CDA, in my view, is a beneficial apparatus to investigate the blurred difference between what constitutes reality and what signifies myth and image. In this respect, I am interested in Fairclough’s notion to Baudrillard on the postmodernity consequence, saying that “in postmodernity the distinction between image and reality has collapsed, so that we are living in a hyperreality where it is impossible for instance to separate the images of war on TV and the actual thing” (1997, p. 16). In relation to the issue of media and access, Allen (2000, p. 182) stated that the new media or film,

television and video also provide people with main forms of access to local, national and global events. Allen believes that reality, we may say, is something which is partially created by media through which it is represented. This point, as Allen (2000) argued, has led many to focus on the relationship between reality and representation, fact and fiction.

It is relevant then for CDA to mediate the linguistic and the social. The CDA representatives agree to a large extent that the complex interactions between discourse and society cannot be analyzed adequately, unless linguistic and sociological approaches are combined. To sum up, the mediation, as Wodak argued, not only refers to socio-linguistic but also pinpoints the problem of modern people such as identity and representation in their everyday practices.

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MENTOR COACHING TO HELP PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS IN DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE LESSON PLAN

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Abstract: This paper investigates how mentor coaching, which is intended to prepare pre-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language in facing their teaching practices, help them design lesson plans. A lesson plan, as Farrell (2002) stated, is a collection or a summary of a teacher's thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson. This means that before coming to the teaching process, a teacher should prepare systematic steps to be conducted in a class in order to reach the objective of a lesson. However, most pre-service teachers are confused with the designing process of lesson plan that is how to articulate the government curriculum into operational details. For example, they do not know which activities to include in the lesson plan, and they do not understand how to determine indicators or "enabling objectives" (Brown, 2007) for assessing students' achievement in the lesson. Therefore, mentor coaching is seen as one of alternatives in helping pre-service teachers. Mentor coaching, as Nolan (2007, cited in Zepeda, 2012, p. 165) said, is a "structured process whereby an experienced person introduces, assists, and supports a less-experienced person (the protege) in a personal and professional growth process." In the context of this study, the experienced person refers to the teacher/the lecturer in the class and the less-experienced person in this context refers to the pre-service teachers or student teachers. This study used action research as the method. Furthermore, the data were obtained by distributing questionnaire and collecting pre-service teachers' lesson plans as well as conducting an interview. In addition, after having designed a lesson plan with mentor coaching technique, the pre-service teachers were asked to reflect the process in order to gain their perception about the mentor coaching technique. It is important to find what they think and feel about this mentor coaching process because it is expected that this type of coaching will be useful in helping pre-service teachers to write an effective lesson plan.

Keywords: Mentor coaching, pre-service teachers, lesson plan, action research

Abstract: Makalah ini menyelidiki bagaimana pembinaan mentor, yang ditujukan untuk mempersiapkan calon guru bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing dalam menghadapi praktek mengajar nantinya, membantu mereka merancang rencana pelaksanaan pembelajaran, atau RPP. RPP, seperti diungkap oleh Farrel (2002), adalah kumpulan atau rangkuman pemikiran guru mengenai cakupan sebuah pembelajaran. Ini berarti bahwa sebelum mengajar, seorang guru harus mempersiapkan langkah-langkah sistematis untuk dilaksanakan di dalam kelas agar bisa meraih tujuan sebuah pembelajaran. Akan tetapi, kebanyakan calon guru bingung dengan proses merancang RPP, yaitu bagaimana menjabarkan kurikulum pemerintah kedalam detail operasional. Misalnya, mereka tidak tahu aktivitas mana yang harus dimasukkan ke dalam RPP, dan mereka tidak mengerti cara untuk menentukan indikator atau "tujuan yang memungkinkan" (Brown, 2007) untuk menilai capaian siswa dalam pembelajaran tersebut. Karena itu, pembinaan mentor dipandang sebagai salah satu alternative dalam membantu calon guru. Pembinaan mentor, seperti yang dikatakan oleh Nolan (2007) dalam Zepeda (2012, h. 165), adalah "proses terstruktur dimana seseorang yang berpengalaman mengenalkan, membantu, dan mendukung seseorang yang kurang berpengalaman dalam proses pertumbuhan kepribadian dan profesi." Dalam konteks kajian ini, orang berpengalaman mengacu pada guru atau dosen di kelas, dan yang kurang berpengalaman mengacu pada calon guru atau

mahasiswa keguruan. Kajian ini menggunakan metode penelitian tindakan kelas. Selain itu, data diperoleh dengan menyebarkan angket dan mengumpulkan RPP para calon guru juga wawancara. Ditambah lagi, setelah merancang RPP dengan teknik pembinaan mentor, para calon guru diminta untuk bercermin pada proses tersebut agar memperoleh persepsi mereka terhadap teknik pembinaan mentor. Penting untuk mencari tahu apa yang mereka pikirkan dan rasakan terhadap proses pembinaan mentor ini, karena diharapkan jenis pembinaan seperti ini akan bermanfaat dalam membantu para calon guru untuk menulis RPP yang tepat guna.

English in Indonesia is considered as a Foreign Language, and according to the government's directive, English is started to be taught as early as possible. Therefore, there will be many English teachers required in all levels of Education in Indonesia. In order to fulfill the need, Indonesia University of Education (UPI) provides their students, the pre-service teachers, with the necessary skills in teaching, and one of them is designing a lesson plan.

However, most pre-service teachers are confused with the designing process of lesson plan, that is how to articulate the government curriculum into operational details, and this condition leads the pre-service teachers to not having a confidence in implementing the lesson plan in their teaching practicum. Hence, helping them in the process of designing an effective lesson plan is expected to result in having the pre-service teachers gain more confidence, and mentor coaching is seen as one of alternatives.

It is believed that mentor coaching could be an effective way to help pre-service teachers to deal with problems that might occur during their process of learning (Onchwari, 2006, *Professional Experience Handbook*, 2012). The literature on mentoring or mentor coaching also revealed that the program can assist the development of the pre-service teachers (Smith, 2004; Onchwari, 2006; Brady & Broadbent, 2006; and Hudson and Nguyen, 2008) as well as improve their teaching (Huling and Resta, 2001).

Regarding the aforementioned issue, this paper reports on an action research that investigates the role of mentor coaching in helping pre-service teachers of English as a Foreign Language design lesson plans to prepare themselves in facing their teaching

practices and how they respond to the technique. This study was guided by the following questions as: 1) To what extent does a mentor coaching help pre-service teacher to design an effective lesson plan for an EFL Classroom? and 2) How do the pre-service teachers respond toward the mentor coaching technique?

Mentor coaching

Mentoring or mentor coaching has often been portrayed as an intentional, nurturing, instructive, and supportive activity in which a more experienced or more skilled person (the mentor) helps shape the growth and development of a less experienced or less skilled person (the protege) (Garvey, 2003; Brady & Broadbent, 2006; Onchwari, 2006; Nolan, 2007, cited in Zepeda, 2012; Hudson & Nguyen, 2008, and Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). In the context of this study, the experienced person or the mentor refers to the teacher/the lecturer in the class and the less-experienced person in this context refers to the pre-service teachers or teacher students.

Previous studies on mentoring have shown that mentoring plays an important role in supporting beginning teachers' growth and development. Smith (2004), for instance, examined the nature of staff-wide mentoring on pre-service teacher improvement. The result of the study indicated that although there are barriers, the pre-service teachers achieved desired intensive outcomes from the mentoring program. Other benefits in the partnership were also gained, such as the collegial support, the engagement of the resistant teachers, and intern experience with staff-wide mentoring.

