A THIRD WAY: ONLINE LABS INTEGRATED WITH PRINT MATERIALS

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Abstract: This paper discusses the use of ICT in blended learning, where digital materials in language education enhance print-based classroom instruction. By way of illustration it introduces iZone, a print-digital series designed around a lab integrated with its accompanying textbook, making the face-to-face classroom and the online lab an interdependent whole. Advances in computer technology help to overcome the limitations of classroom-only instruction, and the third way referred to here is one that delivers unified content through different media, neither purely online nor just in class. Advantages to this approach include greater learner autonomy and flexibility, with choice of time, place and manner of studying, and also a more participatory learning style. Ultimately, what is envisioned is more effective and more efficient use of time and energy which each individual devotes to study and learning needs. Integrated and interconnected study programmes may help to harness the potential of technological developments in language education.

Keywords: ICT (Information and Communications Technology), blended learning, online labs, F2F (face-to-face), integration.

Abstrak: Makalah ini membahas penggunaan ICT (Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi) dalam pembelajaran terpadu, yang di dalamnya materi digital dalam pendidikan bahasa meningkatkan pengajaran di ruang kelas yang berbasis materi cetak. Melalui ilustrasi, makalah ini memperkenalkan iZone, rangkaian digital cetak yang dirancang di laboratorium yang terintegrasi dengan buku teks, menjadikan tatap muka di kelas terpadu dengan laboratorium daring (online). Kemajuan dalam teknologi komputer membantu mengatasi keterbatasan pengajaran yang hanya di kelas saja, dan cara ketiga yang ditawarkan di sini menyuguhkan bahan yang terpadu melalui beraneka media, tidak hanya daring saja atau di kelas saja. Manfaat-manfaat pendekatan ini termasuk otonomi dan fleksibilitas pelajar yang lebih besar terhadap pilihan waktu, tempat dan cara belajar, dan juga gaya belajar yang lebih melibatkan siswa. Pendekatan ini terutama mencoba untuk mencapai penggunaan waktu dan tenaga yang lebih efektif dan efisien yang seorang individu curahkan untuk belajar kebutuhan belajarnya. Program belajar yang terpadu dan saling terhubung bisa membantu memanfaatkan potensi perkembangan teknologi dalam pendidikan bahasa.

Katakunci: ICT (Teknologi Informasi dan Komunikasi), pembelajaran terpadu, laboratorium daring, tatap muka, integrasi.

INTRODUCTION

The ideas presented here discuss ways to apply ICT in language education when and where necessary. Towards this end, it is hard to escape from the necessity to treat all materials at our disposal equally, both digital and print, as fully integrated components of a single course at the design stage. Like any other mode of language instruction, blended learning must be high quality, and its appeal rests on technological advances permitting a hitherto unknown level

of integration in a package that by virtue of its structure supports and reinforces learning. The paper begins with a discussion of the concept of blended learning, and then outlines how it may work in the language classroom. It situates blended learning in the context of its significance to ELT and demonstrates how it is relevant for matching educational needs, goals and outcomes to the current generation of students. ICT in education needs to satisfy both instructors and the changing expectations of learners, what is termed the Millennial Generation (Dziuban et al., 2004), and that in turn leads to its being both integrated and on demand. Hence practical, real-world applications of blended techno-logy to assist language learning are discussed in detail. As online labs add to (or in other cases, replace) classroom contact hours, the question in the background is the one posed by Moore (Bonk & Graham, 2006): should we still see classroom time as the default position, or ask alternatively whether face-to-face learning support is still required to supplement online learning? For learning, providing it is fulfilling the sociocultural needs of a participatory culture (Lantolf, 2000), need not be tied to a classroom at all.

BLENDED LEARNING

Blended learning in ELT environments is defined variously in the literature, frequently regarded as synonymous with hybrid learning following the lead of Kaleta (2007), in which he argued that hybrid courses shift "a significant amount" of the course learning online. One of the most straightforward definitions is that given by Dudeney and Hockly (2007, p. 183), who described it as "Learning which involves a combination of e-learning and face-to-face learning." Similarly, Sharma and Barrett (2007, p.7) contended that it "refers to a language course which combines a face-to-face (F2F) classroom component with an appropriate use of technology." Within the scope of this paper, the concept is one of a blended print-digital course, in which the textual material

(Todd & Palmer, 2009) is integrated with its online learning centre, MyiZoneLab, containing the core course study plan and resources. This is the core online learning resource, where students go to study and access key information. It functions together with in-class directed learning, guided by an instructor who uncovers the subject (Gibbons, 2009) and based on the same spoken grammar, functions and vocabulary, presented in a textbook, and brought to life in the classroom by the teaching professional. Moore (2006) asserted that the instructional design of the course need not be the preserve of the teacher, and, indeed, the instructor's time could be better spent aiding learners as individuals, bringing out and helping to make sense of the key areas of study. This notion gives a key insight into how new or "third" ways have yet to take hold fully in the ELT profession, namely that by blending the knowledge of materials designers as experts with the instructor's skill in-class, helping to liberate the teacher's creativity with an emphasis on the learner's potential, blended learning can be described as an efficient division of labour (Moore, 2006). This has important implications when considering the multitude of demands placed on teachers in a hi-tech world, for the blended model fully embraces technology in the classroom at the planning and execution stage, unlike conventional text-based language courses that tend to feature an associated website as an add-on to the course. It dispenses with the physical limitations of the CALL Lab and its cost structure, as well as the frustrations experienced by instructors acting as technicians. Online labs can be brought into the class when desirable, or left entirely as a place to go outside class.

MAKING BLENDED PRINT-DIGITAL WORK

A blended course can easily function as an online lab, a course book, a virtual workbook and exercise book, all rolled into one, providing materials to cover the core skills for practice while acting as a comprehensive resource for

grammar and vocabulary at each level. The content is delivered both online and in the text, with students gaining kinesthetically from typing written work and answers online as well as writing by hand in the book. The amount of time devoted to studying online is up to the learner, whereas face-to-face instruction will vary with the amount of time available to the instructor. This degree of built-in flexibility reflects changes in the teaching profession as it endeavours to cope with a fluctuating student population, offering teacher-led instruction with the text, teacher-directed study with the text and the online materials, and collaboration with peers using both the online materials and the text in the same classroom, in the same room or across campus, or virtually online outside school. Learner autonomy is implicit in a model where students take more control over their own language learning. According to Bershin (2004), blended learning makes learners feel more engaged, allows them to plan their learning over time, enables them to track their progress at each step along the way, assists them in making changes to the way they study, and helps them maintain their studies better.

GENERATIONAL CHANGES IN EDUCATION

A generational shift in the needs and expectations of Generation Y (Dziuban et al., 2004) implicitly demands that learners embrace technology to enhance study. These Millennials tend to live for today and are tuned in to technology in the moment. Research by Frand (2000), Oblinger (2003), and Dziuban et al. (2004), emphasizes that blended learning—when integrated and on demand—fits in well with their learning needs and expectations. We can reasonably assume, then, that our younger learners are hungry for technology and have expectations that it will be used in ELT. It is also clear that the ICT revolution, in the words of Rifkin (2009), is distributive, not centralized, and that older ideas will need to give way to new realities. Assumptions built

into teacher training in the West (e.g. Thornbury & Watkins, 2007) still largely overlook the possibilities of ICT use in teaching. For just as Generation X (those born between 1965-1980) differentiated itself from the postwar Baby Boomers by a work to live, not live to work ethic, and also by keeping productive by enjoying themselves while working, so it is that the Millennials (Generation Y) distinguish themselves from their predecessors in turn, by such aspects as living for the moment, being tuned in to technology in real time, requiring clear and consistent expectations, needing to experience respect before giving it to others, and questioning everything (Frand, 2000).

Blended learning appears especially well-suited to the learning needs and expectations of Millennials (Dziuban et al., 2004), for whom computers are no longer viewed as distant, other-worldly technology, but as an integral part of life. This is part of a process often referred to as "normalisation." In the words of Signor (2009, p. 60), "if quality is maintained, blended learning has the potential to not only provide more flexibility for the students but also improved learning growth when compared to traditional face-to-face learning." The practical example of applying blended learning below suggests that to guarantee quality, it is necessary to integrate the learning experience. ELT courses have been in need of technology to provide a bridge between traditional and contemporary learning. The benefits are more active and interactive student-centered instruction; increased interaction between student-teacher, student-student, student-content, and student-outside resources; and integrated assessment mechanisms for students and instructor. Print plus digital is an effective means of providing this.

ICT USE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: HOW THE ONLINE LAB WORKS

A central plank of ICT use in language instruction and learning is to establish a collaborative learning environment which uses technology to supplement and enhance

traditional classroom-based communicative language teaching. By integration, it is envisaged that online learning should be relevant to in-class instruction and in-class instruction to online: students prepare online, interact face-to-face in class, and check their progress online. The online component of instruction, learning and evaluation is on demand (Dziuban et al., 2004), in this case accessible by logging on using the password contained inside the back cover of the text.

The unit workflow (MyiZoneLab) described here begins with online Prepare, is followed by in-class study guided by the instructor, is rounded off by online Extras, and is completed by the online Quiz. Preparing online ensures the pre-teaching stage and schema-building, which normally has to be done in class, is completed beforehand and that students come to school already keyed in; class time is managed effectively and is devoted to other key areas of instruction without having to start anew every time. The responsibility for preparing is turned around, with the learner as the agent taking advantage of the instructional design of the materials; hence, it can be more accurately described as pre-learning. This applies not only to vocabulary, first met online and then recycled in the text, but also the unit's theme, its strategies, its video and grammatical structures. Language can, thus, be introduced and integrated seamlessly, as the noticing stage is accomplished by students online studying at their own pace, and students check their understanding in their Gradebook, where individual performance is monitored and assessed. The online lab is, thus, multifunctional, being both a language course and a study aid, giving the instructor a degree of flexibility in how they teach the class that would otherwise be constrained by having to start from scratch. Fundamentally, the integrated course model frees up time for communicative practice in class. Online preparation and consolidation activities occur in advance by design, and because the same body of material is presented in a different way by the instructor using the text, a greater focus can be given to communicative practice

of language that has already been studied. For the students, it is a good check of what they have learnt for themselves online.

Workflow is aided by exploiting media such as the online video, where the power of technology as a tool driving ICT is put to use in language instruction. Bonk (2011) referred to the *The Three Ps*, where *Pages* of content, *Piping* as technological infrastructure and a *Participatory* learning culture, allow online labs to realise their potential. Without the piping of infrastructure, in terms of bandwidth, video has not been fully exploited. iZone's videos employ a common core of actors, who reappear throughout the course and remain in character, allowing students to engage with the characterisation and plots. The online platform is ideally suited to the seamless integration of video with the other study material, designed with contextualization in mind. Students go into class fully prepared and at ease with the topic area and language since the video and associated comprehension exercises have set the scene and provided an embedded context in the minds of the learner as a pre-task activity. Such schema-building tasks focusing on bottom-up processing skills are normally difficult to prepare and execute for instructors, not to mention time-consuming. Taking what is normally one of the most challenging in-class aspects of teaching and making it a positive instructional feature online is a strength of the blended model. Students have control over the video clips and can open up boxes to view the transcripts whenever they need support. Furthermore, the video clips and interactive activities are combined with the *Zoom in!* language feature, a teaching tool with information on useful phrases and spoken English.

Technology in language learning and teaching has at times struggled with the criticism that it mimics face-to-face learning, and there is a case for arguing that preparing more before class and previewing videos is not unique to the online lab. Yet, with online labs at the heart of the course and printed materials in support, technology can be said to have undergone a transformation, for while

blended learning is hardly a recent educational phenomenon (Dziuban et al., 2004), the capabilities that exist today mean that there are new and innovative ways of language study in web-based learning environments, and those environments in turn are constantly evolving online. Features including the use of avatars, instant feedback, learner control over tasks and selection from menus of options, and interactive role plays, taken together, signify a significant shift in online education away from imitating classroom methods and practices. MyiZoneLab adds further enhancements to be used at the discretion of the teacher, extending to course overviews and lesson plans, the online Gradebook, quizzes and tests, options on setting pass levels, receiving alerts on student performance, audio and video with transcripts, file uploading capability, a discussion board feature, and links. Incremental development of instructional models arguably reaches a tipping point, where the online course is home and the printed textbook is for support. This represents a whole new orientation, rather than a modification.

The new look and new orientation is typified by the online lab offering each learner immediate feedback on their progress, a powerful and effective motivational tool. Indeed, this novel approach to learning helps learners cope with the normal motivational peaks and troughs of language study. It assists in what is termed "initial motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001), when learners are motivated by the innate value of language learning since technology can easily harness high student interest in phones or computers or gaming devices and connect it with L2 learning. In the case of MyiZoneLab, it takes advantage of positive attitudes towards technology by providing online games that recycle language from the units in a stimulating and competitive milieu. To maintain motivation and stop it from ebbing away, learner autonomy provides students with real choices over what they learn (Dörnyei, 2001). The way online labs encourage self-study and flexibility in how much time to spend on tasks is of benefit in this process. Feedback is through

the Gradebook, which records scores and submitted written assignments, again built into the instructional design of the course. Blended learning acknowledges that learners may need to engage with material in a variety of ways to aid comprehension and retention. This is of relevance to the debate in English teaching on a "principled eclecticism" in methodology (Harmer, 2007), with a need identified for teaching that satisfies the three strands of Engaging (the interest) of students, having them Study (alone and in groups), and Activating what they know and what they are learning (hence ESA). Without being tied to the four walls of a classroom, students study experientially by doing things for themselves, as well as by trial and error online. Rather than soaking up information, students activate their skills on a number of levels at the same time as studying language, dovetailing with recommendations of the EU on integrated learning via the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). Learners apply new skills as they interact with a computer to follow the log in instructions and as they read and respond to prompts along the way. They are expected to navigate their own way through, choosing what to study, selecting their own path, and leaving other parts to come back to later. This level of engagement differs greatly from a classroom where everyone studies in lockstep with the teacher, and when the physical space is determined for the students by someone else.

There is certainly a need for a greater challenge of learners, but it is incumbent upon instructors and course designers to offer greater support commensurate to the degree of difficulty of the task (Gibbons, 2009). The online lab supports lexis on demand (via the *Zoom in!* resource) and functional and spoken grammar (via the Grammar zone resource) to help learning in context, just at the time learners encounter the target item. Drawing on the Longman Corpus Network, learners accessing the online lab have access to a massive collection of spoken and written texts drawn from newspapers, books, radio,

television and everyday conversations. The aim is to provide help at a click of the mouse away, with the visual clues and immediate needs foregrounded, while the technological working of the lab is backgrounded, to allow students to draw on it as a resource. The attempt is to match content to needs to be summoned up at will. For instance, avatars as virtual instructors give life to strategy training. These iTutors instruct students while introducing strategies for communication and pronunciation, providing examples of the strategy in use, and speaking as an imagined person to the learner. Through the online lab, this one-on-one coaching has numerous benefits, for, unlike a teacher speaking in unprepared discourse, the language the avatar uses is graded to be closer to the level of the listener, and the message is conveyed through the eyes by viewing the i-Tutor avatar, through the ears by listening to their message, and is capable of being cross-referred to the text on the screen. Such multimodal training can be repeated as many times as necessary for learners to become proficient in their fluency and accuracy. The process acknowledges that strategies need to be noticed, explicitly taught and practised, just like any other aspect of language.

Naturally, the online lab should not be reduced to a mere training mechanism. The online lab recognizes that spoken practice and interaction in the classroom with peers and an instructor does not guarantee progress. Hence, spoken interaction is built in. Role plays are part of every unit at the Prepare stage, and students can take on the roles at anytime, wherever they log on, free from the need for a native English-speaking partner or teacher, and free from the confines of the classroom. Students can be both the person initiating the dialogue and the person responding. Crucially, this kind of practice allows for a space in which the students engage in planned discourse, before the more stressful unplanned interactions common to the classroom. The scaffolding of the task offers as much support as necessary, until it is time to engage in the same structured conversations with classmates and a teacher

in class, and later moving on to freer and less structured spoken discourse without the support. It also provides crucial practice in the kinds of speaking tasks common to Internet-based tests of English. Face-to-face learning performance correspondingly benefits after the autonomous learning phase has been fully exploited. With the thorough additional preparation completed online, students come to class readier to launch into directed in-class learning, fully cognizant of the integrated nature of iZone's approach. The burden on the teacher is eased, since acculturation to the aims of the class is handled in advance.

The third way addressed in the title of the paper comes into sharper focus. In the words of Heinze (2008), it "triangulates" into self-study, online-facilitated learning, and face-to-face facilitated learning, with pragmatic implications for instructors, learners, and how they interact in their changing roles. At the pedagogical level, blended courses impact on communication, social interaction and assessment (Heinze, 2008). There is a consolidation stage between online Prepare and the in-class presentation forming a bridge in the learning process: students come to class having studied the context and language and strategies and also having thought about the topic for themselves. Students bring questions about things they want to know more about or need clarification. The instructor introduces the in-class study by reviewing the online component, has students record their online scores as a check, expands on what has been introduced, and clarifies the unit goals. Likewise, Listen and Respond or Read and Respond parts of the unit (Todd & Palmer, 2009) introduce the same basic body of material unified with the online lab but presented in new ways. This multi-layered approach takes learning deeper and wider. For example, the same item of vocabulary is recycled in several different contexts, and collocates with a variety of other words. The strategic language is reintroduced in the text as Strategy in Action, offering options for listening to and practicing the communication strategy. Each step of the way, learning is built

up, reconfigured, and consolidated before moving on. Language in Action, using data from the Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English, builds on this triangle of self-study, online study, and text-based study by giving students the opportunity to listen to and read the model conversation that they have previously practiced in the role-play online. Learners are able to use and manipulate the language in the process of it becoming part of their own. Model dialogues with substitutions allow students to stretch their language use beyond their own level while practicing the pronunciation point to improve their awareness of how English speakers actually speak. The fluency-based Communication Task is the culmination of these efforts, and its pair and group work is the main speaking task in the unit.

Integration inherent in the blended model of instruction may also help to address the conundrum of what students really know and what they really learn in their language courses. In the model presented in this paper, the Activity Zone is a lighter pair or group speaking activity taking the unit theme to reinforce learning through use. Words and phrases from the unit are recycled one further time on the research-based assumption that students will only know a word, when they have met it countless times. This constant reinforcement acknowledges that some forgetting is normal in the process of language learning and that knowing a word in all its meanings and uses and collocations is a stiff challenge. By bringing back words and putting them to work in the conscious mind, more connections are made between and among different meanings. Students can, then, apply the language more freely and act out their own scripts using the Video extras, with the option of watching the full online video in class. There is, then, a self-assessment, called Checkpoint, where students are pushed to think about and evaluate the usefulness of what they have learnt by considering what they have enjoyed and found useful in the unit, and then assigning scores on a scale. This notion of ranking and expressing personal choices extends to a whole range of

options in Online Extras. Features include the full version of the video with online activities, providing students with the choice of how much and what type of study is appropriate to their needs. Students are encouraged to give free range to their self-expression in the optional Writing tasks. Through writing emails, letters and other text types in English, they learn to express their own ideas in their own words. Again, these types of tasks are ideal for practice in Internet-based tests. Furthermore, instructors are able to respond to the writing and edit the work their students produce. A culminating activity is the online game, which helps develop creative problem solving abilities through word puzzles and competitive tasks. The online lab environment is ideally suited to gaming.

One final word goes to evaluation and the need for enhanced testing built into online labs, with testing acting as a positive, necessary and sometimes neglected aid to learning. Ideally, a quiz should not function as an add-on, but as an essential feature to help learners find out precisely how much they have understood and can remember. The MyiZoneLab Quiz is integrated into the course to bridge the in-class and online parts of the course, and to give students immediate feedback on their progress. Testing acts as a powerful learning tool, and according to recent research (Carey, 2010), it is the very difficulty of tests (so-called "desirable difficulty") that makes them so effective. The hard challenge of having to recall something that has been learned makes it that much harder to later forget. Hence, testing takes place online after every unit, as well as at mid-term, and at the end of the course. For the students, they have access to their grades and other resources precisely because of the blended structure. Oblinger (2003) describes how the Millennial generation demands experiential, interactive learning grounded in real-life situations, those which blended courses are able to provide. Information should be provided on demand, and waiting for the following week's class to investigate questions no longer satisfies the yearning for answers and solutions now. Blended learning

fills the gap between learner expectations of an online experience of gaining the knowledge and skills that they require and the top-down, face-to-face only factory model from a bygone age they are still offered by schools.