Another more recent study was reported by Onchwari (2006), who explored the

effectiveness of mentor-coach initiative model in teacher professional development. It is found that the mentor-coach model received positive responses from the teachers.

In addition, Brady and Broadbent (2006) conducted a study in which they investigated the role of the academic mentor in secondary pre-service teacher education. They discover that both the academic mentor and the pre-service teacher gain the effectiveness of the experience in the mentoring program. Despite the problems occurred, the program provided the academic mentors “opportunity for self-reflection and they relished the chance to impart a passion for the discipline and for teaching itself” (p. 8). For the pre-service teachers, the mentoring program introduced them to the profession with the “mixture of idealism coupled with the reality” (p. 9).

Even though mentoring or mentor coaching is seen as an important element especially in supporting pre-service teacher into the field, it is evident from the literature that roles undertaken by mentors and mentees (pre-service teachers) in mentoring relationship are numerous, depending on the context and the goals to be achieved (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010, Leshem, 2012).

Furthermore, the definitions of mentoring or mentor coaching itself vary greatly. In fact, Amy (2001) argued that mentoring is different from coaching. She further explains that in mentoring, the protege listens and the mentor shares; while in coaching, the coachee talks and the coach listens or questions. In addition, Clutterbuck (1991, cited in Rhodes, Stokes & Hampton, 2004, p. 14) stated that mentoring includes coaching, facilitating, counseling, and networking. Therefore, to avoid ambiguity, in this paper the term mentor coaching and mentoring are used interchangeably.

Pre-service Teachers

According to Hudson and Nguyen (2008), pre-service teachers (mentees, term used by Hudson & Nguyen, 2008 and Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010, or protégés, term used by Gravey, 2003) are generally assigned to “an experienced mentor in the school for the period

of the practicum” (p. 1). In addition, EFL pre-service teachers are those who learn to teach English as a Foreign Language (henceforth, EFL) (Hudson & Nguyen, 2008).

In addition, although this has not always been the case, generally, literature on mentoring stereotypes mentors as “older, wiser, and more experienced persons and mentees as younger and less experienced persons” (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010, p. 44). In this study, the pre-service teachers refer to EFL student teachers who have no previous experience in teaching English.

In order to maximize the likelihood of a successful mentoring program, it also suggested that the pre-service teachers should seek feedback and listen to advice (Professional Experience Handbook, 2012). Also, Professional Experience Handbook (2012) suggests that pre-service teachers should be open-minded as well as reflective.

Lesson Plan

A lesson plan, as Farrell (2002) suggests is a collection or a summary of a teacher’s thoughts about what will be covered during a lesson. This means that before coming to the teaching process, a teacher should prepare systematic steps to be conducted in a class in order to reach the objective of a lesson. Furthermore, Jensen (n.d) emphasizes that lesson plan can be treated as a guideline for both novice teachers and experienced teacher since by designing a lesson plan, one will know what to do next in the class.

Action Research

Action research is a research that contains action and research outcomes at the same time, and aims to improve teaching and learning in the classroom (Kemmis and McTaggart, 1988). Ferrance (2000:1) also adds that action research is “a collaborative activity among colleagues searching for solutions to everyday, real problems experienced in schools, or looking for ways to improve instruction and student achievements”. Moreover, it has been suggested that one way to improve teaching and learning in schools or in any other

educational context is to involve teachers in conducting research in their own classroom (Levin and Rock, 2003).

METHOD

This research employed action research proposed by Ferrance (2000), which focused on single classroom issue. In conducting the action research, the study was guided by a movement through five phases of inquiry as suggested by Ferrance (2000), namely, identification of problem area, collection and organization of data, interpretation of data, action based on data, and reflection.

The whole data of this research were taken from questionnaire, pre-service teachers' lesson plans and interview. Here, multiple sources of data are used to better understand the situation happens in the classroom. As suggested by Ferrance (2000), the collection of data and the use of at least three sources (triangulation) of data serve as important steps in deciding what actions need to be taken. This section discusses the participants who were involved in this study. It also covers the data collection procedures to describe the process of data collection in detail.

The participants of this study were six university students in their seventh semester who were enrolled in an English Instructional Planning class at English Education Department in UPI. The participants were chosen as they have no previous experience in teaching English. In this study, the participants received on site support from the mentor coaching program. The mentor in the mentor coaching program refers to the teacher/the lecturer in the class.

One of data collection methods in this study was by collecting pre-service teachers' lesson plan. Furthermore, questionnaire was also distributed. The questionnaire consisted of a Likert scale with a total of 7 items. All the items on the questionnaire cover the aspects that deal with lesson plan. The aims of the questionnaire were to elicit the students' responses regarding the lesson plan. In addition, a semi-structured interview with the pre-service teachers was conducted to obtain

deeper information on their reflections about mentor coaching experience and to evaluate the success of the program. The interview questions deal with discovering the students' opinion of what has been done in the mentor coaching and the impact of the mentoring process on assisting the participants to design lesson plan. During the interview, both the questions being asked and the students' responses were recorded. There were eight open-ended questions and could be seen as follows:

1. What steps did you put on your first draft of lesson plan?
2. What changes have you made to the way you design the lesson plan?
3. Why did you do that?
4. How do the changes in your lesson plan influence your confidence as an English teacher to be?
5. How do you see a one-on-one consultation session?
6. What do you think of having this session, while others are working in group?
7. Do you think the changes in your lesson plan help the students get more understanding on the lesson?
8. What do you expect your students to be able to do after attending your lesson? Please explain.

After all the data were collected, they were analyzed by using descriptive qualitative analysis on the questionnaire and the interview. The data collected from the Likert-scale in the questionnaire were compiled and analyzed. Then, the responses from the interview were transcribed and analyzed. Finally, we triangulated information collected during and after the data were gathered from the various participants to confirm findings.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Mentor Coaching in Helping Pre-service Teachers to Design an Effective Lesson Plan

In relation to how the mentor coaching help pre-service teachers in designing an effective lesson plan, data gained from the documents

shows that all of them have made some changes in terms of format and the activities included in the lesson plan. These changes are made referring to the government's document which is published by BSNP (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan)/National Board of Education Standard. In addition, the pre-service students said that they came up with the idea of changing their lesson plan after they experienced the mentor coaching process. This statement is in line with what they state in answering the item in the questionnaire, "I get more knowledge in designing a lesson plan." Two of them said "I strongly agree" and four of them said, "I agree." The data show that all pre-service teachers (n=6) who are involved in this study think that having a mentor coaching technique in designing a lesson plan give them more knowledge. This is in line with what was stated by Brady and Broadbent (2006) in their report on their study on the same technique. The use of mentor coaching in facilitating pre-service teachers has resulted in a positive way.

In addition to the above statement, another positive way of having mentor coaching is changing the belief of those pre-service teachers in discussing how to design a lesson plan. They used to think that it was difficult to discuss the process of designing a lesson plan. According to the data from the questionnaire, they stated, "I can be more open in discussing my difficulties in designing a lesson plan." Furthermore, in an interview, they stated that having mentor coaching gave them an opportunity to share their confusion in designing a lesson plan. This situation is in line with what was proposed by Garvey (2003) and Hudson and Nguyen (2008), who acknowledge the role of the mentors as having such personal attributes as a more skillful person or knowledgeable, helpful, and friendly. These findings also support what have been stated by literature on mentoring (Garvey, 2003; Brady & Broadbent, 2006; Onchwari, 2006; Nolan, 2007, cited in Zepeda, 2012; Hudson & Nguyen, 2008; and Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010) that mentoring or mentor coaching should be intentional, nurturing, instructive, and supportive so that

it can support the growth and development of a less experienced or less skilled person.