CONCLUSION

Blended learning cannot fulfill its promise if it functions merely as a delivery mechanism. It must offer a genuine alternative to print-only and online only, and it must demonstrate that combining high quality print materials with high quality content via online labs offers a superior learning outcome. Such a third way presupposes a more supportive and dynamic learning experience, with an emphasis on integrated study, integrated teaching and integrated learning. This has been lacking until recent advances in ICT, and while blended learning may appear as a transitional stage towards higher quality second language learning, it is nonetheless a core component which makes that progression possible. By meeting the expectations of learners, it places their needs closer to the forefront of language instruction. The idea that technology interferes in the learning process can be laid to rest, and more pressing questions can henceforth be posed, such as about the extent to which face-to-face learning alone can be depended on. This reframing of the debate is one anticipated outcome, and another is that the showcasing of a representative blended environment in this paper will lead to a fuller appreciation of blended learning's applicability in ELT.

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CONTEXTUAL TEACHING AND LEARNING APPROACH TO TEACHING WRITING

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Abstract: This article reports a study on the implementation of contextual teaching and learning approach to teaching English writing to second graders of a Junior High Shool in Bandung. The study aims to investigate the strategies of Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) (as adapted from Crawford, 2001) and the advantages of using CTL approach. The study employed a qualitative case study research design. The data were obtained from several instruments, namely class observations, students' interview and students' writing products which were then analyzed using writing assessment criteria taken from Rose (2007, as cited by Emilia, 2011, p. 151). The findings revealed that the teaching writing program was successful to improve students' recount writing skill. Specifically, they showed some improvement on schematic structure, grammar roles, and graphic features. Moreover, the data from observation, interview, and documentation of students' text showed some benefits of CTL. These include: (1) engaging students in the writing activity; (2) increasing students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class; (3) helping students to construct their writing; (4) helping students to solve their problems; (5) providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends; and (6) helping the students to summarize and reflect the lesson. Based on these findings, it is recommended that CTL be implemented in teaching writing.

Keywords: *contextual teaching and learning, teaching writing*

Abstrak: Artikel ini melaporkan sebuah penelitian tentang pengimplementasian pendekatan *contextual teaching and learning* terhadap pembelajaran menulis bahasa Inggris untuk siswa kelas dua sebuah Sekolah Menengah Pertama di Bandung. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji strategi yang digunakan dalam Contextual Teaching and Leraning (CTL) (diadaptasi dari Crawford, 2001) dan keutungan penggunaan pendekatan CTL. Penelitian ini menggunakan desain penelitian studi kasus kualitatif. Data diperoleh dari beberapa instrumen, yaitu observasi kelas, wawancara siswa dan hasil menulis siswa yang dianalisis menggunakan kriteria penilaian menulis yang diambil dari Rose (2007, dalam Emilia, 2011, p. 151). Hasil temuan penelitian ini menyatakan bahwa program pembelajaran menulis berhasil meningkatkan kemampuan siswa dalam menulis teks *recount*. Secara khusus, mereka menunjukkan beberapa peningkatan pada penggunaan tata bahasa dan struktur penulisan. Selain itu, data yang diperoleh dari observasi, wawancara, dan dokumentasi teks siswa menunjukkan beberapa kelebihan dalam menggunakan CTL. Kelebihan tersebut yaitu (1) mendorong siswa dalam menulis; (2) meningkatkan motivasi siswa untuk berpartisipasi secara aktif dalam kelas menulis; (3) membantu siswa mengembangkan tulisan mereka; (4) membantu siswa memecahkan masalah mereka; (5) menyediakan cara untuk siswa berdiskusi dan berinteraksi dengan teman mereka; dan (6) membantu siswa merangkum dan merefleksikan pelajaran. Berdasarkan temuan tersebut, penelitian ini merekomendasikan CTL dapat diimplementasikan dalam pengajaran menulis bahasaInggris.

Katakunci: *contextual teaching and learning, pengajaran menulis*

In Indonesia, English language teaching and learning has been implemented in schools' curriculum since 1954 with the old curriculum. It has even received a more spe-cial place in the current KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or School-Based Curriculum) (Emilia, 2011). In KTSP, the teacher does not have to describe objectives and materials in detail for a teaching learning process in the classroom. Hence, the teacher is given freedom to use an approach that is relevant to the KTSP, for example the CTL approach.

One of the approaches that emphasizes the process and content of writing, which was discovered by Dewey (1916), is a contextual approach. The contextual approach is a learning philosophy that em-phasizes students' interests and experiences. The contextual teaching and learning (CTL) was developed by the Washington State Consortium, which involved 11 universities, 20 schools and some education organizations in the United States (Hermana, 2010, p. 56).

The contextual teaching and learning (CTL) applied in this research was based on Crawford's procedures: *Relating, experiencing, applying, cooperating, and transferring* (REACT) (Crawford, 2001). Contextual teaching and learning has been reported to be effective in developing students' skills in English. Some studies that used the CTL approach had been conducted in Indonesian students' classroom settings (see Harjani, 2005; Mulyadin, 2010; Minta, 2010; Wandasari, 2011). From their studies, it was revealed that CTL effectively improved students' comprehension, interests, and competence in writing and reading skills.

The papers mentioned above state that a learning process today still uses a teacher-oriented approach. Teachers transfer their knowledge to their students actively, mean-while, their students, like an empty bottle continually get filled with various kinds of knowledge, which sometimes they do not understand. Teachers should discover creative strategies to enhance students' interests to practice writing. Therefore, CTL can be implemented in this present study.

The CTL approach is considered to be used in teaching English, especially in teaching writing. Regarding this, Nydam (2000, cited by Johnson, 2002, p. 279) and Tribble (1996, p. 67) stated that writing with a context can make students able to develop analysis when they write a paragraph so that the readers will be able to meet their expectations more easily. In other words, if the students know what to write, what the reader expects from the text, and which parts of the language system that are relevant to the particular task in a given context, then they will be able to develop their analysis in writing a reasonable paragraph and have a good chance to write something.

In Indonesia, the CTL approach is rarely used as an approach to improve students' writing ability. Based on the background above, this study used the CTL to discover the advantages and strategies used in the contextual teaching and learning approach to teaching writing. The significance of this study is on how the CTL will help the second graders of junior high school write a recount text and their improvement in writing will be observed.

Contextual teaching and learning has been differently defined by many experts. Some experts define contextual teaching and learning as a concept that helps teachers and students relate the meaning and real world situations with the subject matter in the right way (Johnson, 2002; Sears, 2002). In other words, CTL motivates the learners to take charge of their own learning and to relate between knowledge and its application to the various contexts of their lives. Besides the previous definition, Nurhadi (2000) has argued that the constructivism philosophy is the reason why teachers choose CTL as an alternative teaching and learning approach. In this case, the students are expected to learn through "experiencing" not by "mem-orizing" the subject matter.

CTL approach has some teaching strategies, which include content as a critical component. Those strategies engage students in an active learning process. The strategies can be implemented individually or in group. There are some teaching strategies associated

with CTL approach as proposed by Berns & Erickson (2001) as follows: Problem based learning, cooperative learning, service learning, work based learning, project based learning, and react strategies.

In addition, the Washington State Consortium for Contextual Teaching and Learning spawned great efforts to construct teaching and learning approach, especially contextual teaching and learning approach (Hermana, 2010). There were many subjects involved in the construction of the approach, namely eleven universities, twenty schools, and some organizations in the field of education in United States.

Regarding this, the implementation of CTL approach in the classroom activities becomes common place throughout United States because this approach is believed to significantly relate the meaning to the students' real world situations. The implementation of CTL, especially REACT (relating, experiencing, applying, co-operating, and transferring) strategies in America, a constructivism method, is used to make students establish their sense of interest, confidence, and a need for under-standing. REACT strategies in CTL approach can help students improve their learning (Crawford, 2001). Indonesia has implemented CTL approach. In Indonesia, the CTL approach is implemented in various fields, such as mathematics, sciences, social sciences, and languages (Sa'ud, 2009). Some people have researched the use of CTL approach in the field of education, especially in teaching English as second language.

In line with the implementation of CTL or contextual approach, there are some strategies that teachers use in the classroom. Some teachers in America had implemented the strategies. There are five strategies proposed by Crawford (2001) as follows:

1. Relating

Relating is the most powerful element in contextual teaching strategy. It also suggests that students' learning in the context of one's life experiences or preexisting knowledge (Crawford, 2001). In relating, teachers link a new concept to something completely unknown to students. Caine & Caine (1993) called this reaction "felt meaning." That reaction can be momentous, as when a student finds the solution to a problem that he or she has spent significant time and effort in solving.

2. Experiencing

In contextual approach, one strategy relates to another. The previous statement appears to indicate that relating connects new information to life experiences or prior knowledge that students bring to the classroom. Teachers are able to overcome this obstacle and help students construct new knowledge with hands-on experiences that occur inside the classroom. This strategy is called experiencing. In experiencing, stu-dents are learning by doing through explor-ation, discovery, and invention (Crawford, 2001).

3. Applying

Applying strategy can be defined as learning by putting the concepts to use (Crawford, 2001). Clearly, students can implement the concepts when they are engaged in hands on problem solving activities. Teachers can also motivate a need for understanding the concepts by assigning realistic and relevant exercises. Relating and experiencing are strategies for developing insight, felt meaning, and understanding. Applying is a contextual teaching and learning strategy that develops a deeper sense of meaning.

4. Cooperating

Students are not able to make significant progress in a class when they work individually. On the other hand, students working in small groups can handle that complex problem with little outside help (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Teachers using student-led groups to complete exercises or hands-on activities are using the strategy of cooperating. This strategy refers to learning in the context of sharing, responding, and communicating with other learners (Crawford, 2001). Most students feel less self-conscious and can ask questions

without feeling embarrassed, when they work with peers in a small group discussion. Another fact of cooperative learning is that it can be counterproductive. For example, some students may not participate in the group processes at all, while others may dominate and the group members may refuse to accept or share responsibility for the group's work.

Johnson and Johnson (1990), who are the leading researchers in cooperative learning, have established guidelines to help teachers avoid those negative conditions and create environments where students may be expected to learn concepts at a deeper level of understanding. The guidelines are divided into five points: structuring positive interdependence within students learning groups; having students interact while completing assignments and ensuring that the interactions are on-task; holding all students individually accountable for com-pleting assignments and not letting them rely overly on the work of others; having students learn to use interpersonal and small group skills; and ensuring that learning groups discuss how well the group functions.

5. Transferring

In traditional classroom, students' roles are to memorize the facts and practice the procedures by working skill drill exercises and word problems. In contrast, in a contextual or constructivist classroom, the teachers' role is expanded to include creating a variety of learning experiences with a focus on understanding rather than memorization (Crawford, 2001). Trans-ferring is a teaching strategy that we define as using knowledge in a new context or novel situation—one that has not been covered in class. It suggests that students who learn with understanding can also learn to transfer knowledge (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999).

METHOD

The research method used in this study was qualitative case study research design. This method was used to discover the phenomenon as seen from participants' point of view (Creswell, 1994). In line with that definition, this study was conducted to explore how the use of CTL approach can encourage recount writing activity from second grade students of junior high school's point of view. In addition, this research was employed to describe specific phenomena on the use of CTL approach to improve students' writing ability.

To conduct such research, this method has two main objectives: first, to describe, explore, and explain the use of CTL approach in students' recount writing; second, to find the benefit of using that approach. The data of this study were obtained from several instruments, namely class observations, students' interview and students' writing products which were then analyzed using writing assessment criteria taken from Rose (2007, as cited by Emilia, 2011, p. 151). In the end, all data were categorized into some research questions to obtain the results of this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The advantages of contextual teaching and learning approach in a writing class

Data and discussion from observation
Based on the data gained from the observation sheets and teacher field notes, which are conducted in seven meetings, the use of contextual teaching and learning approach in the writing activity provided six benefits. The benefits were engaging students in the writing activity, increasing students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class, helping students to construct their writing, helping students to solve their problems, providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends, and helping the students to summarize and reflect the lesson. Those benefits were similar to the statement proposed by Crawford (2001); Depdiknas (2002); Johnson (2002). Further explanation of each benefit is presented below.

Engaging students in the writing activity

Most students felt enthusiastic to follow teacher instructions and were willing to participate in the learning activity. From the observation sheets and teacher field notes, it is discernible that in the beginning of the lesson, students were able to review the previous lesson before the lesson began. For example, one of the students said (in L1), "I learned about the elements of recount text, like lexicogrammatical features." The students' engagement was also shown by the ability of the students to share their expressions in the beginning of the lesson.

The contextual teaching and learning approach can engage students in the writing activity. In doing that activity, the students were motivated to follow teacher instructions. That is supported by Johnson (2002, p. 83) who stated that CTL engages students in independent action, which is designed to connect academic knowledge with the context of students' daily lives in ways that achieve a meaningful purpose, including in one of CTL characteristics.

Increasing students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class.

One of the contextual teaching and learning principles is questioning. Depdiknas (2002) has stated that the advantages of questioning activity are to check students' under-standing, encourage students' response, mo-tivate students to ask more questions, and refresh students knowledge.

In line with the statement above, the data revealed that in the writing process, students asked some questions that they did not understand and answered teachers' questions pertaining to the material. The above statement appears to indicate that they participated actively in the writing class. Another activity which can show the increase of students' motivation was the fact that the students can ask some questions to their pairs about their holiday using some guideline questions, such as "What did you do on your holiday?", "Where did you go?", When did you do your holiday?", and "With whom did you go there?"

The students' motivations also appear when the teacher showed and administered two kinds of cards (green and red card) to know students' understanding in the lesson; they were eagerly interested to be shown those cards. In addition, the student told the definition of recount text (in L1), "We retell about what happened in the past."

This principle can be implemented in contextual teaching and learning class, especially in writing class. Questioning activity was also discovered when the students discussed in pairs or group work in the writing class. Questioning in the learning process is seen as a teacher's activity to encourage, guide, and evaluate students' thinking ability. For the students, questioning activity is defined as the important part in conducting learning based on inquiry (Depdiknas, 2002).

Helping students to construct their writing

Students have to construct knowledge in their mind. The data from observation show that in the classroom, the students could implement past verb correctly in the text and construct a neat recount text about their holiday easily. Besides, in the second meeting students were able to organize their diagram events and create diagram events independently. Furthermore, in another meeting students could implement some expressions to their text, reconstruct it, and understand easily what they should do in the lesson; it can be seen from the students who can analyze the text easily. The student statement was shown by her asking (in L1), "Miss, so we should check and revise my friend's text like this?" while pointing the part of incorrect word.

When the teacher used CTL approach to teaching writing, the students comprehended the material. It can be seen when the materials about expressions were used in the recount text; they were familiar for the students, and therefore, the students comprehended them easily. When reviewing the materials, the students also responded correctly. It was also shown in the first meeting; the students were able to create a brief text about their holiday or vacation. Moreover, they were able to answer

the questions referring to the materials that were given in the class.

The data obtained show that CTL approach can help students to construct their writing. The essential of constructivism theory (which includes one of the CTL's principles) is the idea that students have to discover and transform complex information to other situation, and if they want that information become their own. Piaget's (1896-1980) (as cited in Pinter (2006)) suggestion supports the data findings that children construct knowledge for themselves by actively making sense of their environment.

Helping students to solve their problems
Based on the observation data, students tried to be creative to write down their answers next to the text, gave various colors, and underline the word using coloring markers. Then, when the students did not know some words in English, they directly opened the dictionary. It also happened when one student got stuck to reconstruct the text, other students helped her to revise the text. One of the students' pairs in the class wrote down their answers on their friends' book. Even they could finish their writing. Moreover, when the teacher explained the materials using slides, the students listened carefully and asked some questions about the materials as (in L1), "Miss, I still don't understand about first person and third person point of view. Can you explain it?"

This finding was reaffirmed by Hadley (2001, p. 282), who said that problem solving activity has the potential to affect students' writing and thinking skills in their native language, thus extending the benefits of language study well beyond the limits of the second language classroom. Similar to the statement above, students should be accustomed to solve their problems and find something beneficial for them.

Providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends
The students in the writing class could enjoy working in group, especially when the teacher gave stamp for the three groups that found their group earlier. They could cooperate and discuss with their friends in group. It can be shown from the observation that students discussed their writing problem with their friends. For example, a student asked his friend (in L1), "What is *memeras susu* in English?". Besides that, students could cooperate with their partners to identify the linguistic features and the generic structure of recount text. After that, students cooperated with their partner in group to check their friends' texts.

The data above supported that in the CTL classroom, teachers always did the learning activity in some learning groups (Depdiknas, 2002). Similarly, learning community concept suggests that learning results should be obtained from cooperating with other. Learning results also were gained from sharing between friends and groups.

In this study, learning community had been implemented. In learning community, not only does the teacher teach the students, but the teacher also listens to information from the students. Contextual teaching and learning approach could persuade the students to share their writing with friends enthusiastically. It can be seen from the observation conducted by the researcher that at the end of the lesson, the students raised their hands enthusiasticly to read aloud their texts in front of the class. Then, they were enthusiastic to help their friends and share their papers, although the students should accomplish the task with their pairs. It also happened when students worked in group, they shared their texts with their friends. Each student felt enthusiastic to share their writing as (in L1), "This is my text. It is good, right?"

Helping the students to summarize and reflect the lesson
Reflection is a way to think about what have been learned by the students or what they had done in the previous lesson. Reflection was beneficial for students in writing process. It was shown that the students were able to remember the lesson on that day and CTL could check students' comprehension, whether they understood the lesson or not.

From the data obtained from obser-vation sheet and teacher field notes, in the end of the lesson, students were shown to reflect what they had learned. One of the students said (in L1), "I learn how to make diagram event." When the teacher reviewed the materials, the students responded well. After that, when they were asked "What have you learned today?" they answered the activities in the class. The students also mentioned some expressions in recount text and what they had learned in the class.

The CTL approach helped the students to infer and reflect the lesson as shown by how the representative of each group came forward to read aloud their friends' texts, and then revised them. At the end of the lesson, one of the students told (in L1), "Today I checked my friends' text." That statement is similar to Depdiknas' (2002), which states that from reflection teacher can help the students to make relations between knowledge that they have before with the new knowledge. In addition, students felt they gained something beneficial for themselves about the material they had learned.

At the end of the learning process, the teacher gave time for the students to reflect what they had learned. The realizations in the form of journal and direct statements about what they have learned in that day, discussion, and paper or text.

Data and discussion from interview

Based on the interview's results, it was discovered that there were some advantages of implementing contextual teaching and learning approach to teaching writing: (1) engaging students in the activity; (2) increasing students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class; (3) helping students to construct their writing, especially recount text; (4) helping students to solve their problem; (5) providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends; (6) helping the students to summarize and reflect the lesson (Depdik-nas, 2002; Johnson, 2002).

In the interview session, students felt REACT strategies could increase their knowledge in how to write a good text. Besides

that, the second advantage was that CTL could increase students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class. It can be seen by how the students responded; they could understand more when the teacher gave the text as an example. They also said it was effective because they understood the grammatical roles, and they did a lot of practices.

In learning to write, students enjoyed and could solve their problem, when they worked in group. That statement can be proved from what student said in the interview session (in L1), "I feel enjoy and can solve the problem when I work in group."

The next advantage from the use of CTL approach to teaching writing was providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends. Students felt that cooperative strategy was an interesting learning style. Through cooperative learning, the students could discuss with their friends and obtain knowledge from the discussion.

In addition, reflection was beneficial for students in writing process. The students said they could remember the lesson on that day and CTL could check students comprehension, whether they understood the lesson or not. As students' statements in interview session show (in L1), "Reflection gives advantage for me because I can remember the previous lesson"; "It can check students' comprehension in the end of the lesson"; and "It is very beneficial for me because I was once taught grammar by my teacher, then I got 100, but the next day when I learned the new materials and the teacher did not review the previous materials, I got a bad score in my exam-ination. So, a teacher and students should review the materials."

Data and discussion from documentation of students' text

From assessment sheets, it is discernible that the students showed a good progress in their writing. The progress of their writing has been assessed from the first to the end of their writing products. Based on Rose's assessment, (2007 cited by Emilia 2011: 151) grammatical aspects were considered to assess students' ability in writing. Moreover, in this research

the students increased their writing ability and they could construct a neat recount text, which shows the grammatical improvement from students in the writing class.

Teaching strategies used

Data and discussion from observation
The sources of data from observation were observation sheets and teacher field notes. The observation sheets and field notes consist of the activities conducted by the teacher during the pre activities, whilst activities, and post activities session. Based on the data gained from seven meetings in the writing class, there were some teaching strategies which are proposed by Crawford (2001) such as relating, experiencing, applying, cooperating, and transferring (see Chapter 2). The further explanation about teaching strategies used were explained below.

Relating
Relating is the most powerful element in contextual teaching strategy. In relating strategy, teacher links a new concept to something completely unknown to students and the students learning in the context of one's life experiences or preexisting knowledge (Crawford, 2001). Based on the observation, the students were able to link their new knowledge and understand easily what they should do in the lesson. It was shown by the students who said "*Miss, I write my holiday on the book*". According to the previous data, the students discover the solution to a problem that he or she has spent significant time and effort in solving (Caine & Caine, 1993). Similar to Caine & Caine's (1993) statement above, the students can solve the problem through the written document. It can be seen in the first time students write a recount text, they can learn from their mistakes in grammatical roles, punctuation, and spelling.

Experiencing
In contextual approach one strategy relates to another. It is discernible that relating connects new information to life experiences or prior knowledge that students bring them to the classroom. Teachers can overcome this obstacle and help students to construct new knowledge with hands-on experiences that occur inside the classroom. This strategy is called experiencing.

In experiencing strategy, students learn by doing through exploration, discovery, and invention (Crawford, 2001). It can be seen by looking at students were able to create diagram events independently and organize the drafting of the recount text from their diagram events. In this strategy, students were also able to work in pairs to analyze the text in terms of linguistic features and generic structure. In the class hands-on experiences can include the use of manipulative, problem-solving activities, and laboratories. Relating with that, the laboratory that was used is classroom.

Based on students' interview session in the next subchapter, REACT method can improve their knowledge through the teacher in the experiencing strategy gave the text model to the students. In line with that, modelling is one of the CTL components. Modelling in this approach suggests there are some knowledge or skills to be model for the students. In this research, the teacher gave a recount text which relate with their real lives, some slides about elements of recount text and the expressions that used in recount text. It is supported by Depdiknas (2002, p. 17) which states that modelling is a model which can be imitated and observed by the students before they try to find the key word.

In CTL approach, teacher is not the only one model. Model can be designed through involve the students. As implemented in this research, students asked to give examples relate to the materials. In teaching writing, Hillocks (1986 cited in Hadley, 2001) has discovered that using model of good writing in writing instruction provide mixed results, with some studies showing benefits and others showing no significant differences between groups. However, Hillocks main-tained that the use of models, especially to explore a feature of purposeful text, including the employment of tangible and comprehensive information can be beneficial at all grade levels.

Modelling aims to introduce and to familiarize the students with the text in focus. The students can read it, deconstruct it, and build up their understandings of the purpose and overall structure of the genre (Martin and Rose, 2008; Christie and Derewianka, 2008 in Emilia, 2010). Related to the statement above, Emilia (2010) mentioned that the activities in modelling stage include: familiarizing students with the function and social context of the text in focus, presenting the schematic structure of the text, and presenting a model text (one or two other texts in the same genre, presenting an overview of grammatical features of a discussion genre).

Applying

Applying strategy can be defined as learning by putting the concepts to use (Crawford, 2001). It suggests that the students can apply the concepts when they are engaged in hands on problem solving activities. From results, it can be seen that when the writing process was conducted, students comprehended the materials easily. So, they could construct their text with minimum mistake. Then, when reviewing the materials, the students responded correctly.

It is also reaffirmed by the students' interview that they agreed the effective way to teach writing was to do many practices in writing. Then, students said learning writing using REACT strategies could improve their writing ability. The exercises that are realistic and authentic can motivate students to learn academic concept in a deeper level of understanding.

In applying strategies, the tasks were designed to be interesting, different, and varied. The aim is to provide students with a wide variety of tasks to engage in and ensure that the tasks have some engaging, novel, interesting, or surprising, features. For example, in this strategy the students were asked to identify the elements of recount text from a different text that was related to students' real life (Crawford, 2001). In addition, Pintrich and Schunk (1996) also mentioned that teacher should emphasize how the academic tasks

that are done in the classroom are relevant and authentic, tasks that have meaning in the real world.

In CTL contexts, applying is a contextual teaching and learning strategy that develops a deeper sense of meaning. Accordingly, students also develop their knowledge through their active participation in the teaching and learning process. Based on the data gained, the teacher's roles to facilitate learning process are: (1) making the knowledge meaningful and relevant to the students; (2) giving chance to the students to find and apply their own ideas; and (3) making students aware to apply their own strategy into learning process (Depdiknas, 2002).

Cooperating

Cooperating is the most effective strategy to learn writing. Students cannot make significant progress in a class when they work individually. On the other hands, students working in small groups can handle that complex problem with little outside help (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). It is reaffirmed by the data from observation that coope-rative learning made students easy to learn the grammar from their friend's text and could discuss the mistakes with their friends in group.

It appears that students learn in the context of sharing, responding, and commu-nicating with other learners in a writing process (Crawford, 2001). Most of the students in the research felt less self-conscious and could ask questions without feeling embarrassed when they worked with peers in a small group discussion. It can be seen from the data findings, working in group can make students confident to ask others and get English knowledge by themselves.

According to Johnson and Johnson (1990), cooperative learning has established guidelines to help teachers avoid the negative conditions and create environments, in which students may be expected to learn concepts at a deeper level of understanding. After the guidelines were implemented in this research, the students could interact while completing assignments, learn to use

interpersonal and small group skills, structure positive interdependence within students learning groups, and ensure that learning groups discuss how well the group functions. The other fact of cooperative learning can be counterproductive. For example, some students may not participate in the group processes at all, while others may dominate and the group members may refuse to accept or share responsibility for the group's work.

Transferring

Transferring is the last strategy in contextual teaching and learning approach that was used in writing class. In this stage, the students used their knowledge in a new context. From the observation's results, most of the students tried to open their previous text and revise their text in the transferring stage. In this strategy, the students used their knowledge in a new context.

The statement above is in line with Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (1999) who states that *transferring* is a teaching strategy that we define as using knowledge in a new context or novel situation—one that has not been covered in class. It means students who learn with understanding can also learn to transfer knowledge. To support the findings above, in the transferring stage the students could construct the neat recount text by looking a the previous text in the portfolio. Furthermore, the evidence is in correspond-ence with Crawford's (2001) theory about contextual teaching that the teachers' role is to create a variety of learning experiences with a focus on understanding rather than memorization.

Data and discussion from interview

The interview results revealed teaching strategies used and the benefits of CTL. The teaching strategies used in CTL approach to teaching writing were relating, experiencing, applying, cooperating, and transferring (Crawford, 2001). The further strategy used was authentic assessment. Relating strategy was used to link a new concept to something completely unknown to students (Caine and Caine, 1993). Thus, it was expected that students learn in the context of one's life experiences or preexisting knowledge. To support that statement, in the interview session the students told that this strategy was effective to teach writing because they could write about their experience.

Experiencing strategy was intended to make the students learning by doing through exploration, discovery, and invention (Crawford, 2001). The students could con-struct new knowledge with hands-on experiences that occured inside the class-room. The students stated that this strategy could improve their knowledge through the teacher who gave the text model to the students. As they stated (in L1), *"I can im-prove my writing skill when the teacher asked me to write about my experience, then teacher gave the example."*

Applying stage increased students' interest in writing. The students agreed that the effective way to teach writing was to do many practices in writing, especially writing about their experiences. Similar to that evidence, in applying strategy students could apply the concepts when they were engaged on problem solving activity (Crawford, 2001).

Cooperating can help teacher avoid some negative conditions and create envi-ronments, in which students may be expect-ed to learn concepts at a deeper level of understanding (Johnson & Johnson, 1990). Most of the students agreed that cooperating stage was the most effective strategy to learn writing. In realizing that statement, students argued that working in group can help them know the new vocabularies that were used by their friends and they felt enjoyable to study in group.

Transferring strategy was implemented when the students wrote their neat recount text by looking at the previous text. In this stage, the students said that the benefit from using transferring strategy was that they were able to know which parts were incorrect. Five teaching strategies had been implemented and discovered in this research. Besides that, the assessment should also be considered to know students' improvement in writing. One of the

characteristics of CTL approach is the use of authentic assessment. The students from the interview session argued that portfolio as the authentic assess-ment could be effective since they were able to combine their ideas, better their writing, and use past tense correctly.

Data and discussion from written documents

The written documents that were used in this research were students' texts. From the students' texts, the teacher could observe students' improvement in writing. In some stages of the CTL approach, which were used to teach writing, the students showed their progress. In relating strategy, as it was the first time the students wrote a recount text, they made a few mistakes in grammat-ical roles, punctuation, and spelling. But, in this stage the teacher could measure students' ability in writing.

The next strategy is applying strategy. In this strategy, the students were able to apply the new concepts, which they gained in the previous stages, into a recount text. Cooperating strategy is the fourth stage in REACT method. This strategy emphasizes more to learn in the context of sharing, responding, and communicating with other learners (Crawford, 2001). In this strategy, when the students check their friends' text in group, they can mark the incorrect parts in the text.

The last strategy is transferring. In this step, the students were able to write a neat recount text by minimizing mistakes and improving their writing. Besides the five strategies above, the use of authentic assessment is one of the important elements. Authentic assessment emphasizes on the learning process. It means the data that are collected should be obtained from the real activity which is done by the students when they do the learning process.

The characteristics of authentic assessment are it is conducted during and after the learning process, and it can be used as feedback for the students. Besides characteristics, there are some important aspects to evaluate students' achievement, such as students' report, homework, quiz, students' presentation or performance, demonstration, journal, and portfolio.

Teachers who want to know their students' English learning improvement, should collect the data from the real activity when students use English. The data should gained from the students when they do the English activity inside or outside the class, and that is called authentic data (Depdiknas, 2002).

In line with the statement above, portfolio is one of the authentic assessments that was used in this research. The assessment above was supported by Alwa-silah's (2005) statements that portfolio supports learning process and evaluation in an authentic way. In addition, the use of authentic assessment can improve students' writing as shown by the students' scores. Thus, through portfolio students can look at their previous texts.

CONCLUSION

The present study was administered to investigate the advantages of using contextual teaching and learning approach in teaching writing, especially recount text and the way CTL approach improves the second grade students of junior high school writing ability. The data in this study were obtained through observations, students' interviews and written documents. It was found that this approach was beneficial for the second grade students of junior high school in learning writing. It was proven from the teaching strategies used in the classroom that are based on contextual teaching theory (Crawford, 2001). These teaching strategies are relating, experiencing, applying, cooperating and transferring. In addition, authentic material was also used to assess the students' writing.

There were some benefits of using contextual teaching and learning approach in writing class: (1) engaging students in writing activity; (2) increasing students' motivation to participate actively in the writing class; (3)

helping students to construct their writing; (4) helping students to solve their problems; (5) providing ways for students to discuss or interact with their friends; (6) helping the students to summarize and reflect the lesson.

In addition, the use of contextual teaching and learning approach in a writing class was responded to positively by the students. This contention is proved by the students' writing improvement through three kinds of instrument.

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RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY ACQUISITION: EXAMINING PROCESSING TIME AND MEMORY THRESHOLD

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Abstract: In the present research a picture card-based vocabulary study method was used to determine the pace of learner acquisition in terms of both receptive and productive knowledge. Fifty-eight first-year Japanese university students in two classes were used in the study. The subjects were placed into a single experimental group and both classes were taught by the researcher. During the treatment sessions the subjects studied fifteen vocabulary items chosen from the course textbook (*Fifty-Fifty: A speaking and listening course, Book One*, W. Wilson and R. Barnard, 2007, Hong Kong: Pearson Longman) using self-produced picture cards. The same post-treatment test was given to the subjects following each treatment session and the results were analyzed using Paired Samples T-tests supported by non-parametric Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks tests by comparing one session's data with the data of the previous session. The post-treatment data showed a significant difference between the pre-treatment and first sessions in terms of receptive knowledge, and between all sessions except the eighth and ninth in terms of productive knowledge.

Keywords: Vocabulary learning; receptive knowledge; productive knowledge; processing time; memory threshold

Abstrak: Dalam penelitian ini, teknik pembelajaran kosakata dengan menggunakan kartu bergambar digunakan untuk menentukan kecepatan pemerolehan bahasa pembelajar baik dalam pengetahuan reseptif maupun produktif. Subjek penelitian ini terdiri atas lima puluh delapan mahasiswa universitas Jepang tingkat satu yang terbagi ke dalam dua kelas. Mereka ditempatkan dalam satu kelompok eksperimental, dan kedua kelas diajar oleh peneliti sendiri. Selama tahap eksperimen berlangsung, para subjek mempelajari lima belas item kosakata yang dipilih dari sebuah buku teks mata kuliah (*Fifty-Fifty: A speaking and listening course, Book One*, W. Wilson dan R. Barnard, 2007, Hong Kong: Pearson Longman) dengan menggunakan kartu bergambar yang mereka buat sendiri. Pos tes setelah eksperimen berakhir sama diberikan pada subjek setiap selesai satu sesi dan hasilnya dianalisis dengan menggunakan Uji-t sampel berpasangan yang didukung oleh Uji Pemeringkatan Tanda Padanan-Pasangan Wilcoxon nonparametrik dengan membandingkan data satu sesi dengan data dari sesi sebelumnya. Data dari pascaperlakuan menunjukkan perbedaan yang signifikan antara sesi praperlakuan dan sesi pertama dalam hal pengetahuan reseptif, dan antara semua sesi, kecuali sesi ke delapan dan ke sembilan, dalam hal pengetahuan produktif.

Katakunci: Pembelajaran kosa kata, pengetahuan reseptif, pengetahuan produktif, waktu pengolahan, ambang batas ingatan

The repetitious study of a pre-determined list of items has repeatedly been shown to have great advantages for long-term memory formation within both SLA research and other related fields (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick & Bahrick, 1993; Cowan, 2000; Ellis & Beaton, 1993;

Ellis, 2002; Ericsson & Kintsch, 1994; Gass & Mackey, 2002; Gupta & MacWhinney, 1997; Henriksen, 1999; Hulstijn, 2002; Knowles, 2008; Lewis, 1993; Mohensi-Far, 2008a, 2008b; Nakata, 2008; Nation, 2001, 2002; Papagno & Vallar, 1992; Schmitt, 2000; Segler, 2002; Tarone, 2002; Wei, 2007; Weil, 2008). It is, therefore, important to determine at what point, if a specific point can be ascertained at all, of study items are receptively (or passively) known, at what point they are productively (or actively) known, and at what point the items move from being receptively to productively known. If such required processing times and a memory threshold between the types of knowledge can be established and generalized, their application to teaching methodologies and classroom practice could contain many potential advantages for learners. Few studies have attempted to directly determine where these points may occur; however, most memory studies focus instead on the structure and limits of the working memory and/or the transition to long-term memory storage (Byrne & Bovair, 1997; Cowan, 2000; Ericsson & Kintsch, 1994; Gupta & MacWhinney, 1997; Just & Carpenter, 1992; Papagno & Vallar, 1992; Parks & Yonelinas, 2009; Petrides, Alivisatos, Meyer & Evans, 1993)—related but not identical issues with that of receptive/productive knowledge. Therefore, the current research attempts to address this concern by analyzing subjects' results on a repeated measures test that was designed to measure both receptive and productive knowledge of fifteen vocabulary items. By analyzing the results of each test compared with those of the previous treatment session's test a basis for determining these points was established. Cognitive psych- ology findings regarding memory were taken into account here, as were ELT findings regarding types of knowledge, picture/word association, the phonological loop, and test design.

Working Memory, Processing, and Memory Thresholds

For a new piece of information to achieve storage in a person's long-term memory, it must first pass through the working memory, and therefore, a deeper understanding of the working memory may be of some interest. Research has shown that processing and storage in the working memory are limited by activation, and that the amount of activation available varies by individual (Just & Carpenter, 1992). Furthermore, such activation, or attention on the items currently held in the working memory, is thought to be a necessary aspect not only of later storage of the item in a person's long-term memory, but also in the efficient retrieval of said item (Schmidt, 1993). The available attention that can be given to an item appears to be capacity-limited (Cowan, 2000); however, and if such a limit does vary by individual as Just and Carpenter (1992) indicated, then the issue of creating activities that will work for all learners and interest them enough to maintain the level of focus required for further storage is an important one. Moreover, if an individual's capacity is constrained in some way, say through over-taxation, then processing is likely to also be constrained, as is the communication between processing resources. Such boundaries are the results of resource limitations, and not architectural structures (Just & Carpenter, 1992). But do architectural boundaries, as such, exist in the memory? Meara (1996) proposed that the movement from a receptive to a productive knowledge of a vocabulary item (or passive to active, in his terms) is likely to entail crossing a threshold rather than movement on a continuum. If such a threshold did exist, it would fit with Schank's model of memory (1980) that proposed four layers that form a hierarchy of increasingly specific (and therefore, predictive) situational or informational templates. Other research (Parks & Yonelinas, 2009) has shown evidence of a bottom threshold, a point at which movement beyond leads to memory failure and further indicated that memory traces may remain in the mind for all items or stimuli encountered. If such findings hold out to be true, then the implications for foreign language learning could be vast, particularly if every new language item was retained in some way—even in a network that was purely receptive. Therefore, being able to ascertain just how much processing, on average, of an item is needed to move it from a receptive knowledge

to a productive one, allowing for individual differences in capacity and applicable activation could be quite advantageous to an educational setting.

From Working Memory to Long-term Memory

Knowledge of the physical processes involved in long-term memory formation can also be beneficial to the language teacher, and recent findings from research done in experimental psychology have shed considerable light on this matter. When a piece of information is encountered and engaged, be it linguistic or otherwise, the brain first stores it in the working memory, which is thought to contain three primary components: "...a visuo-spatial short-term memory, a verbal short-term memory, and a central executive, which controls the flow of information to and from the other components" (Gupta & MacWhinney, 1997, p. 270). If the piece of information in question is completely new, it will fail to activate the central executive (a mass of differentiated tissue referred to as a 'chunk node'); this, in turn, will lead to the brain creating a new "chunk node" that releases an associated context signal. The connection between the context signal and new piece of information is initially very fragile; however, remaining activated for only two to thirty seconds, after which time it is subject to decay if not reactivated by an additional stimulus or thought process (Cowan, 2000). One of the simpler ways to achieve this reactivation is through repetition of the material, a method that has enjoyed widespread and longstanding support from both within and without SLA literature (Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick & Bahrick, 1993; Cowan, 2000; Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Ellis, 2002; Ericsson & Kintsch, 1994; Gass & Mackey, 2002; Gupta & MacWhinney, 1997; Henriksen, 1999; Hulstijn, 2002; Knowles, 2008; Lewis, 1993; Mohensi-Far, 2008a, 2008b; Nakata, 2008; Nation, 2001, 2002; Papagno & Vallar, 1992; Schmitt, 2000; Segler, 2002; Tarone, 2002; Wei, 2007; Weil, 2008). In addition to strengthening the specific relationship between the new piece of information and its context signal, such

repetition also helps to secure the context signal into the wider neural network (Henriksen, 1999). Once complete, this process leads to information being stored in the long-term memory. An intermediary state, termed the "long-term working memory," has also been suggested by Ericsson and Kintsch (1994, p. 3), who state that "information in LT-WM [long-term working memory] is stored in stable form, but reliable access to it may be maintained only temporarily by means of retrieval cues in ST-WM [short-term working memory]." Much more research in this area is needed, but the broader lesson that can be drawn in relation to foreign language learning is the need for multiple exposures and repetitious interactions with the target material.