Having experienced the mentor coaching technique, the pre-service teachers stated that they find this technique beneficial for them. It gives benefit in a way that they can gain useful feedback for their lesson plan (questionnaire item no 6) as well as have no worries about their peer opinion on their work (questionnaire item no 7).

Furthermore, these pre-service teachers mentioned in the interview that mentor coaching technique is very useful in gaining their confidence before they can really implement what they have planned in their lesson plan. In a similar vein, Smith (2004) stated that one of the beneficial results of mentor coaching is making their mentees or protégé gain collegial support.

CONCLUSION

Although this mentor coaching was conducted for a short period of time, the effects seem to be evident. This study has shown that having mentor coaching in helping the pre-service teachers design a lesson plan gives more benefit than not. The benefits for the pre-service teachers included gaining more knowledge, having opportunities to discuss difficulties, and receiving useful feedback. Apparently, this finding supports what has been suggested by Garvey (2003), Brady and Broadbent (2006), Onchwari (2006), Nolan (2007), cited in Zepeda (2012), Hudson and Nguyen (2008), and Ambrosetti & Dekkers, (2010) that mentoring or mentor coaching can support a less-experienced person (the pre-service teachers) in a personal and professional growth process. Also, this study has revealed that the pre-service teachers respond positively toward the mentor coaching as this program can provide them with feedback as well as make them feel confident as candidates of EFL teachers.

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FOLLOW-UP RESPONSES TO REFUSALS BY INDONESIAN LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract: The study is aimed at investigating strategies of follow-up responses to refusals performed by Indonesians learning English as a foreign language. Having known that his/her desire or want is refused by his/her hearer, a speaker may provide a follow-up response to the refusal to maintain the flow of a talk exchange. This act may also mitigate the tension and is able to prevent the speaker from being considered impolite or non-cooperative. The study involves 20 students of the English Education Department of Indonesia University of Education. The data were collected through Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs). The collected data were then analyzed by using the framework proposed by Searle (1969), Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), and Aziz (2000). It is found that the respondents manifest the follow-up responses in a number of ways, which can be categorized as request, acceptance, apology, promise, refusal, and passive comment. These responses contain some strategies. While the category of request and refusal are manifested in six and two strategies respectively, the categories of acceptance, apology, promise, and passive comment are not further divided into finer categories because they only consist of illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs). This study concludes that an act of providing a follow-up response cannot be separated from the speaker's attempt to maintain harmony in communication.

Keywords: follow-up response, speech act, refusal

Abstrak: Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengungkap strategi-strategi dari respon lanjutan terhadap tindak tutur menolak yang dilakukan oleh orang Indonesia pembelajar bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Setelah mengetahui bahwa hasrat atau keinginannya ditolak, penutur memberikan respon lanjutan terhadap tindak tutur menolak untuk memelihara alunan percakapan. Selain itu, respon lanjutan dapat mengurangi ketegangan dalam komunikasi dan mampu mencegah penutur dari kemungkinan dianggap tidak sopan atau tidak kooperatif. Penelitian ini melibatkan 20 mahasiswa Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris UPI. Data dikumpulkan melalui prosedur Angket Isian Wacana (AIW). Data terkumpul kemudian dianalisis dengan menggunakan kerangka dari Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), Searle (1969), dan Aziz (2000). Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa respon lanjutan terhadap tindak tutur menolak direalisasikan dengan beberapa cara dan dikategorikan ke dalam "menerima", "memohon maaf", "berjanji", "menolak", dan "komentar pasif". Kategori respon-respon tersebut mengandung beberapa strategi. Kategori "meminta" dan "menolak" dimanifestasikan masing-masing dalam enam dan dua strategi; kategori "menerima", "meminta maaf", "berjanji", dan "komentar pasif" tidak terbagi ke dalam strategi-strategi karena hanya mengandung Perangkat Pengunjuk Maksud Tututan (PPMT). Penelitian ini menyimpulkan bahwa tindak memberi respon lanjutan terhadap tuturan menolak tidak dapat dipisahkan dari upaya penutur untuk memelihara keharmonisan dalam komunikasi.

Katakunci: *follow-up response, speech act, refusal*

In the social context of communication, how people interact in daily life is often associated with self concept (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Conversation is the basic verbal interaction (Finegan, 1992, p. 315), therefore to some extent, people are concerned with how others perceive them and how others see their identity. For instance, in an activity of talking, it is possible if our initiation, be it an offer, request, suggestion, or invitation, is refused by our interlocutor. However, in such a situation, people may feel that to be refused is to publicly suffer a face loss.

Conversation is like a game. It has its organizations of such rules as taking turns to speak, giving responses, marking the beginning and end of conversation, and making correction. To fulfill the rules of the game, a speaker may perform a series of responses after acts of refusals were given. Although it is possible that the speaker loses face, he/she may still need to maintain the flow or the move of talk exchange. Moreover, a follow-up response to the refusal implies that the refusal is received as such.

The strategies of refusals, direct or indirect, used by the interlocutor will affect a speaker's responses. These strategies often function to show the recipient of the refusal that his/her concern is still attended to. Unfortunately, however, the interlocutor has necessary reasons to make a refusal.

There are basically a few studies so far conducted to investigate the acts of refusal (Sarfo, 2011; Felix-Brasdefer, 2006; Nelson, Batal, & Bakary, 2002; Aziz, 2000; Kitao, 1996; Chen, Ye, & Zhang, 1995; Ikoma & Shimura, 1993). However, little research has been carried out to study the follow-up responses to refusals. Thus, the study will examine the realizations of follow-up responses to refusals performed by Indonesians learning English as a foreign language. These realizations indeed need to be probed as they are closely connected with the ease of the conversation, the effectiveness of the communication exchange, level of politeness, and culture of speakers and hearers.

In a conversation, people are able to

converse with one another because they recognize common goals in conversation and specific ways of achieving the goals (Grice, 1975). The participants often go through certain rituals especially at the beginning and end. They follow the general formula 'give greeting, transact the business at hand, and issue a farewell' (Kess, 1992, p. 176). They are not supposed to simply leave the conversation, turn their backs, and just walk away unless they wish to be considered socially-inept or ill mannered. Both parties gain concurrently the same benefit without taking much risk.

In a conversation, the norm of reciprocity—the idea that one will receive the equivalent of what one gives, one is able to satisfy the needs of one's fellow conversant—operates as the guidance for successful verbal communication. It is evident that conversational actions tend to occur in pairs. Certain turns have specific follow-up turns associated with them. This is named adjacency pairs.

Adjacency pairs are utterance pairs consisting of two-part ritual exchanges in which an utterance by one speaker requires a particular type of response by the listener (Kess, 1992, p. 175). Given the first element of an adjacency pair, the second is expected (Schegloff, 1995). Questions take answers. Greetings and farewells typically call for another utterance of the same type. Invitations are returned by acceptances (or rejections); congratulations by thanks; offers by acceptance (or refusals), etc. Here are the examples of adjacency pairs.