'Knowing' a Word and the Receptive/ Productive Distinction

Of primary importance in framing the argument that follows is the definition of what "knowledge" of a word entails. If there is a definable point at which a word can be said to be receptively or passively known, then a necessary part of ascertaining that point will be establishing what we mean by saying that someone "knows" a given term. Schmitt (2000) has written that a word's meaning is taken from its referent, but due to the lack of uniformity in our world and the need for a broader language than a simple system of referents would allow (if such were the case we would have little other than proper nouns), the meaning of a word can more accurately be said to be its relationship with its associated concept. To "know" a word would, therefore, be to understand the relationship between that word's concept and its phonetic expression in sound or visual expression in symbols. In other words, it would mean having the information of this relationship (between the word and its concept) stored in one's long-term memory in an associative way with its context signal, either hearing the word spoken or seeing it written (Henriksen, 1999). These points should be fairly clear and further discussion is necessary. Following from this, however, is the important distinction of receptive versus productive knowledge. Nation (2001) has

stated this as being rooted in the common differentiation between listening and reading (receptive skills) and speaking and writing (productive ones). He noted that "passive" and "active" are sometimes used as synonyms for these terms (referencing Corson, 1995; Laufer, 1998, Meara, 1990). Nation (2001) also cited Meara as expressing the difference in terms of active vocabulary being stimulated by other words, but passive only by things external; they are, thus, both types of associative knowledge (Meara, 1990). Corson (1995), on the other hand, is said to base his distinction on use rather than knowledge, creating a boundary between active and passive vocabulary, where the latter includes active terms as well as words that are partly known, of low-frequency, not easily available for use, and whose use is avoided. The aforementioned definitions are lacking in practical applicability in an L2 sense however, and so, in the present paper the following criteria have been applied (based on a stripped-down version of Nation's (2001, pp. 26-28) "[S]cope of the receptive/productive distinction"): 1) Receptive knowledge entails knowing the word's L1 equivalent, being able to recognize the word when heard and/or seen and/or written, and knowing the word's associated concept; 2) Productive knowledge entails being able to use the word to express its meaning, being able to say and/or write the word, and being able to use the word correctly in an original sentence.

Image Association and the Phonological Loop
The use of imagery as a means of providing a deeper mental processing via meaningful association to strengthen learning (Mohseni-Far, 2008a; Papagno & Vallar, 1992; Schmitt, 2000) is an important one and is borne out in much research. In a review of a study comparing two types of vocabulary item annotations—verbal only and verbal with visual information—the annotations with a visual element were found more helpful than those with only a verbal element (Son, 2001). Other research has stated that "vocabulary acquisition is enhanced if the verbal information is accompanied by pictorial information" (Nikolova, 2002, p. 103), which

seems natural given the working model of memory described by Gupta and MacWhinney (1997, see above). Moreover, other data suggest that students move from a formal to a semantic knowledge of L2 words (McNeill, 1996), and as such, classroom exercises and other activities might be more helpful if they focused more fully on meaning, an element that image-based representations can assist in providing (Nation, 2002).

Another area of primary concern to vocabulary acquisition in language learning is known as the Phonological or Articulatory Loop. Research done in experimental psychology has shown that, "overt repetition—i.e. re-cycling material through the phonological loop component of short-term memory lead[s] to . . . better long-term representations" (Ellis & Beaton, 1993, p. 553; see also Papagno & Vallar, 1992), particularly when said aloud (Ellis & Beaton, 1993). Such verbal repetition of an item has been repeatedly shown elsewhere to have positive results with both acquisition and retention (Baddeley, 1997; Cowan, 2000; Ellis, 1995; Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Gupta & MacWhinney, 1997; Hulstijn, 2001; Segler, 2002). Papagno and Vallar (1992), however, cautioned that phonologically similar words will tend to interfere with one another and have detrimental effects on the learning of both.

METHOD

The testing instruments to be used will need to be matched to the information sought (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). Towards this end, Nation (2001, p. 372; the following are the researcher's paraphrases) has listed four questions to consider: 1) Is the knowledge needed to answer the test questions similar to that the teacher wants to test?; 2) Is it easy to make enough questions for all the vocabulary that the teacher wants to test?; 3) Will the questions be easy to mark?; and 4) Will answering the question provide repetition of the vocabulary and possibly extend learners' knowledge?" (Schmitt, 2000, p. 173; the following are also the researcher's paraphrases); furthermore, he has detailed

three dimensions to assist in deciding on a format: 1) Discrete (independent knowledge or use) versus Embedded (part of a larger assessment); 2) Selective (specific items are the focus) versus Comprehensive (takes account of the whole content of an answer); and 3) Context-independent (the subject can produce the answer without referring to context) versus Context-dependent (looks at the subject's ability to take account of context to answer the question). Based on the above and the criteria stated regarding receptive and productive knowledge, the test used in the current research (see Appendix A) was designed to be of the discrete, comprehensive, and context-type (or the passive and free active types, according to Nation's terminology (2001)). There has been some argumentation that questions of the controlled productive type are preferable (Meara & Fitzpatrick, 2000; Schmitt, 2000); however, the researcher's purpose was to see if the subjects could actively produce samples that demonstrated knowledge of the items' meaning in an unaided and unprompted way, and hence, the free sentence composition element was included. Based on the research in the field reviewed above, the following research question was formed: 1) How much processing of material is required for acquisition of vocabulary items on a receptive level, and how much is required for acquisition on a productive level? and 2) Is there any basis for a threshold of processing time after which the majority of subjects move from a receptive knowledge to a productive knowledge of the material?

Based on the results of previous research, acquisition of the material using the method employed was assumed to occur (Oberg, 2011); however, no prediction was made regarding at what point either receptive or productive knowledge of the material would emerge, or if a basis for a threshold could be found, and therefore, 2-tailed T-tests are used in the analysis of the learners' test data (Woods, Fletcher & Hughes, 1986).

Participants

Two classes comprising fifty-eight first-year university students were used in the study. The students were divided into classes based on their major of study and separated further by level based on their scores on the G-TELP test (General Tests of English Language Proficiency) taken by all first-year students upon entrance to the university. One class consisted of twenty-seven Psychology majors, and the other class consisted of thirty-one Economics majors. Both groups were streamed at Level 2 (the second highest) for English ability within their respective majors. These two classes comprised the single group used in the study.

Variables

Care was taken to limit the variables in the present study. Previous research showed the card-based study method used here to be effective for acquisition (Oberg, 2011), and therefore, a control group was deemed unnecessary in this case. This was due to the focus of the present study being on the point at which receptive and/or productive knowledge may emerge, rather than on whether the method used would yield acquisition of the material. Furthermore, all of the participants involved in the research studied the same fifteen vocabulary items for ten minutes per treatment session. In non-research settings such as the one described below (see Procedure), varying degrees of exposure to the material can occur, and thus influencing the rate at which material is acquired; however, in the present study subjects were instructed not to review the vocabulary items outside of the treatment sessions, and hence, any extra exposure would have been incidental and unlikely to affect the outcomes of the statistical analyses applied. The same vocabulary test (see Appendix A) was used for data collection in each session; thus, making any overall improvements shown between sessions indicative of acquisition of the material. It could be argued that such improvements were merely results of the so-called practice effect and not actual acquisition, but in the present study acquisition is sought precisely through repetitious use of the target items, and the two-fold nature of the test (a matching section showing receptive gains and a sentence writing section showing

productive gains) was designed to reflect this. Furthermore, supporting the absence of any practice effect, the matching section's scores were not uniformly perfect, or entirely consistent, even at the very end of the study, which is where one would expect to see a practice effect if it were indeed taking place. The same criteria were used when marking each test and all of the marking was done by the researcher. Each test question was worth one point and either fully correct or fully incorrect. In the sentence writing section of the test, where judgments would have to be made as to what determines "correct," the following two sub-criteria were used: 1) Is it demonstrative of meaning? (Does the sentence indicate that the meaning of the item is understood? e.g. "I like my toolbox" would be incorrect, as there is nothing describing what exactly a "toolbox" is, whereas, "I took my hammer from my toolbox" would be correct.), and 2) Is it accurate? (Is the sentence reasonably grammatically correct?) All aspects of grammar were included in this second sub-criterion with the exception of correct article use; some leniency was also given for prepositions (e.g. "I played soccer on my backyard" was considered to have met this criterion despite the incorrect "on"). Correct spelling of words other than those being studied, however, was not a criterion as students were not allowed to use dictionaries during the tests and had the further pressure of a time limit (fifteen minutes) in completing the test. The justifications for the above controls are as follows: Although the researcher circulated the room during each treatment session helping students construct original sentences using the target items, it was naturally not possible for the researcher to be everywhere at once, and therefore, instructions were given for improving sentence writing to each class as a whole at the beginning of each treatment session, as otherwise students would have limited opportunities for acquiring the material productively. The time limit on each test reduced the possibility of subjects arriving at a correct answer merely by chance, as the pressure to finish the test required the subjects to move quickly through the sections—

either they knew the material or they did not. Finally, the scores on each test were not counted towards the subjects' class grades, meaning that the subjects would be less likely to study the material outside of the treatment sessions and also less likely to cheat on the tests themselves, improvements shown could, therefore, be assumed to indicate acquisition of the material through the methods employed.

Procedure
The present study was conducted over the course of one semester, comprising of fourteen ninety-minute class periods during which the pre-treatment session and ten treatment sessions took place. In the pre-treatment session the subjects were given a surprise vocabulary pre-test of the items to be studied in order to ascertain their initial level of knowledge. This same test was, then, used for all subsequent data collection (see Appendix A). Following the surprise pre-test, a list of the vocabulary items (see Appendix B) was distributed to each subject and the L1 equivalent for each item was verbally provided, and subjects were encouraged to take notes on the L1 meaning of each item but were not required to do so. All of the items used in the study were taken from the course textbook (*Fifty-Fifty: A speaking and listening course, Book One*, W. Wilson and R. Barnard, 2007, Hong Kong: Pearson Longman). The subjects were, then, provided with a blank sheet of paper and instructed to divide it into sixteen equal squares and draw whatever pictorial representation of each vocabulary item they thought best fit the item in question, with one square used per item. The subjects were not allowed to write either the L2 target word or the L1 meaning on the cards, only the picture they chose to draw. The squares were then cut into cards which became each subject's card set. In the first through the tenth treatment sessions, the following pattern was employed: 1) The subjects made groups of three or four and used all of the group members' cards to play either the "Memory" or "Go Fish" game(s) for ten minutes. 2) While playing those games, the subjects were required to verbally state the vocabulary item represented by each card, and in the case that

a pair was made, they were further required to verbally state an original sentence using the vocabulary item in question. Subjects were allowed to use their word lists and/or dictionaries during the playing of the game(s). 3) Immediately following the game time, the same vocabulary test was given to each subject, and all subjects were allowed fifteen minutes to complete the test. Subjects were not allowed to use their word lists or dictionaries while taking the test. During the time spent playing the games, the researcher circled the room to encourage subjects to state the items on the cards and help with sentence creation as needed. Additionally, prior to the first through tenth sessions, a brief reminder by the researcher on the need to make sentences that demonstrate meaning was given along with some examples. No model sentences were provided by the researcher in any format other than verbal. Subjects were not allowed to keep any of the vocabulary tests administered. The test results were then analyzed using Paired Samples T-tests (for repeated measures) supported by non-parametric Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks tests. For each of the analyses administered, the previous tests' results were used as one "group" and compared with the current tests' results as the other "group" (also comprising the pairs used in the Wilcoxon matched pairs analysis). This was done to discover the point at which, if any, a significant difference emerged both for receptive knowledge (as measured by the matching portion of the test)

and productive knowledge (as measured by the sentence writing portion of the test), and further, whether a basis could be found for a threshold at which most subjects passed from a receptive knowledge to a productive one. Appendix C contains a chart indicating how this analysis was organized (note that 'Test 0' is the surprise pre-test); scores were removed for subjects that were absent on either test day in the pairing prior to any analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The mean score on the receptive pre-test was 74.58%, and following the first treatment session the mean scores stayed very close to one-hundred percent for the duration of the study. The receptive scores for tests 1-10 were as follows: 96.42%, 97.70%, 99.49%, 98.89%, 99.23%, 99.29%, 99.76%, 99.15%, 98.59%, and 99.36%. The mean scores on the productive tests showed much more variation; however. The mean score on the pre-test was 4.63%, with the productive scores for the treatment sessions (tests 1-10) as follows: 11.85%, 20.69%, 27.05%, 34.69%, 39.62%, 43.81%, 51.31%, 56.61%, 57.05%, and 66.54%. As a visual inspection of this distribution shows, the mean scores continued to rise after each treatment session, and the subjects demonstrated a large improvement overall in their ability to productively use the material tested (see Table 1, below).

Table 1: Receptive and productive test means (%)

Test	Receptive Mean (%)	Productive Mean (%)
0 (pre-test)	74.58	4.63
1	96.42	11.85
2	97.70	20.69
3	99.49	27.05
4	98.89	34.69
5	99.23	39.62
6	99.29	43.81
7	99.76	51.31
8	99.15	56.61
9	98.59	57.05
10	99.36	66.54

Paired Samples T-tests (for repeated measures) were performed on the data gathered from the ten treatment sessions. The data were not normally distributed in all cases however, and so additional non-parametric Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks tests were also performed to corroborate the 2-tailed significance scores from the T-tests. These analyses were applied to determine how much processing was needed for receptive and productive acquisition of the material, and at which point—that is, after how many treatment sessions—a significant difference may emerge indicating a sudden and noticeable gain in productive acquisition of the material, i.e. a memory threshold being crossed from a receptive knowledge to a productive one. However, the results of both analytical tests used did not support the existence of such a threshold (see Interpretation, below). The alpha levels set for each test were .05, and all of the Paired Samples T-test scores were supported by the Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test scores: where the T-tests showed a significant difference, the Wilcoxon tests did as well, and vice versa (see Tables 2 and 3, below).

On the receptive test data, the T-test 2-tailed significance scores (p) and Wilcoxon matched pairs scores (W) were as follows: For the pre-test and test 1 p=.000 with W=.000; for tests 1 and 2 p=.207 with W=.181; for tests 2 and 3 p=.105 with W=.098; for tests 3 and 4 p=1.000 with W=1.000; for tests 4 and 5 p=1.000 with W=1.000; for tests 5 and 6 p=.322 with W=.276; for tests 6 and 7 p=.289 with W=.285; for tests 7 and 8 p=.200 with W=.163; for tests 8 and 9 p=.533 with W=.458; and for tests 9 and 10 p=.160 with W=.102. As can be seen from these results, a significant difference only emerged after the first treatment session (with all other scores above the alpha level), the questionable meaning of which is discussed more fully below (see Interpretation).

The productive test data were equally uniform with the receptive but in the opposite direction, with all pairs, save one, (tests 8 and 9) showing a significant difference. The productive test T-test 2-tailed significance

and Wilcoxon matched pairs scores were as follows: For the pre-test and test 1 p=.000 with W=.000; for tests 1 and 2 p=.000 with W=.000; for tests 2 and 3 p=.011 with W=.008; for tests 3 and 4 p=.000 with W=.000; for tests 4 and 5 p=.025 with W=.037; for tests 5 and 6 p=.015 with W=.011; for tests 6 and 7 p=.000 with W=.001; for tests 7 and 8 p=.000 with W=.001; for tests 8 and 9 p=.541 with W=.360; and for tests 9 and 10 p=.000 with W=.000. It should be noted that in the cases where either p or W equaled .000 there was an associated value of some kind, however miniscule, but the statistical software used in the analysis only generated a score out to three decimal points.

In response to the original research question and sub-question, some potentially interesting results were found regarding both receptive and productive acquisition of the material, as well as the presence or absence of a possible memory threshold, discussed separately below.

Regarding the amount of processing needed to receptively acquire knowledge of the material studied, it was found that a significant difference emerged between the pre-test and the first treatment session. On the face of it, it would appear from this result that only a single study session was necessary for the subjects to gain a receptive knowledge of the items, but the initially high scores on the pre-test (mean of 74.58%) seem to indicate otherwise. Although the subjects' mean scores moved from 74.58% to 96.42%—a considerable improvement —after the first session, the researcher cannot help but feel that this improvement was due to the subjects brushing up on pre-existing vocabulary knowledge rather than acquiring new knowledge. That the mean scores thereafter remained very close to 100% does appear to indicate solid acquisition of the material, but it is the researcher's judgment that stating from this that only one treatment session is sufficient processing time for acquisition to occur would be inappropriate.

As for the amount of processing required for productive knowledge of the material to be acquired, the results found here are

slightly more problematic. Although the subjects' mean scores demonstrated a steady increase (starting at a pre-test mean of 4.63% and then going from 11.85% after the first treatment session to 66.54% after the tenth), the consistent occurrence of significant differences in the statistical analysis of the data makes it difficult to pinpoint just where a cut-off line could be placed. If one were to suggest the point at which the mean exceeded 50%, then that point would be after the seventh session (51.31%), but such a distinction seems arbitrary and is not supported by either the Paired Samples T-test or Wilcoxon matched pairs results, since each grouping of test data revealed a significant difference except for the eighth and ninth. The ninth session itself presents its own set of problems, as the mean score increased by the smallest amount after that session (only 0.44% above the eighth session's mean), and as mentioned, there was no significant difference found between the eighth and ninth sessions alone in all of the treatment sessions' data.

Table 2: Receptive test Paired Samples T-test 2-tailed significance and Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test scores

Test	Paired Samples T-test 2-tailed significance scores (p)	Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test scores (W)
0 (pre-test) and 1	.000	.000
1 and 2	.207	.181
2 and 3	.105	.098
3 and 4	1.000	1.000
4 and 5	1.000	1.000
5 and 6	.322	.276
6 and 7	.289	.285
7 and 8	.200	.163
8 and 9	.533	.458
9 and 10	.160	.102

The reasons for this anomaly may have been environmental. As the researcher recalls, it was extremely hot and humid that day and the university at which the present study took place had been refraining from using the air conditioning in an effort to save power, the resulting discomfort may have affected subjects' motivation and caused them to be less willing to put effort into their sentence writing. Such reasoning is merely intuitive, however, and not supported by any data. Nevertheless, the overall trend of improvement and the consistent emergence of significant differences indicate that, again, no set processing time can be said to definitively be required for productive acquisition to take place.

Finally, regarding the research sub-question, whether or not there is a basis for a threshold at which the majority of subjects move from a receptive knowledge to a productive one, the results taken together point to the absence of such a threshold. Although the subjects quickly demonstrated strong receptive knowledge of the material, both the steady improvement in productive test scores and repeated statistically significant differences between tests point to productive knowledge of the material being acquired on a continuum rather than crossing a definable threshold. Moreover, the lack of any sudden and noticeable jump in the mean scores themselves appears to support this.

The findings of the present study would benefit from similar research done in the future, particularly if done over a longer period of time, with a wider variety of subjects, and with a set of vocabulary items that were completely

unknown at the outset of the study. A data collection device that included more than one type of testing mechanism each for receptive and productive knowledge may also help strengthen the results reported here. Finally, a study that could ensure the attendance of each subject for each treatment session would also likely prove to be advantageous.

Table 3: Productive test Paired Samples T-test 2-tailed significance and Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test scores

Test	Paired Samples T-test 2-tailed significance scores (p)	Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test scores (W)
0 (pre-test) and 1	.000	.000
1 and 2	.000	.000
2 and 3	.011	.008
3 and 4	.000	.000
4 and 5	.025	.037
5 and 6	.015	.011
6 and 7	.000	.001
7 and 8	.000	.001
8 and 9	.541	.360
9 and 10	.000	.000

The study had its limitations. A similar study done over a longer period of time may yield more robust data than that presented here. The number of ten vocabulary tests used to collect subjects' data (excluding the standard-setting pre-test ('Test 0')) was chosen arbitrarily to maximize the potential possible within the confines of a single semester, a limitation stemming from the quasi-experimental setting. Had it been possible to extend the study, treatment sessions organized on an optimal spacing basis may also have resulted in more reliable data; studies have shown such a schedule to be advantageous for learning and long-term retention of a variety of materials, including L2 vocabulary (Baddeley, 1997; Bahrick, Bahrick, Bahrick & Bahrick, 1993; Hulstijn, 2001; Mizuno, 1996, 2003). Moreover, as the mean receptive score of 74.58% on the pre-test ('Test 0') indicates, the subjects had an initially high receptive knowledge of the material, a factor that limited the usefulness of the analysis applied in response to the research question and sub-question. The final two limitations were also results of the non-laboratory setting and included some subjects forgetting their vocabulary card sets, lists, or both, and the unexpected absences of some subjects. In the case of the former, subjects were instructed to share the sets and/or lists with the other members of their group, and in the latter, their scores were removed from the data before any analysis was done.

CONCLUSION

In the research reported here a significant difference was found between the pre-test and first treatment session test for receptive knowledge of the material, and between all paired tests, save the eighth and ninth sessions', for productive knowledge on a repeated measures study of vocabulary acquisition. The experimental method made use of recent findings on memory formation, distinctions in types of vocabulary knowledge, image association, the phonological loop, and aspects of test design in foreign language study. Although acquisition of the material was demonstrated for both receptive and

productive knowledge, the analysis did not reveal specific processing times required for such gains or any basis for a threshold between receptive and productive knowledge. It is, therefore, argued that these findings point to vocabulary acquisition occurring on a continuum and in the absence of a definable threshold.

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Appendix A: Vocabulary test of items studied

English II Semester 1: Vocabulary Test

Name:_____ Student Number: _____

A. Matching: Match the words with their Japanese meanings

A.～分かかる	B. 引き出し	C. 富	D. 独身である	E. 主婦/主夫
F. 暖炉	G. 作業台	H. 工具箱	I. ちょうど	J. 裏庭
K.一人で	L. 外食する	M. 十二宮図	N. 独立	O. 窓台

1. be single ____
2. zodiac sign ____
3. independence ____
4. takes ~ minutes ____
5. backyard ____
6. windowsill ____
7. fireplace ____
8. toolbox ____
9. homemaker ____
10. fortune ____
11. eat out ____
12. alone ____
13. drawer ____
14. on the dot ____
15. workbench ____

Name:_____ Student Number: _____

B. Sentence writing: Write one original sentence for each of the vocabulary items from the list.

be single   zodiac sign   independence   takes ~ minutes   backyard
windowsill   fireplace   toolbox   homemaker   fortune   eat ou
alone   drawer   on the dot   workbench

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____
6._____
7._____
8._____
9._____
10._____
11._____
12._____
13._____
14._____
15._____

Appendix B: List of vocabulary items studied

<u>English II Semester 1: Vocabulary List</u>
1. be single
2. zodiac sign
3. independence
4. takes ~ minutes
5. backyard
6. windowsill
7. fireplace
8. toolbox
9. homemaker
10. fortune
11. eat out
12. alone
13. drawer
14. on the dot
15. workbench

Appendix C: Paired Samples T-test and Wilcoxon matched pairs signed ranks test data analysis organization chart

Data analysis sequence	Receptive results compared	Productive results compared
1st analysis	Test 0 (pre-test) and Test 1	Test 0 (pre-test) and Test 1
2nd analysis	Test 1 and Test 2	Test 1 and Test 2
3rd analysis	Test 2 and Test 3	Test 2 and Test 3
4th analysis	Test 3 and Test 4	Test 3 and Test 4
5th analysis	Test 4 and Test 5	Test 4 and Test 5
6th analysis	Test 5 and Test 6	Test 5 and Test 6
7th analysis	Test 6 and Test 7	Test 6 and Test 7
8th analysis	Test 7 and Test 8	Test 7 and Test 8
9th analysis	Test 8 and Test 9	Test 8 and Test 9
10th analysis	Test 9 and Test 10	Test 9 and Test 10

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TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS AND USE OF ASSESSMENT IN STUDENT LEARNING

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Abstract: Education and schooling involve not only materials to be taught or how they should be taught but also how the teaching and learning are assessed. Studying teachers' conceptions is important, as it relates to beliefs which influence teaching practices, including assessment. This article reviews several studies on teachers' conceptions and practices of assessment conducted in six different countries. The objective of the study is to presents teachers' conceptions of the role of assessment in teaching and learning from different contexts. Data were obtained from a careful review of international articles on the study of teachers' conception of assessment using inclusion and exclusion criteria. The result of the review reveals that assessment relates to learning improvement and support the use of various strategies and tools in assessing students. However, the six different countries in the review interpret improvement in different ways which is influenced by several factors. Implications and suggestions for further study are also provided.

Keywords: assessment, conceptions, review, improvement, accountability

Abstrak: Pendidikan dan sekolah tidak hanya melibatkan bahan ajar atau bagaimana bahan ajar tersebut harus diajarkan, tapi juga bagaimana proses belajar dan mengajar dinilai. Mempelajari konsepsi para guru penting karena berhubungan dengan kepercayaan yang mempengaruhi praktek mengajar, termasuk penilaian. Artikel ini meninjau beberapa kajian terhadap konsepsi dan praktek penilaian para guru yang dilaksanakan di enam negara. Tujuan tinjauan ini untuk menjabarkan konsepsi para guru terhadap peran penilaian dalam proses belajar dan mengajar dari konteks yang berbeda. Data diperoleh dari tinjauan terhadap makalah internasional mengenai konsepsi guru terhadap penilaian dengan menggunakan kriteria inklusi dan eksklusi. Hasil dari tinjauan tersebut mengungkapkan bahwa penilaian berhubungan dengan peningkatan hasil belajar dan mendukung penggunaan berbagai strategi dan alat dalam menilai siswa. Akan tetapi, keenam negara yang dipelajari dalam tinjauan tersebut menerjemahkan peningkatan dalam belajar secara berbeda karena dipengaruhi oleh beberapa faktor. Peneliti juga memberikan implikasi dan saran untuk penelitian yang akan datang.

Katakunci: penilaian, konsepsi, tinjauan, peningkatan, pertanggungjawaban,

Teaching is complex; it involves elements such as curriculum, subject matter and epistemology, teaching and learning, and also assessment and evaluation. In other words, the core process of education and schooling engages the nature of what is taught, how that content is taught and learned, and how that teaching/learning is assessed and evaluated (Brown, 2008). Thus, the study of teaching relates to how these are understood and applied by teachers.

The complexity of effective teaching and learning relates to teachers' personal conception and theory of teaching practice (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). It is evident that teachers' conceptions of aspects in education process such as teaching, learning and curricula strongly influence their teaching and students' learning (Calderhead, 1996; Thompson, 1992). Conception, belief, perception will be used interchangeably through this review.

Conception or belief is part of the knowledge that every practitioner needs to have. Moreover, personal and professional knowledge of a teacher can be regarded as belief (Kagan, 1992). Belief also becomes personal pedagogy to guide teachers' practice of teaching. It helps teachers to define teaching tasks and organizing knowledge and information related to those tasks (Nespor, 1987). This implies that teachers' belief or conception influences their technique and practice of assessment (Kahn, 2000).

Researchers define assessment in various ways. The most general definition states that assessment is "evidence of performance" (Wiliam & Black, 1996, 540). It "involves making decisions about what is relevant evidence for a particular purpose, how to collect the evidence, how to interpret it and how to communicate it to intended users" (Harlen, 2005, p. 207). More specifically, Hattie and Timperley (2007) defined assessment as "activity used to assess students' level of proficiency" (p. 101). Thus, assessment can be grouped into formative and summative purposes. Forma-tive assessment aims to improve learning and is conducted during the learning process involving feedback to inform students' performance. The latter type of assessment (summative), which aims to certify student learning, is conducted at the end of a learning period and involves scoring and grading.

Whatever the differences of assess-ment, teachers are the leading actor in the learning process and first interpreter of assessment information and process into learning. Thus, it is important to investigate teachers' conception of assessment and how they make use of it. This study looks closely at teachers' conception of the role of assessment in teaching and learning.

To present evidence-based practice in the area of teachers' conception and use of assessment, I provide a review of studies on teachers' conception and practice of assessment from six different countries. The objective of this review is to present teachers' beliefs about assessment from different contexts, how they translate their belief into practice and what factors influence their conception.

This review is divided into five main sections. The first section explains the study. The second section describes the method used for the study, followed by an overview of the articles. Section four discusses and critiques the articles and closes with summary of the review.

METHOD

The review draws attention to the need for research that examines teachers' conception and practice of assessment from different parts of the world. In order to study this issue, I conducted a search to find studies investigating the conception of teachers about assessment and the implication of this belief for their teaching practice.

I searched the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and ProQuest Education Complete, and used the internet search engine and Victoria library journal finder in the areas of belief, conceptions, understanding, assessment, evaluation, test, learning, teaching, achievement, improve-ment, primary, elementary and secondary school level. The various literature searches resulted in 13 studies which led me to apply the exclusion and inclusion criteria.

To be included in this review, the article had to be a research study that examined teachers' conceptions and use of assessment to improve student learning. Criteria for inclusion cover studies con-ducted at elementary or

secondary school level, accomplished in different contexts to present different beliefs and related factors, carried out in language learning context and completed within the last twenty years. Studies that focused on impact of assess-ment on teachers and student learning (Journell, 2011; Amrein & Berliner, 2002; Choi, 2008; Smith, 1991), sounded more analytical than research (Hargreaves, 2005), were conducted at tertiary level (Iqbal, Azam & Abdiollah, 2009), or evaluated subjects other than English (Adams and Hsu, 1998) were not included.

Overview of articles

From 13 potential studies, 7 studies were excluded, leaving 6 studies investigating elementary and secondary school teachers' conception and use of assessment in learning for summary and analysis. Before presenting the summary of the reviewed articles, it is advantageous to distinguish among the assessment conceptions used in Brown's study, as these conceptions are the bases of subsequent studies (Brown, Lake and Matters, 2011; Brown, Kennedy, Fok, Chan and Yu, 2009; and Bonner and Chen, 2009)**.**

The *improvement* conception empha-sizes the use of information to produce valid changes in teaching and learning (Brown, 2008). Teachers who view assessment in this way believe that assessment should improve students' learning and the quality of their teaching (Black and Wiliam, 1998; Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2003). This conception requires teachers to make valid, reliable and accurate descriptions of students' performance (Brown, 2002). Various strategies and techniques used in teachers' practice include informal teacher-based intuitive judgement and formal assessment tools. These techniques function to 'identify the content and process of student learning with the explicit goal of improving the quality and accuracy of instruction and/or enabling students to improve their own learning' (Harris & Brown, 2008, p. 2).

Brown's *school accountability* con-ception is used to account for the teacher's schools, or a system's use of society's resources. This assessment imposes con-sequences for reaching or not reaching required standards (Firestone, et al., 1998). It also demonstrates whether school or teachers are doing a good job (Butterfield, et al., 1999). To this end, teachers who equate assessment with school accountability emphasize two rationales: demonstrating school and teacher quality instruction (Smith & Fey, 2000) and improving the quality instruction (Linn, 2000).

The *student accountability* conception holds students individually accountable for their learning. Grading and scoring, criterion reference tests, awarding certificates or qualification based on performance are examples of this assessment in practice (Harris, & Brown, 2008). To fulfil the purpose of student accountability, certifi-cation of attainment is needed, which reveals that this conception is more about placing student through high stakes consequences such as graduation, selection or public reporting (Guthrie, 2002).

The conception of *irrelevant* is held when teachers reject assessment for a number of reasons. In these cases, assess-ment is seen to be separated from the teaching and learning process (Harlen, 1998). Teachers with irrelevant conceptions may feel that, assessment affects their autonomy and professionalism negatively and narrows the purposes of learning (Smith, 1991). Teachers may also believe that assessment is less valid and unreliable (Brown, 2002; Shohamy, 2001).

These four purposes of assessment underpin Brown's TCoA, which has subsequently been used and adapted in several countries. Among them were conducted in Queensland (Brown, et al., 2011), Virginia, USA (Calaveric, 2010), Ankara, Turkey, (Vardar, 2010), Hong Kong (Brown, et al., 2009), and China (Li and Hui, 2007).

The following is the summary of the topic, participants, methods and main

findings for each of the six included studies. Brown, Lake and Matters (2011) conducted a study on Queensland teachers' conceptions of assessment. The participants of the study came from primary and secondary school teachers. Total partici-pants were 1398 teachers from 92 state schools in Queensland Australia. Most teachers participating in the study taught at levels 1-10 (elementary) where no high-stakes test was applied. In short, the participants were 784 primary teachers and 614 secondary teachers. 65 of the participants had 4-5 years teaching expe-rience and 52% of them had graduate diplomas. A questionnaire-based survey was the method of data collection and was conducted in 2003. The survey examined teachers' attitudes, beliefs and practices in the areas of curriculum, pedagogy and assessment. The instrument used was a 27-item conception of assessment inventory which was wrapped in a positively packed agreement rating scale with two negative options and four positive options. In addition, the study used four conceptions of assessment as the framework reflecting three purposes and one anti-purpose of assessment, namely assessment for im-provement, assessment for school accountability, assessment for student accountability and irrelevant. This frame-work was supported with components clarifying the conceptions of assessment. The study found that primary school teachers agreed more than secondary teachers that assessment improves teaching and learning while the latter agreed more that assessment makes students account-table. It also contended that irrelevance and students accountability conception were not related for primary school teachers. The fact that Queensland primary schooling was free from high-stakes test influenced teachers' conception of assessment. However, all participants contended that improvement conception was the opposite of irrelevant conception. It implies that assessment is bad if it is focused on students' accountability and is inaccurate to reflect students' learning or school accountability. The study also found that improvement was positively associated with demonstrating the school accountability and showed no systematic relationship with student accountability. The study concludes that teachers in this research believe in assessment as a tool to improve learning. The relationship is supported with the context of low-stakes assessment designed to improve classroom practice which allows teachers to improve learning in a self-manage manner. The study indicates that in the context of low-stakes test, teacher perceived assessment as improving learning and relied more on the practice of formative assessment where teachers can use numbers of assessment format and provide feedback to students.

Applying the same instrument to a different context, Brown, Kennedy, Fok, Chan and Yu (2009) revealed dissimilar findings in the second study. The re-searchers examined Hong Kong teachers' perceptions and practices of assessment. Two hundred and eighty-eight primary and secondary school teachers from 14 schools participated in the study. 80% of them were female and 87% were primary school teachers. More than half of teachers had taught for more than 10 years. General-ization of the study is limited to teachers who participated in APL (Assessment for Productive Learning) project developed by a team of researchers at the Hong Kong institute of education. Similar to Queens-land's study, the research also used self-administered questionnaires with close-ended rating scales of two constructs: conception of assessment and assessment practice. The different context where the study was carried out required the researchers to translate the framework and questionnaires into Chinese. This transla-tion was reviewed and validated by a team of expert panel to ensure any technical terms had the right equivalent to English. The finding reveals that teachers believed assessment as improving learning. This exactly fits with findings from the previous study conducted in Queensland. Hong Kong teachers also perceived that students' accountability was related to learning im-provement. However, the correlation bet-ween improvement conception

and stu-dents' accountability conception was inter-preted differently between the two groups. The low-stakes assessment context in Queensland supported teachers to use feedback in formative assessment practice. On the contrary, Hong Kong created a high-stakes assessment context which encouraged teachers to rely on test and examination as measurement of improvement. Hong Kong teachers believed that examination was the mirror of student competence. This issue is a culturally embedded value shared among Chinese and those with Confucian heritage among the Asian region. The value might become the constraints of assessment reform in this context. This report describes different conceptions of assessment which tells that different contexts might view assessment in different perspectives. Cultural factors and policy systems seem to be crucial components in forming people's belief and conception.

The third study investigates teachers' perception about teachers' assessment in relation to grading practices and learning views (Bonner and Chen, 2009). The participants were teacher candidates who were enrolled in 3 courses offered at the Hunter College City University New York. The total numbers of the participants were 222, which was representative of teacher candidates in the university in terms of gender, and ethnic diversity. Similar to previous studies, this research also used survey to probe teachers' concept of assessment practices and views of learning. The survey examined teachers' perception and actual practice and asked teachers to reflect on the basis of final semester grades in a single class. In addition, the question-naires focused more on perception rather than on practice. The study suggests that elementary and secondary school teachers were not supporting lax grading approach but supported the academic enabling approach to grading that relied on alternative assessment. However, elementary school teachers endorsed a constructivist approach more and believed in alternative assessment such as portfolio and project work as the source of information for students' performance. Conversely, secondary

school teachers supported the behavioural management approach to grading and used more traditional approach and traditional management approach. This finding implies that secondary school teachers sometimes used assessment to punish their students. Interestingly, these teachers reported that they tended to change their perception of assessment after participating in assessment training. The findings reveal different conceptions and views of learning between elementary and secondary teachers in New York.

Conceptions of assessment held by trainee teachers who attended a post-graduate certificate in education at the University of Cambridge were also inves-tigated in UK (Winterbottom, Brindley, Taber, Fisher, Finney, & Riga, 2008). Two hundred and twenty secondary trainee teachers participated in the study. Using 31-item questionnaire with Likert, the research found three major conceptions of assessment reported by participants. They were: (1) making learning explicit; (2) promoting learning autonomy; and (3) gaining better performance. The first two conceptions were related to learning improvement and rated as the most important purposes of assessment. However, although the third conception ranked lowest, participants reported that this purpose was the strongest feature of their practice. The findings revealed that there was a huge awareness among participants of the importance of assessment for improve-ment. However, the learning environment and high-stakes policy system caused them to ignore their beliefs which Brown (2002) would describe as their holding irrelevance conceptions. This study reveals that although all teachers held and wished to practice improvement purposes of assessment, the difference in the teaching focus between the secondary schools and elementary schools tended to block their intention. Again, it is the matter of policy and educational system that teachers need to agree with and follow.

The influence of policy and education system was also captured in a qualitative study to seven upper secondary school teachers of different subjects in Finland

(Degbey, 2009). The focus of the study was exploring teachers' conceptions of assessment tools such as portfolio, perform-ance-based assessment, self and peer-assessment and observation. Teachers stated that these assessment tools had a positive effect on students' learning, motivation, performance and personal development. However, they also contended that preparing student for the school leaving examination contributed greatly to their teaching practices. These teachers held both improvement and accountability conceptions but needed to prepare their students for examination. Participants in the study preferred the assessment strategies and techniques suggested for improvement purposes; however, practices were inhibited to fulfil the policy demand for examination. This indicates that these teachers' conceptions related to the Finnish educational system and external assessment policy demands (Barnes, Clarke & Stephens, 2000). Their conceptions might have also been shaped by culture as those indicated by the study in Turkey (Vardar, 2010) and Hong Kong (Brown, et al., 2009).