[a] Question and answer

Speaker 1 : Where's the chocolate I bought last night?

Speaker 2 : In the freezer.

[b] Invitation and acceptance

Speaker 1: My sister will get married on Sunday, I'd really like you to come.

Speaker 2 : Sure!

[c] Offers and refusals

Speaker 1 : Can I help you Madam?

Speaker 2 : No, thanks. I'm just looking.

Like conversation, adjacency pairs also have their own structures. Finegan (1992, p. 320) partitioned an adjacency pair into three sequences. First, the two parts are adjacent and are produced by different speakers. The interaction will sound strange and can provoke anger if the speaker makes a statement before answering the question that has been fronted. Consequently, it causes a non-consecutive adjacency pairs.

- [d] Speaker 1 : Where's the chocolate I bought last night?
 Speaker 2 : They said that the thief of his house had been caught by the police last night.
 It's in the freezer.

Second, the two parts are ordered. In ordinary communication, a question cannot be preceded by an answer; an invitation cannot be accepted before it has been offered; a refusal cannot be performed before a request or an offer is uttered; a follow-up utterance cannot be produced prior to the initial utterance.

Third, the first and second parts must be aptly matched to avoid such odd exchanges as the following.

- [e] Speaker 1 : Do you want more tea?
 Speaker 2 : That's all right, you got my stomach better!

Follow-up responses to refusals investigated in this study have completed the structure of adjacency pairs especially the second sequence in which the two parts are ordered. The follow-up responses to refusals cannot be performed unless the refusals have been given.

The study of speech act has gained researchers' attention like Searle from (1969), Bach & Harnish (1979), and Allan (1986). The British philosopher, Austin (1962), was the first to draw attention to the study of interpersonal communication in relation to act. His basic assumption is that the minimal units of communication are not linguistic expressions, but rather the performance of certain kinds

of acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologizing, thanking, and so on. Therefore, when a speaker produces an utterance, intention will be his/her underlying purpose. Every time a speaker speaks, it is expected that there must be something accomplished by the act of speaking. This is the core of the speech act theory.

In a speech act analysis, the effect of utterances on the behavior of speakers and hearers can be distinguished from a threefold distinction (Austin, 1962). First, *the locutionary act* i.e. the utterance that is actually said by the speaker. Secondly, *the illocutionary act* describes the real intention of the speaker by saying a particular statement, offer, promise, etc. Thirdly, *the perlocutionary act* concerns the particular effect the speaker's utterance on the audience. Regarding this study, follow-up responses to refusals can be taken as *the perlocutionary act* of a refusal, which is in the form of utterances.

Since there are so many basic things speakers can do with language, the number of speech act must be limited in both scope and variety. Hence, taxonomy of speech acts must be created. Austin (1962) only listed five categories of speech acts: (1) *verdictives*, typified by the giving of evidence, reasons, or are evaluative of truth like acquit/calculate/describe; (2) *exercitives*, having to do with deciding or advocating particular actions like order/ direct/ nominate/appoint; (3) *commissives*, typified by committing the speaker to a particular action like promise/pledge/vow/swear; (4) *expositives*, a term used to elaborate the speaker's views like affirm/deny/emphasize/illustrate; (5) *behabitives*, providing reactions to the behavior of others like applaud/deplore/felicitate/ congratulate.

Searle (1979, p.10) argued that the most salient weakness in Austin's taxonomy is simply there is no clear principle of classification and there is a persistent confusion between illocutionary acts and illocutionary verbs. Therefore, Searle proposed an alternative taxonomy. His classification also has five classes of speech acts: (1) *assertives* is to

commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to the truth of the expressed proposition by using such verbs as suggest/swear/insist/state; (2) *directives*, refers to the attempt of the speaker to get the hearer to do something by using such verbs as ask/command/request/invite/advise; (3) *commissives* is to commit the speaker to some future course of action by using verbs like promise/guarantee/pledge/threaten; (4) *expressives* is to express the speaker's psychological state of affairs by using the expressive verbs like thank/congratulate/apologize/welcome; (5) *declarations* is to bring into reality the state of affairs noted in the propositional content of the declarative by using the verbs like appoint/declare/christen/name.

Speech acts are successful only if the rules of the acts are satisfied. For Searle (1969, p. 66), there are five rules that govern request-making. The first, *the propositional content rule*, is that the speaker predicates a future act of the hearer. The second and the third, *the preparatory rules*, require that while the speaker believes the hearer is able to do the act, the hearer is able to do the act. The fourth, *the sincerity rule*, requires the requester to intend to perform the act, that is the speaker wants the hearer to perform the act and the fifth, *the essential rule*, says that the uttering of words counts as an attempt to get the hearer to do the act.

To certain conditions, a speaker utters a sentence which meaning is not at the same way as its surface structure. For example, a speaker may utter the sentence "I want to do it" by way of requesting the hearer to do something. The utterance is incidentally meant as a statement, but it is also meant primarily as a request, a request which is made by way of making a statement. In such cases, the illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another. This is termed indirect speech acts (Searle, 1979, p.31]).

However, in another condition, the illocutionary acts of an utterance relatively gain no success. It is mostly due to the hearer's circumstances. In case of a refusal, the speaker's belief that the hearer is able to

perform the act is in fact biased. The speaker's attempt to get the hearer to do something results a failure which is obviously observed from the hearer's statement of unwillingness or inability. Previous studies on the acts of refusals will say more about this.

The acts of refusals have gained many attentions from many researchers including for examples American English refusals (Felix-Brasdefer, 2006), British refusals (Kitao, 1996), Chinese refusals (Chen, Ye, & Zhang, 1995), Japanese refusals (Ikoma & Shimura, 1993), Arabic refusals (Nelson, Batal, & Bakary, 2002), and Indonesian refusals (Aziz, 2000). These researchers have successfully revealed the strategies of politeness in expressing a refusal.

In Indonesia, the study of refusals was inspired by the trend of Indonesians who do not speak openly, are rarely frank, prefer to express their feelings, thoughts and ideas indirectly and such manners have made the non-Indonesian speakers regard it as a sign of uncooperativeness and impoliteness (Aziz, 2000). Aziz (2000, p. 76) views refusals as the acts that show one's inability and unwillingness to perform the request uttered by the requester for some reason, regardless of whether it is expressed sincerely or insincerely. To a certain extent, the characteristics of Indonesian refusals are similar to those of Japanese refusals.

Considering the factors like gender, age, setting, social distance, power, ranking of imposition, and the seriousness of losing face from the utterances revealed by 163 respondents, Aziz (2000, p. 76) successfully revealed 12 strategies of refusing in Indonesian. However, to limit the nature and variety of the follow-up responses given to refusals, only four strategies—the far more preferred ones, are chosen as the initiations to fulfill the objectives of the present study: 'direct no', 'giving reason and explanation', 'offer an alternative', and 'general acceptance with excuse' strategies.

1) Direct no

This is a blunt refusal. To show inability or unwillingness to cooperate with hearers,

the speaker directly and explicitly says 'no'. Aziz (2000, p. 81) stated that in the Indonesian language, an explicit refusal is always marked by negator 'no' followed by other supportive moves such as modal auxiliaries 'want', 'can', 'maybe', etc.