The final study used in this review focused on upper primary level teachers' conception of assessment in Asian country. Noor, Muniandy, Krishnan and Mathai (2010) raised the issue of English oral assessment in Singapore. Similar to Finnish study, this is also a qualitative research involving only 10 teachers who were teaching at primary 5 and 6 levels. These teachers were the examiners of English oral assessment in PSLE (Primary School Leaving Examination). Data were collected mainly through semi-structured interviews and were recorded. Before conducting the real interview, the researchers piloted the interview questions to validate them. The interview was conducted 2 weeks after the PSLE oral assessment. The questions mainly focused on teachers' conception of important components for oral skills, challenge in conducting PLSE oral assessment, and PSLE assessment format. In addition to the interview, teachers' confidence and competence in conducting oral assessment were also rated using a 5-point Likert scale. The study showed that there was variance in

teachers' beliefs and perceptions of the extent that the PSLE English oral assessment is reliable to measure students' oral competence. The participants argued that PSLE only measured general pupils' oral skills and reflected the gap of oral assessment to assess students' life experience. The results also assert that the teachers had various perceptions of the challenges they faced in conducting PSLE, among those were unresponsive pupils and different interpretation of descriptors and rubrics between the examining partners. Remarkably, although the teachers perceived that PSLE was not reliable, they gave no specific suggestion on how to improve the test. This study confirmed that PSLE, which was summative in nature, although it did not reflect improvement in student learning, had an important position in describing student achievement. This was due to the policy of placing a high-stakes examination as the indicator of students' performance. Again, the conception of assessment reflects the cultural embedded values shared among people in the Asian region.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This review focuses on elementary and secondary school teachers' conception and use of assessment in student learning from several contexts. All these studies were published between 2009 and 2011. Summary of these studies reveal that assessment relates to learning improvement. It meets the basic purpose of assessment in education to support learning (Black and Wiliam, 2006). The study by Brown et al. (2011) and Bonner and Chen, (2009) indicated that teachers used several assessment tools and focused more on formative purposes of assessment practice. They used feedback to inform students' performance, share the learning goals in teaching, and involve students in assessment. Teachers reported that these activeties were conducted frequently and that these were how they used assessment to improve learning. The conception and practice

of assessment in the two studies (Brown et al. 2011 ; Bonner & Chen, 2009) reveal that assessment is something to do *with* and *for* students and not *to* students (Green, 1998). It also matches with Hattie and Jaeger's (1998) claim that "assessment needs to be an integral part of a model of teaching and learning" (p.111). Adversely, the dominant use of high-stakes assessment especially in higher level such those reported in Finland and UK tend to influence teachers to hold irrelevant conception. In addition, studies in Hong Kong and Singapore lead teachers to conceive that an examination or test is the appropriate tool to measure students' achievement. Ranking and competition derived from examination are believed to increase students' tension and ego as well as motivate them to study harder to be recognized as good students. That is how assessment is perceived to improve learning. These four studies contend a huge gap between east and west, which needs further investigation.

It is evident in some countries that summative assessment results in negative impact such as lowering teachers' capability to teach content and to use methods and materials that are incompatible with test format (Smith, 1991), creating gaps between high and low achieving students (Paris, Lawton, Turnet & Roth, 1991), and not really affecting student achievement (Amrein & Berliner, 2002). The condition motivates most western countries to focus more on formative assessment. However, this evidence is insufficient enough for an eastern context in terms of changing people's beliefs of the importance of examination to measure students' perform-ance. Furthermore, the practice of feedback is hardly adopted in Asian classes due to the large number of students in one class (34-40) compared to smaller sizes in western countries. These differences imply that assessment provides tools that can be used in a variety of ways. However, the choice and deployment of the tools and the interpretation of the results depend on educational system, public and political influences (Black and Wiliam, 2005).

It is not reasonable to judge that one practice of assessment is better than the other. Great inequality between eastern and western in terms of teaching framework should be considered. Both areas adopt different views of learning as can be seen in the application of product approach versus process approach, learning by understanding versus learning by doing and focus on form versus focus on meaning (Senior & Xu, 2001). These differences significantly lead to different beliefs and practices and also systems of assessment.

The strong bond in culture is another issue in forming teachers' conceptions of assessment. The influence can be seen from Hong Kong study that, although the country was colonized by British, and English is emphasized in the language curriculum, the English education system had a very little influence on teachers' practice (Sweeting & Vickers, 2007). The huge numbers of refugees moving from China to Hong Kong after the Civil War in China in 1949 caused Hong Kong to adopt a screening mechanism for schooling (Berry, 2011). Up until now, teachers, education officials and parents have believed that examination is the best qualification indicator and the main deter-minant for admission to either secondary or tertiary education in Hong Kong (Choi, 1999). As a result, even though Hong Kong for almost eleven years now has taken assessment for learning seriously, the high-stakes social function of assessment, either in teachers' conceptions or practice, tends to block the reform agenda (Kennedy, Chan, Fok & Yu, 2008; Brown, et al., 2008).

Lessons from these studies suggest a gap between interpretations of assessment in English speaking countries and non-English speaking countries and signify that the culture in different sites may contribute to dissimilar conceptions and practice of assessment. In response, Brown et al. (2009) have suggested that to be effective, a policy initiator should identify and respond to teachers' conceptions before implementing new plans for educational reform. Cultural factors may hold particular relevance given that assessment values among

Confucian peoples and European countries may differ from those held in the West (Kennedy et al., 2008).

The studies in this review involved 2145 people in total. Participants were elementary and secondary school teachers and mostly had 5 years or more teaching experience. One of the studies had more than one thousand participants, three studies involved hundreds of participants and two other were small scale case studies involving only seventeen teachers. It implies that four studies were quantitative and two were qualitative. The large numbers of participants in the first four studies indicate the use of survey design and questionnaires as the appropriate instrument to use. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) argued that survey research presents accurate information from a large number of people. Moreover, survey research is the procedure to obtain description of attitudes, beliefs, values, behaviours, opinions, characteristics and other types of information of the population (Creswell, 2005; MacMillan and Schumacher, 2010). To this end, survey research reflects the appropriate choice in investigating teachers' conceptions of assessment. In spite of this, a pilot test is the big concern in conducting survey research. It gives the researcher opportunity to revise the instrument and make it understandable, clearer and not ambiguous (Creswell, 2005). The fact that only two studies followed the procedure should suggest reflection for further research. In addition, the small scale studies in Finland and Singapore also mirror the right option of using interviews to collect data for measuring teachers' conception. However, it might be insufficient to echo the practice of assessment. Creswell (2005) asserted that "survey only describes trends in the data rather than offers rigorous explanation" (p. 351). He also insisted that Observation provides "the opportunity to record information as it occurs in a setting" (p. 211). Moreover, observation is needed to ensure that participants' statements match with what their action (Johnson and Christensen, 2008). Thus, more qualitative studies are needed for further research in the field as well as the use of observation and document analysis to support the interpretation of the result of the study.

The identification of themes and methodological issues in the studies of this topic suggest further investigation in eastern context, especially in the Asian region. Very limited study has been conducted within the area. Also, putting attention on certain levels of schooling will be beneficial to interpret data compared to analyzing it from both elementary and secondary schools. The latter issue is important because elementary and secondary schools applied dissimilar policies, which influence the different conceptions and practices of assessment and lead to difficulties in generalization and interpretation of data.

In terms of educational implication, this review suggests the importance of maintaining teachers' commitment to use assessment to improve learning. It also informs that teachers' conceptions of belief significantly relate to teaching practice. Furthermore, the different findings resulted from different contexts should encourage policy makers to revisit their policy. Queensland and New York governments should stimulate teachers with a robust conception that assessment improves teaching and learning and demonstrate accountability. Furthermore, more careful consideration in the intervention of a new assessment concept is needed by policy makers in Hong Kong. This issue is crucial due to the fact that broader cultural norms and school culture might become the main hindrance factor for assessment reform in the region. In addition, there should be more rooms provided for feedback in English oral assessment like PSLE in Singapore. Assessment reform should also involve all elements in education system in order to produce friendly and effective assessment system. Overall teachers need continuous support and training on assessment.

CONCLUSION

This literature review presents teachers' belief about assessment from different contexts, how

they translate their beliefs into practice and factors that influence their conception. It found that all participants conceived assessment as improving learning. However, this alignment was interpreted differently in practice.

Western context (represented by US, Queensland, UK and Finland) believed in the need of low-stakes assessment to meet the purpose. Furthermore, they also suggest that different curriculum level may lead teachers to have different conception due to different policy implemented in each level. On the other hand, Hong Kong and Singapore, which represent eastern context, imply that high-stakes assessment test informs students' achievement. Therefore, the examination is the appropriate instrument to measure student learning. This important difference entails that context, culture, view of learning and policy are factors that manipulate teachers' conceptions and practices of assessment.

This simple review is definitely insufficient to generalize the issue of conception and practice of assessment that further and deeper exploration in the field is needed to address. Learning from the studies presented in the review, conducting similar research in the qualitative paradigm and using various data collection methods such as observation and document analysis seem to be useful to present more accurate data.

In summation, the literatures on teachers' conceptions of assessment suggest that teachers believe both that assessment improves learning, and that assessment relates to school accountability. Beliefs that assessment improves learning may lead teachers to the practice of formative assessment. However, where teachers report a strong belief in high-stakes examination, they may adopt different assessment practices. Remarkably, from the six studies reviewed, two of them attributed government policy on education and examinations as the main contributors to teachers' conceptions. Some of the studies reported that a teacher's level of teaching (elementary and secondary or early year and final year) was also crucial in shaping teachers' belief of assessment. This may be the result of policy which directs teachers to a different focus of teaching and if there is a highly mandated examination conducted in students' last year of schooling.

Another important note from these studies is how the experience of teachers may determine their beliefs and concep-tions. Involvement in professional develop-ment program is reported by teachers as contributing positively to their conceptions and practices. Overall, a key difference from the studies found that culturally embedded assessment practices and educational policies determined teachers' beliefs about the purposes of assessment.

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TEACHER LEARNING WITHIN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT: AN ECOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: Central to teacher professional development is teacher learning, which is situated in a classroom, a school, or an informal social setting. Using an ecological framework which incorporates a wide range of influences at multiple levels, including intrapersonal, interpersonal/ cultural, institutional, and physical environment, this research sets out to explore the influence of the school context on teachers' engagement in informal learning activities. Data are collected through semi-structured open-ended interviews with six EFL teachers working in different upper secondary schools in Vietnam in an attempt to uncover what types of informal learning activities these teachers engage in and how the school context affects their engagement. Findings show multiple work-based factors that influence teacher learning in the school. The study provides evidence to teacher educators about the relationship between school context and teachers' degree of engagement in informal learning.

Keywords: ecological framework, professional development, informal learning, personal characteristics, teacher learning

Abstrak: Penting bagi perkembangan profesi guru adalah pembelajaran guru, yang disituasikan di sebuah kelas, sekolah, atau seting sosial nonformal. Dengan menggunakan kerangka kerja ekologi yang menggabungkan sejumlah besar pengaruh pada berbagai tingkatan, termasuk interpribadi, antarpribadi/budaya, institusi, dan lingkungan fisik, penelitian ini berusaha untuk menyelidiki pengaruh konteks sekolah terhadap keterlibatan guru dalam kegiatan belajar nonformal. Data dikumpulkan melalui wawancara semi terstruktur dan terbuka-tertutup dengan enam guru Bahasa Inggris untuk Penutur Asing yang bekerja di beberapa sekolah menengah di Vietnam sebagai usaha untuk menemukan jenis-jenis kegiatan belajar nonformal yang dilakukan oleh para guru ini dan bagaimana konteks sekolah mempengaruhi keterlibatan mereka dalam kegiatan tersebut. Temuan menunjukkan berbagai faktor berbasis pekerjaan yang mempengaruhi pembelajaran guru di sekolah. Kajian ini memberikan bukti bagi pendidik guru akan adanya hubungan antara konteks sekolah dengan tingkat keterlibatan guru dalam pembelajaran nonformal.

Katakunci: kerangka kerja ekologis, perkembangan profesi, pembelajaran nonformal, karakteristik pribadi, pembelajaran guru

As traditional approaches to formal teacher professional development such as attending training courses, conferences, reading professional journals, and attending graduate courses have proved to be "antithetical to what research findings indicate as promoting effective learning" (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 1999, p.192), a conducive working context which encourages teachers' informal learning has been considered a must for teachers to acquire new teaching competences (Hargreaves, 1997; Moor & Shaw, 2000; Redtallick, 1999; Scribner, 1999). Informal learning is characterised as being "implicit, unintended, opportunistic and unstructured" (Eraut, 2004, p. 254), including on-the-job activities such as peer learning, individual inquiry, and experiential learning (Scribner, 1999, p. 248). These activities are initiated by people in the workplace in an attempt to develop their professional knowledge and skills (Lohman, 2000). Lohman and Woolf (2001, p. 144) have found that teachers engage in the following types of informal learning activities:

- knowledge exchanging, in which teachers share and reflect on others' practice and experiences;
- experimenting, in which teachers actively experiment with new ideas and techniques; and
- environmental scanning, in which teachers independently scan and gather information from sources outside the school.

Teacher learning is a kind of adult learning, which is self-directed, goal-oriented, and activity-oriented (Houle 1961 as cited in Scribner 1999, p. 246). Therefore, it is motivated by an array of intra-psychological and interpsychological factors. Eraut, Alderton, Cole & Skenker (2000) have pointed out that work-based informal learning is affected by three inter-related factors: challenge, support and confidence. Later, Eraut (2004) elaborated on this inter-relatedness and stated:

> [I]f there is neither a challenge nor sufficient support to encourage a person to seek out or respond to a challenge, then confidence declines and with it the

motivation to learn. (p. 269)

Taking the community-of-practice perspective, Lave and Wenger (1991) have explained inter-relatedness as professionals trying to establish their identities by actively participating in the community of practice of which they belong so that they can become legitimate members of that community during the process of sharing expertise and ownership. Furthermore, as their identities become better established, they become more active participants.

The influence of school context on teacher learning to teach has interested researchers for a few decades (e.g. Lortie, 1975; Rosenholtz, 1989; Johnson, 1990), but knowledge about those influences remains limited (Smylie, 1988). One of the emerging guidelines for teacher development states that school communities should foster shared learning among teachers. Scribner (1999) has described the influences of teacher work context on teacher learning by developing a model of three inter-related conceptual categories: context, learning activities, and motivation to engage in learning. In his multiple-site case study, in which he interviewed 45 American high school teachers and 7 school administrators, the findings showed that teachers' learning was influenced by the school context (i.e. school leadership, scheduling, and school policies for professional development). However, the study was conducted on good teachers in an urban context of America, and because of this limitation, he raised the need of researching "the relationship between professional learning and a variety of work contexts" (Scribner, 1999, p. 262).

Conversely, there is empirical evidence of inhibitors of teachers' engagement in informal learning activities that are embedded in the school culture. For example, Lohman (2000) has listed four such inhibitors and these are: lack of time for learning; lack of proximity to learning resources; lack of meaningful rewards for learning; and limited decision-making power. Another study conducted by Lohman (2006) indicates that the degree of teachers' engagement in informal learning

activities depend on collegial availability and support as well as organizational climate for learning, and is inhibited by time constraints, inaccessibility to colleagues' work areas, and budget constraints. At the same time, the study reveals that personal characteristics such as initiative, self-efficacy, love of learning, interest in the profession, commitment to professional development, a nurturing personality, and an outgoing personality do affect teachers' engagement in informal learning activities. In a recent study conducted by Saito, Tsukui & Tanaka (2008) on primary school in-service teachers in a province of northern Vietnam, it was found that teacher learning was inhibited by a number of factors related to the school culture. These include the fast pace of the lesson, teachers' evaluative attitudes, and limited collaboration among teachers. This study focused on primary school teachers who were involved in a teacher development project funded by the Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA), and therefore, the question of teachers' engagement in informal learning activities in various Vietnamese upper secondary schools remains unaddressed.

In an attempt to narrow the afore-mentioned gap in research, this study focused on upper secondary school teachers who were working in a variety of contexts (urban, rural, and mountainous), as well as different types of schools (such as elite schools versus ordinary schools) in Vietnam to elicit their views of the impact of school culture on their engagement in informal learning activities. The study was conducted in a Vietnamese context in which teacher development focuses on raising the quality of English language teaching at the secondary school level towards the goal of improving students' communicative competence in English. Measures taken to promote this end include a greater emphasis on teachers' in-service workshops for the successful implementation of a new student-centered curriculum and mandated peer observation. Given the limited research on teacher learning in Vietnam, attempts to uncover the issue should be both inviting and informative.

The questions guiding this study are: 1) What types of informal learning activities do Vietnamese EFL upper-secondary school teachers rely on for professional development and how do they engage in those learning activities? and 2) What factors of the school context affect the degree of their engagement in informal learning activities?

METHOD

The present study employed the method and procedures of grounded theory to explore the influence of the school context on teachers' informal learning from an emic – or insider's – perspective. Data were collected through in-depth, semi-structured, open-ended interviews with a view to capturing phenomena in teachers' own words (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Six secondary school teachers, five female and one male, who were teaching in the upper secondary schools located in various geographical areas, the urban, the rural, and the mountainous, were interviewed. Hoa and Hai (pseudonyms) were teachers of elite schools – a kind of a specializing school for academically advanced students. Both schools were located in the urban area. San, Tan, Mai and Nam (pseudonyms) were teaching respectively in a disadvantaged highland, mountainous, coastal and rural area.

In an attempt to make the teachers comfortable in expressing themselves elaborately, all the interviews were conducted in Vietnamese and audio-recorded. A set of pre-prepared guiding questions was designed to seek teachers' views about the informal learning activities they engaged in and the influence of the school context, including the norms of practice, social trust, collegiality, leadership and resources that affected their engagement in informal learning activities. Then, the interviews were fully transcribed, and records were read several times in order to identify recurring ideas across transcripts. The coding was grounded in the data (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), rather than following *a priori* themes or categories. To

be more specific, we went through the data carefully and identified the concepts which formed categories as they emerged from the data. Then we compared and contrasted cases in order to establish the common patterns across cases as well as the particular of individual cases. Modifications and expansions of categories took place throughout the analytical process until the material was finally arranged in a meaning-ful way.

The data analysis was guided by the ecological framework (Bronfenbrenner, 1993), which refers to people's interactions with their physical and sociocultural surroundings. This framework incorporates a wide range of influences at multiple levels including intrapersonal (biological, psychological), interpersonal/cultural, institutional, and physical environment. The concept of ecology views the learning environment "as a complex adaptive system," the mind "as the totality of relationships between a developing person and the surrounding world," and learning "as the result of meaningful activity in an accessible environment" (van Lier, 1997, p. 783). Ecological approaches are grounded in the postmodern sciences of complexity, chaos and cognitive biology (Larsen-Freeman, 1997), which emphasise a complementary and integral mode of seeing wholes together with parts, and the connections that link separations.

The ecological framework is particu-larly suited for studying teacher learning at the workplace because this type of learning tends to occur in specific places. We believe that a teacher's learning environment is an ecosystem. It is a complex system of many parts and relationships of both biotic (e.g. the teacher, his or her students, the school principal, etc.) and abiotic components (e.g. the physical setting, the subject of teaching, etc.). This ecological framework views learning as a process of becoming prepared to effectively engage dynamic networks in the world in a goal-directed manner (Hoffmann & Roth, 2005). Studying characteristics of the school context that facilitate or hinder teacher learning, therefore, is a priority.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Teachers' Engagement in Informal Learning Activities: What and How?

The interview data show that there were three avenues via which the teachers developed their professional knowledge and skills: collaboration with colleagues (peer learning), individual inquiry, and experiential learning (see Scribner, 1999). However, it must be noted that the extent to which the teachers engaged in each avenue might vary depending on their experience with it and their confidence with its efficacy.

Peer Learning
Some endeavours to promote peer learning among school teachers are the institutionalisation of staff meetings, professional seminars, and peer observation, so that teachers can discuss and solve their emerging pedagogical problems collectively. However, despite this good intention, many teachers did not seem to be interested in those activities because the organization of such learning was not related in a meaningful way to the conflict between a teacher's personal "biography" and current practice (Nicholls, 2000).

In Vietnamese secondary schools, teachers are grouped according to their subjects. Teachers of each subject group are prescribed to meet at least once a month. Many schools even scheduled these meetings on a weekly or bi-monthly basis. Nevertheless, the teachers generally did not find the meetings useful to their professional growth. One of the reasons for this was that those meetings, instead of being a pro-fessional forum as they should have been, turned out to be a place for discussions of house-keeping of administrative issues (such as timetabling, or policies on test or examin-ation administration); and thus, leaving insufficient time for reflective discussions of teaching-related issues. For example, the following comments illustrate the nature of these meetings:

We do not discuss the syllabus or look at each lesson to flesh out the difficulties that teachers are facing. We are mainly informed of the weekly timetable so that teachers know what to teach and what to do in that particular week, and we are told what the test is going to be about, and when we have to submit our lesson plans for review. We rarely touch on pedagogical issues at the meetings. (Nam)

There is some discussion of professional concerns but the discussion time is limited (…). Too much time is spent on other activities. Usually, a meeting starts at 1:30 and sometimes might end very late-around 6 pm but we would spend only around one and a half hours at maximum on pedagogical issues. But even so, little is done within those one and a half hours. (San)

It was perhaps for this reason that most teachers felt the meetings only served to fulfil the school requirement rather than fulfil teachers' professional needs. When a staff meeting is used just as an opportunity to discuss personnel and administrative matters, teachers will become disinterested in participating (Birchak et al., 1998). One of the teachers in the following interview excerpt even suggested that she found personal interactions with colleagues a far better alternative formal meeting in terms of fulfilling her professional needs:

It is difficult to bring forth a real discussion at meetings. Sometimes I read about some interesting (teaching) idea which I would like to discuss with my colleagues but I rarely raise the issue at meetings. I would rather have conversations with colleagues at other times. We would feel much more comfortable that way. And we could feel freer to share our views. (Hai)

From time to time, during the staff meetings, teachers were expected to give collective feedback on their colleagues' or their own demonstration lessons. However, they found this activity counter-productive because of its evaluative nature. In many instances the feedback was given only on the shortcomings of the observed lessons, making the teachers involved feel uncomfortable. In the opposite instances, very little feedback was given just to avoid conflict. In both scenarios, teachers tended to develop a self-defensive and detached attitude and as a result, little real sharing was taking place (see Saito et al., 2008 for a similar discussion). This finding will be discussed further when we address classroom observations as a learning tool in the next section.

In addition to regular staff meetings, professional seminars are mandated to be organized every semester in every school. These seminars are intended to create a platform for teachers to disseminate their innovative and creative teaching ideas and promote collaborative interaction among colleagues. However, not every teacher who was interviewed found this activity satisfactory in terms of his or her own meaningful learning and collaboration for a number of various reasons. For example, a teacher commented about the lack of genuine intention to conduct the seminar on the part of her group leader, which she believed affected the group's plan and deprived interested teachers of the opportunities to share their professional concerns:

Although every month, every semester the school does lay out some plan for staff development, the implementation of this plan is not effective. In particular, we English teachers are required to give a seminar every semester (…) but I feel this is done only to show the school that we have done what they ask us to do. I have this feeling because there is a lack of close supervision at the group's level. For example, I was once told to prepare a seminar presentation and I did as I was told, but the seminar was, in fact, delayed until we were urged by the Principal and so it was done but there was a lack of a genuine intention. (…) Then another time

the Principal asked for an end-of-semester seminar paper. The group leader did not have one at hand, so he asked me to search for materials and quickly complete one and submit it to the school. I did as I was told, but it was only for the "display" purpose. In fact, my colleagues never had a chance to read the paper to know what was written about. (Mai)

Echoing her view, another teacher stated that the activity failed to allow teachers to share their experience and insights because it tended to be conducted only for the sake of promoting the school's reputation:

Every year, teachers who are nominated for the title "Excellence in Teaching" have to prepare a seminar paper to disseminate the innovative teaching methods that they employ. For example, last year I prepared a paper about students' phonological errors. When I was working on the paper, I did consult my colleagues. (…) This paper was then submitted to the Provincial Department of Education (DOE). Nominated teachers in all schools should send their papers to the DOE for a review. But we did not know where the papers were going to after that. So, although I wrote about my innovations, my colleagues would not have a chance to read my paper. (San)

Obviously, when the intention is good but is improperly realized, it is likely to become counter-productive in the sense that teachers would finally lose their confidence in its efficacy as a learning tool. The professional seminar is a sound professional development activity, but when it takes place in an environment of poor collegial collaboration, little real sharing would take place. This would seriously demoralize the presenters. For example, the following teacher mentioned a lukewarm, indifferent audience who seemed to show little interest in the presentations, thus substantially discouraging her and her other colleagues' participation for the next time:

Initially, the presenters were very enthusiastic and eager, but there were teachers who came to listen with a lukewarm attitude. So the presenters lost their motivation. And next time they would not want to present again because nobody seemed interested. (Mai)

However, when professional seminars are more properly organized, teachers can benefit from those seminars one way or another. Hoa, for instance, revealed that the teachers in her group, who were highly cooperative, were very enthusiastic about the seminars because they enjoyed the opportunity to exchange freely the innovative teaching tips and strategies that worked for their classes and they learned from colleagues. Participants then selected and tried out those teaching tips and strategies in their own classrooms. Furthermore, like teachers in other schools, she also had to submit her seminar paper to DOE for consideration for the title of "Excellence in Teaching," but she believed that even though the paper did not earn her the title, she had learned a lot in the process because the paper was prepared with the collaboration of other members in the group. This evidence acknowledges the significant role of teacher support groups in "providing opportunities for teachers to validate both teacher knowledge and teacher inquiry" (Lieberman & Grolnick, 1998, p. 723). Thus, professional seminars, when implemented properly, can have a great potential as an informal learning activity for teachers to engage in reflective and collaborative practices, which are necessary for their life-long professional development. Also, this supports Billett's (2001) view that expertise is reciprocal as professionals shape and are shaped by the community of practice.

Of all the informal learning activities, peer observation was mentioned as the most common professional activity carried out by the participants in this study. This is because, as mentioned above, peer observation is mandated to all schools teachers, who have to record their visits to other teachers' classes and report it to the inspectors by the end of

each semester. Yet, teachers seemed to be more concerned with their mandated duty to fulfil the required frequency of observations than with their pedagogical purposes, despite the importance that their schools attached to this activity. Many of them even stated in the interviews that if the activity had not been made compulsory and part of their performance appraisal, very few would have visited other teachers' classes. The reasons for their reluctance were time constraints, overlapping teaching schedules, and professionally-undefined purposes of observation.

The interviewed teachers felt that peer observation just added further burden to their already heavy teaching load. Very often, the teachers interviewed mentioned that they were "too busy to sit in colleagues' classes." Lack of time for learning (Lohman, 2006) is a real obstacle to teacher learning. As Huard (2001) has explained:

> Teachers are always busy and their work is complex – there is always another class to go to, a duty to supervise, work to correct, or administrative duties to fulfil. Often, in all the rush and complexity this core work of teaching and learning and the reflective work and celebration of teaching, slip further down or off the agenda. (p. 14)

The overlapped teaching schedule made it extremely difficult for them to arrange a regular peer observation. Even when they managed to observe their peers, they hardly had time "to sit down together for a reflective discussion of the lesson." But time constraints did not seem to be the most demotivating factor for peer observation. It was the low quality of observation which was resulted from the lack of social trust which allows teachers "to express themselves intellectually and emotionally, and know that such expression, and discussion of it, is legitimate and accepted" (Boud & Walker, 1998, p.200). The interview data show that not every teacher would be open to his or her colleagues about his or her feelings about the lesson. Some teachers mention

that they would give only fairly general and superficial comments just to avoid possible offence, unless the colleague was a close friend of theirs or if they felt comfortable with the person. For example, this teacher said:

> If this colleague is someone I feel close to, I will be most honest. If not, I would keep a distance (…). Some people might think highly of themselves. They might think their lessons are perfect and do not need anyone to advise them how to teach. (San)

Other teachers mentioned that they would hesitate to give feedback to senior teachers out of their respect to the latter. This type of mentality seemed to be influenced by Vietnamese culture, in which hierarchy defined by age indicates relative power status:

> Usually between us young teachers it is easier to give critical feedback, but if I observe a senior teacher's class, I would be very much hesitant in giving them my personal comments. (Tan)

Interestingly, a few teachers also emphasised that they would be more willing to share their thoughts if the peer observation was not for the purpose of appraisal. Otherwise, they felt uncomfortable to do so. For example, this teacher said:

> If it were not a mandated observation, which is for appraisal purpose, we would straight away tell what we like about the lesson, what we think we can or cannot adopt for our own students and for what reasons we say so. (Hoa)

This same teacher also mentioned that she often asked for permission to sit in with experienced teachers and that observing their classes made her realise both her strengths and weaknesses, and thus it was another critical source of learning for her.

Obviously, the traditional culture of peer observation in Vietnamese schools, which

is evaluation-oriented, has made classroom observation a threatening, frightening experience and is like an ordeal (Williams, 1989, p. 86) to the observed teachers. Thus, instead of being a learning activity, which gives teachers an opportunity to share difficulties, feelings, contexts, or even joy and "relate their own experiences and practices with the experiences and practices of those in another classroom" (Barth, 1990, cited in Saito et al., 2009, p. 97), peer observation may become a source of conflict that makes collegial collaboration alienating because of its evaluative nature. As pointed out by Saito et al. (2008, p. 97), the promotion of this type of judgmental behaviour can put up a barrier among teachers and consequently adversely affect their collaboration. According to the teachers in the interviews, some teachers even thought that asking for help would betray their ignorance. Apparently, this feeling of distrust was unlikely to be helpful, while peer observation, discussions with peers, and sharing materials should have been common practices of Vietnamese school teachers given the limited access to the global professional discourse or expert knowledge for improving their knowledge base.

Individual Inquiry

According to Scribner (1999), another way in which teachers can experience professional development is through individual inquiry. This study suggests certain evidence that teachers seek to broaden their knowledge of the subject matter and improve their pedagogical skills, despite the limited resources available. However, similar to what Scribner (1999) found with his teacher participants, the present study also found that teachers were more interested in acquiring content-related knowledge and knowledge that was "immediately applicable to their classroom contexts" rather than critically examining current pedagogical practices (Scribner, 1999, p. 247) because content knowledge enables them to make informed pedagogic decisions. In addition, the present study shows that the extent to which the teachers engaged in self-

directed learning seems to vary depending on the types of schools and students they encounter.

Searching the internet and sharing materials and resources (Lohman, 2006) were reported to be informal learning activities undertaken by teachers with a love of learning. In a similar study, most of the teachers reported the lack of proximity to learning resources (Lohman, 2000). In this study, although teachers in some elite schools have an annual budget to add new resources to their school library, most mainstream schools do not have that luxury. In these schools, the main types of library holdings are just grammar and exercise books, while number is fairly limited, and teaching methodology books are almost absent. The interview data of the present study reveal that teachers constantly search the internet for resources and/ or shared resources with others for solutions to their pedagogical problems. For example, one teacher stated that online resources helped her in teaching writing skills:

> I often search online for effective ways to teach difficult contents; for example, ways to teach students to write a specific genre that is difficult for them. Writing letters of complaint is too challenging for my students, so I could search for the ways to make it simpler for them. (Mai)

Another teacher mentioned that online resources gave her the idea to use songs to teach English and organize group work:

> I often searched for materials on teaching methods on the internet (…). The online materials that I found were very helpful. For example, once I read about how to use English songs and I implemented the idea for my class. Another time I read about how to conduct group works. (Hoa)

Although Nam was teaching in a poor rural area, he thought that self-inquiry was so important for him because it helped him improve his teaching practice. He said:

In the rural area, I don't have the opportunity to expose myself to native-speakers of English. I have to compensate for this constraint by listening to TV programs or listening to English on the internet. For professional knowledge, I access the information about [English] grammar and teaching methods on the internet.

Experiential Learning
Apart from peer and self-directed learning, many teachers commented that they also learned through their job experience and self-reflection. For example, some teachers in elite schools noted that they were progressing considerably by engaging in curriculum development because they were teaching a special group of students who needed to follow the curriculum specified by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), but also required additional learning components. The teachers in mainstream schools, however, did not enjoy as much autonomy and flexibility, and thus, had less opportunity to learn from this experience.

Similar to the teachers in Scribner's (1999) study, a number of teachers in this study also described previous classroom experience as a source of information to help them make changes to enhance their teaching. In other words, their learning happened as a result of a "gradual process of trial and error" (Scribner, 1999, p. 251), whereby they improved over the years by constantly reflecting on their past successes and failures. For example, this teacher explained how reflecting on her previous lessons helped her gain an insight into her own practice and become more effective:

After each lesson I would self-evaluate how effective it was and which part I could have done better. (…) Sometimes I kept notes of how I would have liked to change it and next time when I taught the same lesson again I would try to make the change to see if it would work out. And I added new ideas each time I reviewed my lesson plan. (Hoa)

However, it seems that not every teacher saw reflection as an important part of their teaching job. Some teachers admitted to seldom spending time thinking back about their past lessons or contemplating about how to improve their practices because of the hectic teaching pace and family commitments after work. Others were afraid that the very thought of their past failure could seriously demoralise them, and thus, they tried not to recall their unsuccessful lessons. Obviously, busy schedules or fear of demoralisation should not be a reason for shying away from exercising in self-reflection, if teachers understand the enormous benefits that can be had from this activity. Thus, it is important for teachers to learn how to accept their limitations and make use of past experiences in order to grow professionally.

Influence of School Culture on Teachers' Engagement in Informal Learning Activities.

In congruence with Scribner (1999) and Saito et al. (2008), the present study suggests substantial evidence of the impact of school context on teachers' engagement in informal learning activities. This impact will be addressed in two aspects, through students and school leaders' expectations, and collegiality.

Students and School Leaders' High Expectations
In this study, students' and school leaders' expectations are the challenges in terms of subject-matter knowledge and pedagogy that seem to be the most powerful driving forces for teachers' engagement in learning. In elite schools, the teachers were working with groups of carefully selected, strongly motivated, and high-achieving students. Thus, they had to constantly seek information to broaden their knowledge of the subject matter and enhance their pedagogical skills in order to meet students' high demands and expectations. Besides that, they also found themselves accountable to the parents, who were extremely concerned about their "gifted" children's study

results, and to the school leaders, who always pushed teachers to increase the students' academic performance. In this case, academic performance is measured by the students' high-stake examination results. This type of impetus is evidenced by what Hoa and Hai said in their interviews.

> Working in an elite school, every teacher has to make continuous, enormous effort to learn, and indeed, we cannot just rely on external training but also have to teach ourselves how to teach. …We are working with excellent students…This means we have to try our best to improve our professional knowledge and skills. If we do not improve our English proficiency, we will not be able to keep up with the curricular requirements. If we do not update our knowledge regularly, we will not be able to respond to the students' increasingly demanding needs. (Hoa)

Hoa went on to assert that her school leaders tended to set very high expectations on the teachers, which drove teachers to see professional learning as the only key to their success:

> In my school, professional learning is a regular activity because being a teacher at an elite school means facing the possibility of lagging behind and losing out if you do not actively engage yourself in further studies.

In contrast, teachers in mainstream schools, especially those located in disadvantaged areas, where students are by and large less academically advanced and poorly motivated, reported little engagement in informal learning activities. The stories told by Mai, Nam, Tan, and San help shed light on this situation.

Mai, working in a mainstream school in a city located in Central Vietnam, was quite frank that most teachers in her school, "were not concerned about improving their teaching" because of the school's low expectations of

them. In her school, English language is only one of the subjects taught; hence, the school did not give it any more special attention than it gave to other subjects. Interestingly, this teacher appeared to be keen on continued learning in order to be professionally competent enough to teach extra classes outside the school, where students are more academically demanding. She said:

> My teaching context is unfavourable for teacher development. I have no drive to learn except that I need the knowledge to teach in outside language centres. These centres demand well-qualified teachers, so I have to constantly upgrade my knowledge if I do not want to be laid off. I would say that is my only motivation.

Sharing this view, Nam, who taught in a rural area where the students "were almost illiterate in English [despite many years' learning the language]", stated, "Students did not do the homework, and in the classroom they were all quiet. This makes teachers really frustrated."

Similar stories were told by San and Tan, who worked mainly with ethnic minority students in disadvantaged mountainous areas. According to these teachers, their students saw little benefit in learning English, while they were still struggling with Vietnamese, and saw no future outside their home villages. Thus, the need to communicate with English speaking people is non-existent. Plus, these students could not concentrate on their studies because they had to help around the house after school while their parents worked. Since teachers in this school did not have any academic challenge presented by the students or had pressure from the school leaders, they seemed to be content with their existing knowledge and pedagogical competence:

> Self-directed learning is a luxury to many teachers because the students are not so demanding. Everybody feels that their knowledge is sufficient to teach with

what they have, while they have many other businesses to attend to. No time for, and no need of, self-learning. (Tan)
Students in my school are still not fluent in Vietnamese, let alone English. They are more interested in housework than learning . . . Unlike urban people, parents in my area do not expect them to learn English… This makes teachers feel that they don't need to upgrade their knowledge. (San)

Student learning is one aspect of school culture and it affects the degree of teachers' engagement in informal learning activities for their professional development, either positively or negatively. In this case, it would seem that low student expectations produced low levels of motivation for and participation in teacher learning on behalf of the teachers.

Collegiality
Collegiality was also a factor that potentially impacted teacher learning by expanding opportunities for teacher collaboration and sharing (Scribner, 1999; Saito et al., 2008). The present study suggests that uncooperative colleagues tended to strongly discourage teachers from both contributing to the process of collective professional learning and looking for help from within their community. Various excerpts from the teacher interviews show that teachers would not feel comfortable to share their professional concerns with every colleague in their schools. This was because they found that not everyone would be interested in this learning experience. For example, Mai stated in the interview:

[T]he problem with teachers in my school is nobody listens to anybody else, and nobody is keen to develop themselves professionally . . . The post-observation discussion is, in fact, chaotic because everybody is self-defensive. Nobody is open to others' ideas.

Besides teachers who were enthusiastic about sharing insights and learning from

colleagues, there were also those who held a critical attitude towards colleagues. It was perhaps because of the fear of this attitude that many teachers commented that they would hesitate to discuss their difficulties with colleagues' approaches. They would rather keep quiet about their problems than be seen as "less proficient." It seems that personal relationships were an important matter in teachers' interactions. Where good personal relationships existed, teachers tended to be more open. This is justified by San:

[I]n general [in my school] sharing of teaching ideas takes place only among close friends. There are teachers who are not daring enough to ask colleagues to share ideas for fear of betraying their ignorance. Sometimes I do ask others for help and I know they can help but they are so preserved. They do not tell.

A lack of constructive collegial collaboration is rooted in Vietnamese educational culture whereby educators feel that they have the right to judge others' behaviours according to their own values. Such an evaluative culture seems to do more harm than good to the collegiality of the school, because as pointed out by Saito et al., (2008, p. 97), the attitude tends to represent a "third-party viewpoint[s]", which is "separated from the instructor's," rather than insider's insights. Thus, it is important for teachers to learn how to accept that "to err is human" and show mutual support for one another (Saito et al., 2008, p.97). Teachers also need to learn how to communicate to their colleagues in order to contribute to the collegiality of the school. Instead of adhering to an assertive conversation style, teachers should learn how to talk to their colleagues in a more "democratic and dialogic manner" (Saito et al., 2008, p.100), so that they can participate more effectively in the discussion of professional issues. Finally, schools need to develop norms of collegiality, openness and trust (Billett, 2001, Ellstrom, 2001) to ensure the creation of a constructive, non-judgmental environment. In this way,

teachers will build up trust and open up to one another, and thus, engage in a more meaningful collaboration. One of the ways to achieve this end is perhaps to establish a "culture of support" (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 119), in which peer observation is less evaluative and judgmental in nature and more encouraging for teachers as an opportunity to learn and develop as reflective teachers.

CONCLUSION

In congruence with Scribner (1999) and Saito et al. (2008), the present study provides substantial evidence of the impact of school contexts on teachers' engagement in informal learning activities. It is revealed in this study that searching the internet for teaching materials and peer-observations were the two most common learning activities that the teachers in this study pursued. Unlike teachers in Lohman's (2006) study, the teachers in this study did not mention other learning activities such as talking with others, collaborating with others, sharing materials and resources with others, scanning professional magazines and journals, trial and error, and reflecting on one's own actions. This can be explained that all Vietnamese schools, even the universities, are under-resourced, and teachers have very limited access to professional magazines and journals, while reflection is not part of Vietnamese professional culture. The highly-centralised system discourages teachers to take a trial-and-error approach to their classroom practice but encourages the culture of prescribed sameness of teaching behaviour (Saito et al., 2008) instead. This is really a great barrier to teacher development.

Regarding the context-related factors affecting teacher learning, the findings of the study reveal that teachers' personal motivation for learning is an important determinant of their participation in learning at the workplace, an issue which has been rarely discussed in the literature of teacher learning. Like student learning, teacher learning is voluntary. The motivation to become better teachers constitutes a great driving force for Hoa, Hai and Nam in the study to search the internet for both teaching materials and theoretical accounts to use in their classroom despite the constraints of a rural area like the case of Nam. In contrast, other teachers in the study seemed to be satisfied with their status quo and were not committed to further professional growth. The findings of the present study show that where the school leaders both push and support teacher learning and where the students are demanding, teachers in general are better motivated to engage in on-going learning activities. Also, teachers working in the urban schools seemed to have a stronger drive for self-inquiry than those working in the rural or disadvantaged areas. It is evident that teachers' motivation for learning is social in the sense that it is strongly influenced by contextual factors such as the students, the school leadership and the broader social milieu.