2) Giving reason and explanation

This is an implicit or indirect refusal. The speaker, in some cases, makes the point of being verbose and this shows that the speaker appears to be vague in his/her refusal. Therefore, the interlocutor has to wait until the final word of the speaker before he/she concludes that the speaker actually intends to refuse the request. Expression [f] shows this.

[f] Today, I'm very busy. I've got a lot of orders, you know. Orders for a birthday party; for a wedding celebration; for a thanksgiving gathering and so on.

3) Offer an alternative

The speaker decides to offer an alternative to his/her interlocutor when the speaker regards the interlocutor's request as being in need of immediate realization but the speaker has already committed to complying with his/her own planned schedule. By this strategy, the speaker intends to save both the speaker's and hearer's face. Expression [g] illustrates this.

[g] How about if we discuss it next week?

4) General acceptance with excuse

The speaker is unable to fulfill the request because he/she has the previous commitment. However, in expressing his/her inability, the speaker seems to have accepted the interlocutor's request by expressing a feeling of sympathy or giving appreciation to the interlocutor's request but for some reasons, he/she eventually negates it. This is illustrated in [h].

[h] I really understand your condition but I'm very sorry because there are other students who will rent this room if you don't pay until 12-tomorrow afternoon.

METHODS

The present study is largely qualitative. The research is conducted at the English Education Department of Indonesia University of Education of which 20 students are selected to be the subjects by using judgment sampling method (Milroy, 1987).

Two different procedures employed in collecting data for this research are questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire, which is in the form of Discourse Completion Test (DCT), contains a number of situations involving a speaker and his/her interlocutor. For every situation, the respondents are supposed to fill in the blank space by giving follow-up responses to the refusals. Below is the example of the DCT.

Situation #1 : Your students association presents a bazaar and you are responsible for one of the kiosks. As you've promised to pick up your younger sister in bus station, you ask your female friend to shift your job. In such a situation, it seemed that she wasn't interested in helping you. She said, "I can't!" What will you say to her?

You :

The other procedure is interviews with selected respondents. The interview was conducted in respondents' first language, that was Indonesian, to make them more comfortable in expressing their ideas or opinions towards the questions of interview.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Follow-up responses to refusals are classified into six categories: (1) request, (2) acceptance, (3) apology, (4) refusal, (5) promise, and (6) passive comment. The distribution of their occurrences is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Categories of follow-up responses to refusals

Categories	Follow-up Responses to Refusals	Total	%
1	Request	97	40.42
2	Acceptance	118	49.17
3	Apology	5	2.08
4	Refusal	16	6.66
5	Promise	1	0.42
6	Passive comment	3	1.25
Total Responses		240	100

The table shows that the follow-up responses to refusals that appear most are acceptance, followed by request. The following sections discuss each follow-up response in detail.

a. **Category 1: request**

Basically, a request according to Trosborg (1995, p. 187) is “an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for benefit of the speaker.” In natural conversation, the request may take place in the immediate time (request-now) or at some later stage (request-then). The request in this study is “the request-then”—the second request which is given after the stage of refusal has been run.

The request functioning as a follow-up response to a refusal is performed when a speaker wants to persuade a hearer to carry out the desired act. It is considered as the second attempt of the speaker after his/her first attempt to get the hearer to perform the act fails, as evidenced in the refusal. Based on the degree of directness, the study identifies the following strategies of request as a response to a refusal (based on Blum-Kulka, et al, 1989, pp. 288-289).

1) *Mood derivable*

This strategy is usually in imperative form and the request is determined by its illocutionary force which is indicated by the grammatical mood of the locution. This is exemplified in [i].
 [i] Please, *help me explain it!*
 (a follow-up response from a junior to his senior’s refusal to explain semantics material, situation #2)

2) *Explicit performative*

The speaker conveys the request by naming explicitly the illocutionary intent of the locution using a relevant illocutionary verb. This is exemplified in [j].

[j] Hey ... that would be too late. You can watch that cartoon every week. *I only ask you* today.

(A follow-up response from an elder sister to her younger sister’s refusal to accompany her to the supermarket, situation #9)

3) *Suggestory formulae*

The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula. Example [k] illustrates this category.

[k] Well, we are all busy now. I can understand that. But *what about five or three pages*, please.

(A follow-up response from an elder sister to her younger sister’s refusal to accompany her to the supermarket, situation #9)

4) *Preparatory*

The speaker questions the presence of the chosen preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request, willingness, or possibility as conventionalized in the given language. This is shown in [l].

[l] *Can you* give it to my friend living beside your boarding room?

(A follow-up responses from a senior to a junior’s refusal to return the books to the library, situation #12)

5) *Strong hint*

The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution but the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or propositional act. This is exemplified in [m].

[m] Mm .. who will go to campus?

(A follow-up response from a senior to her junior’s refusal to return the books to the library, situation #12)

6) *Want statement*

The utterance expresses the speaker’s desire that the event denoted in the proposition comes about. The example will be [n].

[n] Please ... I need your help. I’ve to pick up my sister. She is waiting for me in the bus station.

(A follow-up response from a friend to his male friend’s refusal to shift the job, situation #1)

material, situation #3)

[p] OK, Maam. I hope my parents sent the allowance before 12 tomorrow afternoon.

(A follow-up response from a boarder to his landlord’s refusal to postpone the payment of boarding house, situation #11)

In the examples above, the illocutionary force indicating devices (IFIDs) used to mark an explicit or a direct acceptance are *that’s all right* and *OK*. Other devices are *it doesn’t matter*, *never mind*, and *no problem*.

c. **Category 3: apology**

While a hearer makes a refusal, the speaker realizes that he/she has penetrated on the hearer’s sphere of privacy which may offend the hearer. The state of unwillingness or inability provided by the hearer has proved this. The apology executed is concerned specifically with repairing damage to face, where face preservation itself becomes the object of the conversation for a time, however short (Owen, 1983 cited in Trosborg, 1995, p.374). By doing so, the equilibrium between speaker and the addressee can be restored. Expression [q] illustrates this.

[q] *I am sorry to bother you*. And I will try to borrow it from another person.

(A follow-up response from a senior to a younger girl to correct the FRS, situation #5)

Tabel 2 Distribution of request strategies

No.	Request Strategies	Total	%
1.	Mood derivable	53	54.64
2.	Explicit performative	4	4.12
3.	Suggestory formula	5	5.16
4.	Preparatory	24	27.74
5.	Strong hint	5	5.16
6.	Want statement	6	6.18
Total Responses		97	100

b. **Category 2: acceptance**

After the hearer executes a refusal, the speaker may make an acceptance as a follow-up response to a refusal when he/she finds the hearer is unable or unwilling to fulfill the speaker’s request because of his/her prior commitment. In this case, the speaker cannot force the hearer as he/she finds very little chance that the hearer can satisfy his/her wants. Implicitly, this strategy is intended to save both the speaker’s and hearer’s faces, as exemplified in [o] and [p].

[o] *That’s all right*. I’ll ask somebody else.

(A follow-up response from a junior to his senior’s refusal to explain the semantics

d. **Category 4: refusal**

Having received the refusal from the hearer, the speaker may also respond it with a refusal. The speaker employs this strategy since he/she feels unwilling or unable to accept the hearer’s refusal regarded to his/her condition. Specifically, the refusal functioning as the follow-up response to a refusal is delivered mostly when the initiation used is the ‘offer an alternative’ strategy of refusal. In the realization, the refusal can be performed in such ways as direct and indirect. Examples [r] and [s] exemplify this.

[r] *No, it's not necessary.* Thanks.
(A follow-up response from a girl to her boyfriend's refusal to pick her up. Instead of directly saying no, the boy offers his younger brother to pick her up. Situation #8)

[s] I'm sorry but I can't go out this evening.
It will be hard for me. *How about tomorrow around 1 pm?*

(A follow-up response from a junior to her senior's refusal to discuss mini research. Being unable to come tomorrow evening for the discussion, the senior offers another alternative. Situation #7)

Example [r] is categorized into direct refusal as the speaker explicitly refused the hearer's alternative by using negator 'No'. Expression [s] is categorized into indirect refusal, as instead of using the negator 'No', the speaker offers the hearer another alternative. Both are the strategies of refusals. Table 3 presents their distribution

Table 3 Distribution of refusal strategies

No.	Refusal Strategies	Total	%
1.	Direct No	4	40
2.	Offer an alternative	6	60
Total		10	100

e. Category 5: promise

In this category of follow-up responses to refusals, the speaker is committing him/herself to do a certain act to make the hearer change his/her decision. This category is considered the speaker's negotiation with the hearer. To show that the speaker wants to cooperate with the hearer and to make the hearer believe the promise, the speaker provides some evidence. This is illustrated in example [t]

[t] Oh ... please just his time. I promise I won't bother you next time.
(A follow-up response from a friend to her female friend's refusal to shift a job, situation #1)

f. Category 6: passive comment

In response to the initiations, some respondents

provided passive comments. They only said 'nothing'; 'I won't say anything'; or even kept the space blank (giving no response). Such responses are categorized into passive comments. By conducting the interview to selected respondents, the reasons why they chose the passive comments were revealed. First, the respondents considered it indeed unnecessary to give responses to the description in the DCT. This was simply because they had already understood enough about the condition enforcing the refusals to be executed. Secondly, the respondents chose not to provide the comment because the description of situation in the DCT was not in accordance with his/her belief. Lastly, being upset or desperate that his/her requests were refused, the respondents chose not to make a response (see [4Int7]). This may be interpreted as manifesting harmony between the speaker and hearer. In other words, the passive comment is considered as the speaker's attempt not to prolong the conversation to avoid conflict that probably occurs due to the act of refusal.

Data from interviews showed that to a refusal described in situation #9 (a follow-up response from an elder sister to her younger sister's refusal to accompany her to a supermarket), a respondent claimed as follows.

[4Int.2] *Udahlah minum aja yang ada di rumah, ngerti dong dia kan lagi sibuk.*

'Just drink whatever is available. Please understand that he is busy.'

On the other hand, data from interviews regarding situation #6 (a follow-up response from a student to her lecturer's refusal to examine a research proposal), a respondent claimed that she felt very hopeless and powerless, because there is nothing that can be done to respond to her lecturer's refusal to examine a research proposal.

[4Int.7] *Kayaknya sudah gak bisa ngapa-ngapain dan kalau ngomong pun kayaknya bakalan gak ngaruh*

'It seems there's nothing that can be done and it will likely give no result.'

The distribution of each category of responses: discussion

An analysis of the total of 240 responses reveals that the responses are distributed unevenly for each category of follow-up responses (see Table 4). The trend of the distribution in which the occurrence of the ‘acceptance’ strategy (49.17%) far exceeds that of other strategies is not very surprising. This suggests that to a certain extent, most speakers will employ the ‘acceptance’ strategy when they are confronted with a circumstance where the conversation cannot be extended. It is possible that an extended conversation can lead to a jumbled talk, which may provoke a conflict in communication. In view of that, to accept the refusal may result in conversation ending but this does not necessarily mean communication breakdowns. Although it may cause the speakers to be upset, they still give responses. This suggests that they still preserve politeness and maintain the norm of adjacency pairs. Expression [u] shows this.

[u] Oh, that’s OK. I’ll ask someone else.
(A follow-up response from a senior to a younger girl’s refusal to correct the academic record form, situation #5)

Being in a hurry, the girl—a stranger, refused the speaker’s request to lend him a pencil and an eraser to correct the academic record form by saying “Sorry, I’m in a rush”.

The girl refused it since she knew that the process of correcting the form could take times that she cannot wait. Utterance [u] was made because the speaker realized that the hearer was unable to satisfy his request. The speaker cannot impose the girl to lend him those things, as she is a stranger; otherwise, he will be considered impolite. Further, the speaker immediately shows his commitment by mentioning another person that may be able to comply with his request, although at that time he does not know exactly who will be available. In such a condition, it is likely that the ‘solution’ presented by the speaker is not sincerely given but rather a spontaneous act to maintain the speaker’s image. By so doing, the negative face of the hearer is preserved.

Table 4 Distribution of each category of follow-up responses to refusals

Categories	Strategies	Total	%
REQUEST	1) Mood derivable	53	22.08
	2) Explicit performatives	4	1.67
	3) Suggestory formula	5	2.08
	4) Preparatory	24	10.00
	5) Strong hint	5	2.08
	6) Want statement	6	2.50
<i>Request Subtotal</i>		<i>97</i>	<i>40.41</i>
ACCEPTANCE	7) Acceptance	118	49.17
APOLOGY	8) Apology	5	2.08
REFUSAL	9) Direct no	5	2.08
	10) Offer an alternative	11	4.58
<i>Refusal Subtotal</i>		<i>16</i>	<i>6.66</i>
PROMISE	11) Promise	1	0.43
PASSIVE COMMENT	12) Passive comment	3	1.25
Total Responses		240	100

Other attempts made by a speaker to show that he/she managed to preserve the face of the interlocutor are by providing gratitudes (i.e. *thank you*), expressing sympathy (e.g. *I*

quite understand), stating speaker’s wishes (*I hope ...*), or apologizing (*Sorry for bothering you*). Expression [v] illustrates this.

[v] OK, thanks anyway.

(A follow-up response from a senior to her junior's refusal to return her books to the library, situation #12)

Due to a time constraint, the speaker asked her friend to return some books to the campus library. In fact, she could not help the speaker because at the same time she had to attend a seminar in another campus (situation #12). The speaker responded by making an acceptance accompanied by thanking. The act of thanking is intrinsically polite and takes the form of positive politeness. However, the sincerity condition of this act is not fulfilled. Basically, a speaker expresses a gratitude for the hearer's participation in the past action which was beneficial to the speaker (Searle, 1969). Meanwhile, a gratitude in example [v] does not reflect this condition. It is merely an empty utterance which functions as a way to maintain the social relationship.

In another case, where the acceptance is conveyed explicitly, the speaker is apt to accompany his/her acceptance with statement of wishes which indicates that he/she still expects the interlocutor's willingness to assure his/her requests. This circumstance conveys a contradictory fact that the speaker on the one hand accepts the refusal but he/she on the other hand states a wish or an expectation to the hearer to fulfill the speaker's request. This suggests that there is a tendency of the speaker not to fully accept the refusal. The acceptance is best functioned as a way to preserve the speaker's image. Thus, the insincerity lessens the essential condition of the acceptance into a merely empty utterance. This is shown in [w].

[w] It doesn't matter, but I hope you read my research proposal as soon as possible, because I want to finish my research soon.

(A follow-up responses from a student to her lecturer's refusal to examine a research proposal, situation #6)

The analysis further revealed that the 'request' category (40.42%) is perceived among other categories as the second-preferred categories of follow-up responses

to refusals. It seems that the speakers tended to deliver the request simply because they were not satisfied with the result of the first executed request. Basically, it is humane for the speaker to have his desires or wants satisfied by the hearer. However, it is a matter of self-centeredness that every request must be fulfilled. Example [x] shows an utterance given by a boy to his friend's refusal to help him to finish the translation orders (situation #4).

[x] Come on, help me out, will you? I'm your best friend and you don't do it for free.

The utterance above was viewed as another attempt addressed by the speaker for request compliance. To increase the degree of compliance, therefore, the speaker minimizes a cost and maximizes a support to the hearer. Initially, the speaker attracts the hearer's attention by alerting the words 'come on'. By using an imperative form (strategy #1), the speaker tries to deliberately point out what he wants the interlocutor to do. The tag "will you?" indicates that the speaker tones down the impact on the hearer in order that the hearer becomes more cooperative. Lastly, the expression of sympathy is uttered to get the hearer's commitment. Promise of rewards is provided to strengthen the attempt of the speaker to minimize the cost to the hearer. By so doing, compliance can be expected.

Some respondents used a preparatory strategy to persuade the hearer to carry out the desired act after the refusal had been given. This is exemplified in [y].

[y] Can you help me for a moment, please? I will not ask you if I'm not so tired.

(A follow-up response from an elder sister to her younger brother's refusal to buy her something to drink, situation #2)

The speaker reduces the impositive force by uttering understater 'for a moment'. The phrase 'for a moment' was used only after the repeated request to buy something to drink failed. When an understater is used, the degree of imposition has also been lowered (Trosborg,

1995, p. 213). The politeness marker ‘please’ in the utterance above indicates that the speaker still asks for his interlocutor’s attention that he still needs the interlocutor’s help. On the other hand, the marker ‘please’ softens the force of the request. The speaker provides a supporting statement to explain a plausible condition of the speaker. It is expected that the hearer may be more willing to comply with the request. Within the category of request, the proportion gained by strategy #1 (Mood derivable) and strategy #4 (Preparatory), 22.08% and 10% respectively, exceeds the occurrence of other responses. This suggests that both strategies are perceived to potentially lead the request to be a success. Strategy #1 seems to be powerful to enforce the interlocutor to fulfill the speaker’s wants for its imperative forms (on-record) while strategy #4 seems to be less demanding because it employs a polite request (off-record). Both are completely contrastive. According to Trosborg (1995, p. 207), “Structures employing verbs like *need* and *want* are more difficult to refuse than structures employing verbs with a less demanding (and more polite) lexical meaning.” ‘Want statement’ strategy (2.50%) was also used to respond to a refusal by which the speaker explicitly expressed his/her desire, as exemplified in expression [z].

[z] Please ... I need your help. I’ve to pick up my sister. She is waiting for me in bus station.

(A follow-up response from a friend to her female friend’s refusal to shift a job, situation #1)

The speaker increases the imposition of the request. The marker ‘please’ indicates that the speaker pleads for compliance. Trosborg (1995, p. 202) explicated that “want-statements are normally impolite in their unmodified form. If they are softened by ‘please’ or some other mitigating devices, they may take on the character of pleading.” In addition, the plausible reason provided by the speaker in the request allows the hearer to be cooperative with her.

Although in a lower occurrence,

‘suggestory formula’ (2.08%), ‘strong hint’(2.08%) and ‘explicit performative’ (1.67%) categories are also used by the respondents to respond to the refusals. Examples [aa], [ab], and [ac] respectively illustrate these strategies.

[aa] Well, we are all busy now. I can understand that. What about five or three pages, please?

(A follow-up response from a friend to his friend’s refusal to help him finish the translation orders, situation #4)

[ab] Mmm ... who will go to campus?

(A follow-up response from a senior to her junior’s refusal to return her books to the library, situation #12)

[ac] Hey ... that would be too late. You can watch that cartoon every week. I only ask you today.

(A follow-up response from an elder sister to her younger sister’s refusal to accompany her to the supermarket, situation #9)

In example [aa], the speaker managed to place him/herself in the hearer’s position. It is a way to maximize support to the hearer in order that the hearer is willing to comply with the speaker’s request. The speaker expected that by offering a suggestion which was obviously lower in cost, the hearer could be more cooperative.

As example [ab] illustrates, the speaker began the utterance with a hesitation filler ‘Mmm’. Such a filler is likely to indicate the appearance of a dispreferred response (Finegan, 1992, p. 321). However, the hesitation is still viewed as the speaker’s attempt to preserve politeness. Meanwhile, plausible reasons were given by the speaker (example [ac]) to begin her attempt to make the hearer be more cooperative. The downtoner ‘only’ was likely to be effective to minimize the cost to the hearer.

The ‘refusal’ category is also revealed as the follow-up responses to refusals. The speaker responded by refusal again when he/she feels unwilling or unable to accept the interlocutor’s refusal. Mostly, this response emerges when

the initiation used is 'offer an alternative'. The following example, which was uttered by a girl to her boyfriend's refusal to pick her up, illustrates this. Unable to pick up his girlfriend, the boy offered his younger brother to pick her up (Situation #8).

[ad] No, no don't send your brother to pick me up. If you're so busy then I'll come to your house.

[ae] If you've got lots of things to do, I think I will visit you another time or you can see me if you go to Bandung some day.

The speaker in example [ad] stated the refusal by explicitly saying 'no'. She accompanied her 'direct no' with a supporting statement of sympathy by which the politeness would not be violated. As example [ae] illustrates, the speaker indirectly refused the alternative offered by the hearer, instead she provided another sympathetic offer.

'Promise' and 'apology' categories respectively seem to be the least preferred categories among other categories to be used as the follow-up responses to refusals. These categories are not further divided into finer categories because they only consist of IFIDs. Furthermore, both categories are only occasionally used as supportive statements for the 'request' or 'acceptance' category. These are exemplified in [af] and [ag].

[af] I beg you please ... please, give me an extension again. I promise when my parents send me money I will give it to you directly.

(A follow-up response from a boarder to his landlord's refusal to postpone the payment of boarding house, situation #11)

[ag] Ah, all right Mam. Sorry to bother you. (A follow-up responses from a student to her lecturer's refusal to examine a research proposal, situation #6)

The promise executed in example [af] demonstrates that the imposition of the request was high. It is considered the strong attempt to

minimize the cost and maximize the support to the hearer. Meanwhile, the apology in example [ag] is considered an empty utterance because its function was merely to save the speaker's face and placate the hearer. However, in case of the above utterance, it was not necessary for the speaker to express the apology. Basically, an apology serves to express regret on the part of the speaker at having performed or failed to perform a prior action which has negative consequences for the hearer. Thus, the apology in the above utterance was only a social routine functioning to maintain the social relationship.

CONCLUSION

This study reveals 12 strategies of follow-up responses to refusals. They are mood derivable, explicit performative, suggestory formula, preparatory, strong hint, want statement, acceptance, apology, direct no refusal, offer an alternative, promise, and passive comments. These strategies are developed under six categories of follow-up responses to refusals: request, acceptance, apology, refusal, promise, and passive comment. This study revealed that the two most preferred strategies of follow-up responses to refusals are acceptance and request strategies. This study suggests that accepting a refusal is the most-preferred solution to maintain social relationship. However, when the speaker employs an acceptance strategy, the conversation may end. Meanwhile, when a request is used, the conversation will be prolonged. In the context of politeness, the follow-up responses can be taken as a manifestation of a face-saving act.

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SUBJECT INDEX

- Academic Business English
acceptability judgment tasks
accountability
accuracy
achievement
activity zone
affective attitudes
agency
ambiguity
analysis of moment structures
argument
assessment
assistant language teacher
attitude
attitudes
authenticity
backgrounding
Bangla
blended learning
blended learning
broadcast mode
CALL
captions
case study
Checkpoint,
children's literature
Chinese National Knowledge Inf
circumstantial elements
clause structure
coda
code-switching
communicative attitudes
communicative language teachin
community-of-practice perspect
competency
complement position
complexity
complicating action
computer mediated communicatio
conceptions
confidence strengthening
conjunctions
conjunctive adjuncts
connotative meaning
conscious participation
constructive effects
constructivism
context and culture
contextual teaching and learni
contextual teaching and learni
course theories
critical discourse analysis
description
dialectical relationship
digital immigrants
digital natives
digital pedagogy
discourse analysis
discourse analysis
dominance
e-learning,
ecological framework
employability skills
English grammar
English proficiency
English-only policy
entry-level employability skil
ethnography
evaluation
evaluative devices
examination-oriented education
experiential learning
F2F (face-to-face)
feedback
fieldwork
fluency
foregrounding
foreign language activities
Foreign language teaching and
form
formative assessment
framing
free clauses
full transfer/full access
functional components,
G-TELP test
genre
genre pedagogy
genre-based teaching and learn
global literacy skills
goal/affected
goals

grammar-translation method
group assessment
head
headlines
hedging
hedging devices
hegemony
home room teachers
humanistic spirit
ICT (Information and Communica
ideational
identity
ideology
implemented curriculum
improvement
informal learning
instructional acts
instructional decision-making
Instrumental Orientation
integration
Integrative Orientation scale
intercultural orientation
interdisciplinary
intermediate-level workforce
interpersonal
interpersonal themes
interpreting ideas
intersubjective
intersubjectivity
intertextuality
interview question
interviewing style
interviews
involvement strategies
iZone's approach
key journals.
Labovian tradition
language change
language evolution
language features
learning objectives
lexico-grammatical choices
lexis
limited users of English”
lingua franca
linguistic items
linguistic resources
literacy-based approach
literature
logical form
long-term memory
long-term working memory,
macrolinguistic elements
mandated curriculum
marked topical
meaning
meaning and form
medium of instruction
memory threshold
metafunction
millennial generation
moderate roles
moral development
moral knowledge
moral values
morality
motivation
multi-modally
multi-tasking
multimodality
multiple focus features
multiple Intelligence
multiple interrogatives
multiple interrogatives
MyiZoneLab
narrative clauses
news photographs
no parameter resetting hypothe
nominal groups
nominalization
non-native teachers
novice teachers
object
Old English
one language only
online labs
open-ended questions
opinion articles
opinion pages
orders of signification
ordinary journals
orientation
orientation,
parameter resetting hypothesis
participants
passivisation
pedagogical task
people around a learner

people's voice
personal characteristics
phases of writing development
photogenia
portfolio
pose
postmodifier
power
power abuse
power elites
Prabhu's Bangalore project.
premodifier
presentation-based approach
process-oriented pedagogy
processing time
professional development
grammatical level
proper tolerance
propositions
public opinions,
PWP (pre-task phase, while-tas
qualitative method
quantitative method
random ordering
REACT
real life related activities
receptive knowledge
reductionistic views
reflective teaching
rephrasing terms
report
response-soliciting patterns
result/resolution
review
productive knowledge
scaffold"
school accountability
school-based textbooks
screen generation
self-administered written ques
self-centered
self-related difficulties
semiotics
September 11th 2001,
sequence of tasks
short-term working memory
social constructivism
social practice
socio-educational model
sociocultural analysis
spoken telling
structural equation modeling
structure
student accountability
student teachers,
student worksheets
student-related difficulties
summative assessment
supervising teachers
supervising-teacher-related di
supervisors,
synonymy
systematic training
systemic-functional grammar
target tasks
task design
task features,
task-based language teaching
task-based reading task-based
task-based testing
task-based writing
tasks and task performance
teacher development
teacher learning
teaching difficulties
teaching practicum
teaching practicum
teaching writing
techno-pedagogy
terror
terrorism
textual
textual analysis
thematization
theme position
theme/rheme
topical
traditional language testing
trick effects
uniqueness hypothesis
variation of complexity
variationist approach
visual
vitality of English
vocabulary learning
weak-version of TBLT
webliography
webogogy

webpages
Wh-movement
wiktionary
working memory
written discourse
written media discourse
written telling.
Zoom in!

AUTHOR INDEX

- Adachi, R.
Aitchison, J.
Al-Jarf, S. J.
Alebaikan, R.
Ames, C.
Anderson, L.
Auerbach, E. R.
Austin, J.R.
Barthes, R.
Beaugrande, R.
Bell, A.
Bernaus, M.
Berns, R.
Bhatia, V.
Black, P.
Bonnie, D.
Borg, S.
Boston, C.
Burns, A.
Candlin, C.
Chandler, D.
Crawford, L. M.
Creswell, J. W.
Crompton, P.
Crooks, G.
Crystal, D.
Dahl, R.
Darling-Hamond, L.
Davey, I.
Derewianka, B.
Dörnyei, Z.
Dudeney, G.
Eggins, S.
Ekman, P.
Ellis, R.
Emilia, E.
Enkvist, N. E.
Erickson, P.
Ericsson, K. A.
Fairclough, N.
Farrel, T. S.
Gardner, R.C.
Gardner, R.C.
Gebhard, J. G.
Genesee, F.
Gibbons, P.
Gibbs, J. C.
Grebenyova, L.
Guthrie, J. T.
Halliday, M. A. K.
Halliday, M.A. K.
Hargreaves, E.
Harmer, J.
Hasan, R.
Hawkins, R.
Hodge, R.
Holt-Reynolds, D.
Huang, Y. P.
Ishihama, H.
Jandt, F. E.
Jeffrey, F. C.
Johnstone, B.
Jorgensen, M.
Kachru, B.
Kanade, T.
Kendall, D.
Kintsch, W.
Kirkpatrick, A.
Kress, Gunther
Kristeva, J.
Labov, W.
Lin, H.X.
Littlewood, W.
Lockhart, C.
Lohman, M. C.
Martin, J.R.
Martohardjono, G.
Masgoret, A.-M.
Matthiessen M.I.M.
Meredith, R.
Met, M.
Meyer, M.
Mikkelson, N.
Murray, D. E.,
Nation, P.
Nunan, D.
Paltridge, B.
Pesetsky, D.
Phillips, L.
Polanyi, L.
Prensky, M.
Richards, J.

Richards, J. C.
Salager-Mayer.
Schmidt, R.
Schwartz
Shaoqian, L.
Shohamy, E.
Skehan, P.
Snow, M.A.
Soemarmo.
Sprouse, R.A.
Stoyanova, M.
Suranyi, B.
Talja, S.
Tannen, D.
Thompson, G.
Thompson, S. R.
Tian, Y.
Tollefson, J. W
Tsao, J. X
Tsui, A. B. M.
Van Dijk, T.A
van Lier, L.
Vispoel, W.P.
Vygotsky, L.S
William, D
Winfrey, O.
Wodak, R.
Woolf, N. H.
Yule, G.