As the findings of the study indicate, although the most accessible professional development activity to Vietnamese school teachers is peer observation, which is also regulated by the Ministry of Education and Training, most of the teachers in the study appeared to be unenthusiastic about this learning activity. The traditional culture of peer observation in Vietnamese schools, which is evaluation-oriented (Saito et. al., 2008), has made classroom observation a threatening, frightening ordeal (Williams, 1989, p. 86) to the observed teachers. Thus, it is recommended that this type of judgmental observation be abolished so that peer observation really becomes a useful learning experience for teachers (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

According to the teachers in the interviews, some teachers even thought that asking for help or raising their own teaching problems in the staff meeting would betray their ignorance. Apparently, this feeling of distrust was unlikely to be helpful, while peer observation, discussions with peers, and sharing materials should have been common practices of Vietnamese school teachers, given the limited access to the global professional discourse

or expert knowledge for improving their knowledge base. As a result, an environment of mutual trust should be established within each school so that teachers are not fearful of criticism by colleagues when they reorganise the syllabus and try out new teaching ideas in the classroom. Unquestionably, collegiality is a factor that potentially impacts teacher learning in the sense that it can either expand or limit opportunities for teacher collaboration and sharing (Scribner, 1999; Saito et al., 2008). The present study suggests that uncooperative colleagues tended to strongly discourage teachers from both contributing to the process of collective professional learning and looking for help from within their community. Various excerpts from the teacher interviews show that teachers would not feel comfortable to share their professional concerns with their colleagues, unless they trust them.

In order to build good collegiality, which is based on mutual trust, teachers should be convinced that an evaluative culture, which is embedded in the Vietnamese traditional culture, does more harm than good to the collegiality of the school. Teachers also need to learn how to communicate to their colleagues to contribute to the collegiality of the school. Instead of an assertive conversation style, teachers can learn how to talk to their colleagues in a more "democratic and dialogic manner" (Saito et al., 2008, p.100), so that they can participate more effectively in the discussion of professional issues. Finally, schools need to develop norms of collegiality, openness and trust (Billett, 2001, Ellstrom, 2001) for the creation of a constructive, non-judgmental environment for teachers to build up trust and open up to one another, and thus, engage in a more meaningful collaboration. That learning environment should be nurtured in a "culture of support" (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 119), in which teachers are encouraged and supported to participate actively in "peer-based learning through mentoring, and sharing skills, experience, and solutions to common problems" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 12). This school-based culture of support would motivate teachers "to learn together through

participation in group-oriented activities with shared goals, and responsibilities, involving joint problem solving" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 12). This is quite critical in contexts where teachers have limited access to the global community discourse.

In sum, this study aims to examine the common informal learning activities undertaken by the teachers within the school context and factors embedded in the school context that facilitate or hinder teacher learning. According to the interview data, it was clarified that teacher learning at the workplace is limited to very few activities and was influenced by the school context at various levels such as intrapersonal, interpersonal, institutional and cultural. This evidence gives rise to the need of enacting a deliberate, effective learning culture within school systems, which encourages a high degree of sharing and a shift of focus from the individual practice of teaching to a collective understanding of pedagogy and collegial collaboration. To promote teachers' informal learning, in addition to the provision of time and resources, attention should be focused on nurturing "a climate or culture that recognises and rewards teachers excellence" (Viskovic, 2005, p. 403), making social trust, peer support and cooperative learning within the cultural norms of a school. Towards this goal, studies of workplace learning or community practice should be used as sources of new ideas for the promotion of teacher learning within a school. Vietnam needs to change its traditional mindset which over-emphasises the role of teachers' formal learning such as training workshops, graduate training, and so on to adopt new theories of workplace learning or a community practice as sources of new ideas for teacher development.

Although the present study reveals some important issues related to the influence of school cultures on teachers' engagement in informal learning activities, it is not clear whether the informal learning activities teachers claimed to pursue lead to the increase of students' achievement or not. This question, therefore, should be addressed in future studies.

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THE REPRESENTATION OF EGYPTIAN PEOPLE'S VOICE IN THE JAKARTA GLOBE NEWS PHOTOGRAPHS

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Abstract: As a product of mass media, a news photograph is an image which provides the viewers with a valuable source of information and news story. All events captured in photographs turn into a news photo. Besides covering the news with fact, news photographs do not only have surface meanings, but also deeper meanings to be interpreted by each viewer. The phenomenon of demonstration, particularly the massive demonstration in Egypt in 2011, offers a good chance to discover how visual messages have been presented to guide interpretation of foreign news events. Principally, demonstration is an expression of the people's voices, and thus, their voices are related closely with their demands, grievances and wishes related to the new government. Here, the photographs are able to portray and reflect the people's voices through the compositions and contents (meanings) involved in the photos. This study is aimed at discovering the portrayal of the voice of the people (the protesters) in the news photographs of the Indonesian online newspaper, *The Jakarta Globe*. The data consist of 15 news photographs taken from *The Jakarta Globe* online newspaper published in January – October 2011. The study employs qualitative method framed with semiotic analysis using Roland Barthes' theory of orders of signification and photographic message. The results of the study show that *The Jakarta Globe* visually constructs this event (demonstration) by focusing on the human action (the protesters). Thus, the voice of the people is portrayed in the photo subjects (the protesters) and the included objects of the photo. Meanwhile, the technical aspects of the photos play a meaningful role in emerging the portrayal of the people's voice. There are four voices revealed by the people in the 15 photographs, namely the voice of freedom, the voice of peace, the voice of justice and the voice of human rights. The photo text including headlines and captions also interact with photographs to produce meaning in supporting the people's voices. The headlines tend to explain the people's voices implicitly, while the captions tend to explain the people's voices explicitly.

Keywords: *people's voice, news photograph, headline, caption, semiotic*

Abstrak: Sebagai produk dari media massa, berita foto merupakan citra yang menyediakan sumber informasi dan cerita berita kepada pembacanya. Semua peristiwa yang ditangkap dalam foto menjadi sebuah berita foto. Selain mendukung berita dengan fakta, foto tidak hanya memiliki makna permukaan, tetapi juga makna yang lebih mendalam yang diterjemahkan oleh setiap pembacanya. Fenomena demonstrasi, terutama demonstrasi besar-besaran di Mesir tahun 2011, menawarkan kesempatan yang baik untuk mengetahui bagaimana pesan visual dihadirkan untuk memandu penerjemahan peristiwa asing. Pada dasarnya, demonstrasi adalah ungkapan suara rakyat, karena itu, suara mereka berhubungan erat dengan tuntutan, kesedihan, dan harapan mereka sehubungan dengan pemerintahan yang baru. Di sini, foto mampu memotret dan mencerminkan suara rakyat melalui komposisi dan

isi (makna) yang terkandung di dalamnya. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk menemukan potret suara rakyat (para pendemo) dalam foto berita sebuah surat kabar daring (*online*) Indonesia, *The Jakarta Globe*. Data terdiri atas 15 foto berita yang diambil dari surat kabar daring *The Jakarta Globe* yang diterbitkan selama Januari-Oktober 2011. Kajian ini menggunakan metode kualitatif dengan memanfaatkan analisis semotika menggunakan teori Roland Barthes tentang urutan signifikasi dan citra foto. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa *The Jakarta Globe* secara visual menyusun peristiwa ini (demonstrasi) dengan fokus pada tindakan manusia (para pendemo). Karenanya, suara rakyat dipotret dalam subjek foto (para pendemo) dan objek yang dimasukkan ke dalam foto. Sementara itu, aspek teknik fotonya memainkan peran penting dalam memunculkan suara rakyat. Ada empat suara yang diungkapan oleh rakyat dalam ke-15 foto tersebut, yaitu suara untuk kebebasan, suara untuk kedamaian, suara untuk keadilan, dan suara untuk hak azasi manusia. Teks foto termasuk judul berita dan keterangan gambar juga berinteraksi dengan foto untuk menghasilkan makna dalam mendukung suara-suara rakyat tersebut. Judul berita cenderung menjelaskan suara rakyat secara tersirat, sementara keterangan gambar cenderung secara tersurat.

Katakunci: *suara rakyat, foto berita, judul berita, keterangan gambar, semiotika*

In recent years, a number of scholars have re-examined the role of visual images in depicting conflicts and wars: the picturing of Vietnam war in the five iconic photos (Lovelace, 2010); the picturing of Afghan women in the Associated Press before and after the fall of the Taliban regime (Fahmy, 2004); and the visual framing analysis of British press photography during the 2006 Israel-Lebanon conflict (Parry, 2010), as well as the representations of South African media of Islam after 11 September 2001 (Baderoon, 2007).

Hiebert, as cited in Fahmy and Kim (2008) has stated that since the Persian Gulf War in 1991, we have witnessed not only the most impressive use of military weapons but also the use of words and images as weapons of war, and the mass media have become an integral part of modern warfare. This view has received a considerable support recently. For example, Newton (2010) examined the photo essay which reflects on the period of his photojournalism career based in Seoul, South Korea, covering the student-led pro-democracy movement of the mid 1980s. He found that the movement succeeded through the power of protest, the participation of the media and the courage of the South Korean people. For that reason, the notion that the presence of an image and the content of a news photograph help determine the interpretation of a news event (Entman, 1993) remains strong, in a way that news photos allow the people to see the external reality.

Currently, Egypt is chaotic. The protests, which happened in 2011 and inspired by the uprising in Tunisia, are the largest in Egypt since bread riots in 1977, four years before Mubarak came to power (al-Atrush, 2011). Now, the Egyptians were very angry with the government, particularly with Mubarak's 30 years tyrannical regime that led Egypt into poverty. Grievances of the Egyptian protesters were also focused on political and economic issues including police brutality, lack of free elections, wild corruption, high unemployment, (../fin i/egypt/2011_Egyptian_revolution.htmcite_note-tna-2) and food price inflation. Thus, his regime became the major reason for the protesters to force Mubarak to step down.

It is not the intention here to observe the impacts of demonstration toward the Egyptian democracy, but rather to analyse the photographic depiction of the related events and people in the Indonesian online newspaper, *The Jakarta Globe*. Aforementioned, demonstration is an expression of the people's voice in which their voices are related closely to their demands toward a new

government in Egypt. Thus, the present study is aimed at revealing the voice of the people portrayed in the news photographs. In this study, the content of headlines and captions is also examined to support the emergence of the people's voice.

Roland Barthes' orders of signification

Roland Barthes (1915-1980) is a semiotician who has been concerned with imagistic as well as linguistic signs, especially in context of advertising, photography and audio-visual media (Chandler, 2002, p.218). As a follower of Saussure's semiology, Barthes is recognized for his contribution to semiotic studies of myth, literature and narrative. He also becomes famous for his contribution to the various types of visual communication and for his systematic model of signification.

The focus of Barthes is more concerned with the idea of two orders of signification. The first order is a relationship between signifier and signified. Barthes calls it denotation or the literal meaning of a sign, while connotation is the term used to indicate the second order. It describes an interaction when a sign meets the reader's/the viewer's emotion with their cultural background. In semiotics tradition, there is no communication failure, because each reader/viewer has a different cultural experience; thus, meaning is given to the reader/viewer.

Barthes' photographic message is a way to focus on connotative meaning. It describes the multiple messages embedded within images. There are six connotative procedures used to understand the hidden meaning in photo, namely trick effects (fake photos), pose (posture and arrangement of people), object (placement of objects), photogenia (technical aspects of photo), aestheticism (imitation of artistic styles), and (syntax arrangement of photos in a series). However, this study only focuses on the connotative procedures of pose, object, and photogenia to uncover the portrayal of the people's voice. This is because a news photograph is a true representation of an event; thus, it is impossible to have manipulation or fake (trick effect). A news photograph is neither an artistic photo (aestheticism) nor photo essay which forms a sequence as in magazine (syntax); it is, rather, a single photo which reports an event.

The Jakarta Globe Online Newspapers

Generally, a foreign affair is related closely to the national interest. Rachlin, cited in Fahmy and Kim (2008) asserted that the meaning of international events is often described in a manner consistent with the host country's national interests and political and/or cultural perspectives. In the present study, *The Jakarta Globe* online newspapers is selected. *The Jakarta Globe* is one of the most informative English-language newspapers in Indonesia. Since it was launched in November 2008, *The Jakarta Globe* has grown to be Indonesia's most-read English-language newspapers. *The Jakarta Globe* is consistently regarded as the reliable paper in international news reporting. Many previous studies have observed the news coverage of *The Jakarta Globe* to see how Indonesian media portray national/ international news and compare its coverage with other media.

METHOD

This study used the photographic image as the primary unit for analysis. There were 15 news photographs taken from *The Jakarta Globe* online newspaper published in January-October 2011. The criteria of selecting the photographs were focused on the photo subjects (the protesters), the included objects, and the technical aspects which support the emergence of the people's voice. The methods of this research would be a qualitative descriptive and a semiotic analysis of the chosen photos. The purpose of a semiotic analysis is to understand the meaning of the image, and also to reveal details in the photographs and allow for possible interpretations that can then be evaluated in both the content and style of the photographs (Mendelson and Smith, 2006).
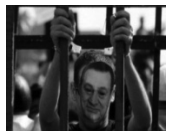
Table 1 News Photographs[1]

This study employed the method of Roland Barthes' orders of signification and photographic message. The photo text (headline and caption), then, was analyzed to see how it could affect the meaning of the photograph. Through the method of a semiotic analysis of the 15 news photographs, this study attempts to understand the voice of the people portrayed in the news photographs of *The Jakarta Globe* online newspapers. The chosen 15 news photographs are presented in Table 1.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The voice of the people in the photo subjects

The subjects of these news photographs are the protesters, in which the way they protest and their emotions represent their own voice. The following is the analysis of the people's voice represented in the protesters or the photo subjects based on connotative procedure of pose in Barthes' photographic message. Here, the pose procedure includes the people's pose, facial expression, gaze, and colour and fashion.

The people's pose

The pose in these news photographs mostly ranges from the head to the waist. Many head poses are presented in these news photographs, meaning that we cannot see the full body of the subject. Tian, Kanade, and Cohn (2001) offer the definitions and examples of three head pose classes: *frontal or near frontal view, side view or profile*, and *others*, such as back of the head or occluded faces. From all poses in these photos, the researcher can identify the emotion from the photo subjects. From the analysis of the people's pose, news photograph 15 is the only photo with head pose and frontal, meaning that both eyes and lip corners are visible. News photos 3, 6, 10, and 12 respectively apply side view or profile head pose. Photos 3 and 6 show the people who are in a crowd, while photos 10 and 12 are not. These photos definitely only show the one eye or one lip corner and this will make it difficult to analyse the facial expression. Apart from the visible face or not, the head pose makes the viewers/readers feel much closer

to the subject. This pose can create intimacy with the viewers, and by looking at this pose the people's voice is clearly felt. Through their head poses, photos 6 and 10, for instance, show calmness and relaxation. The man with eyes closed also shows his calmness and peace and seems like praying inside. Thus, it can be inferred that they are voicing for peace.

The people's facial expression
Facial expressions are commonly associated with particular human emotions. From the 15 images, there are 6 (six) images which reveal the emotion of the people through facial expression. The photos without visible face were excluded in the analysis.

Emotion	Sadness and agony	Anger	Happy	Disgust
Examples	News Photo 13 News Photo 15	News photo 5	News Photo 7 News photo 4	News photo 11

Table 2 The people's emotion

1) Sadness and agony
The expression of sadness in the photographs is represented by the people who are mourning. News photos 13 and 15 show this emotion. Both man and woman are staring with eyes looking upward, mouth opened and raised cheek. All of the emotions revealed by the man and woman show their voice that they want justice and an equal right, particularly in religious freedom.

2) Anger
Anger is a primary sign in expressing and conveying messages about hostility, opposition, and potential attack. Anger is also frequently associated with violence. This is what happened to the most protesters in the Egyptian demonstration. Photo 5 really shows the man's anger. It is not only expressed by his pose of throwing, but also by his face with deep stares, eyes wide-open, and lips pressed.

3) Happy
Happy expressions are commonly related to enjoyment or pleasure. Photos 4 and 7 feature children as the subjects, showing happiness.

Children are also usually associated with innocence because they know nothing but following their parents everywhere. For instance, photo 4 which takes place at the airport of Soekarno-Hatta, Indonesia, features a look of happiness on the children's face. They may be happy because they can go back to their home although they are actually evacuated from the chaotic situation in Egypt.

4) Disgust
Ekman (2003, p.191) has stated that some people experience disgust when seeing a deformed, crippled person, or an ugly person. He also stated that certain human actions are also disgusting; you may be revolted by what a person does. This is what happened to the man in photo 11 who holds a noose and a scale in front of the courtroom. From his face, it can be identified that he is disgusted with what Mubarak and his governments have done to the Egyptian people. With the feel of disgust and the symbol of scale he brought in the demonstration, he is voicing that he hates Mubarak and the situation in Egypt nowadays, and that he really wants the real justice.

The people's gaze

Chandler (1998) claims that it is useful to note how direct a person's gaze out of the frame in the photograph. From the identification of the gaze of the subject, only photo 7 shows a little boy that is looking directly to the camera. The rest is looking away from camera or directed towards other things. The types of gaze in those photographs are: reciprocal attention (the attention of those depicted is directed at each other) such as in photos 1 and 8; and semi-reciprocal attention (the attention of one person is on the other, whose attention is elsewhere) including all photographs except photos 1, 7, and 8.

In each case, the image wants something from the viewers—it wants them to do something such as come closer or stay at a distance (Bell and Millic, 2002). And in doing this, the images define to some extent who the viewer is. Images make 'offers' when the photo subjects look away from the viewer. In such cases, the viewer is invited to participate as an *invisible onlooker* and the depicted person (photo subjects) is the *object* of the look. Here, those photo subjects do not know that they are being looked at and they are offered as "items of information, objects of contemplation, impersonally, as though they were specimens in a display case" (Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, p.124).

Since the photo subjects mostly look away from the camera, the people want the viewers to feel what they feel, want, and need. For instance, in photo 15, the women are praying with eyes looking upward (away from the camera/viewer); thus, the viewers can feel that the women are sad since there are many people died in the Coptic Christian clashes. Therefore, their prayers become a sign that they want peace and justice for their religious freedom.

Colour and fashion

In these 15 news photographs, the colours that are mostly used in clothing identity and object of the photograph are black, white and orange. Each colour generates another level of meanings as proposed by Allan (2009).

He claims that colour can trigger particular emotions, memories and associations.

1) Black: the colour of anger and mourning

Black is characterized by the absence of light and can, therefore, denote enveloping darkness, sombreness, sadness, and gloom. Black is associated in western communities with funeral clothes (Allan, 2009). It can also be associated with anger or sorrow. This is in line with the use of black colour in the fashion or clothes of the photo subjects.

News photo 1   News photo 3   News photo8

News photo 11   News photo 12   News photo 14
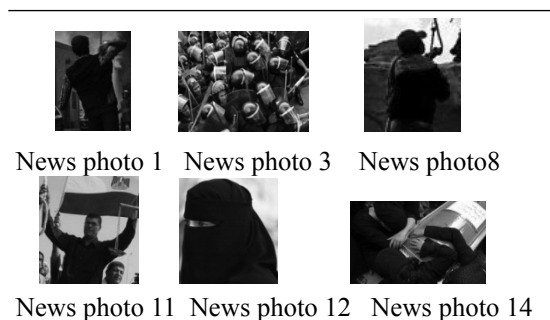
Table 3 The people's clothing

In those news photographs, the subjects or the people wear black clothes. For instance, in photo 8, the tour guide wears black clothes showing his sadness towards the condition of tourism in Egypt during massive demonstration where the tourists no longer come to ride his camels to the Giza pyramid. Meanwhile, photo 14 features the women who are mourning over a coffin wearing black clothes. Allan (2009) stated that this is the colour of mourning and death.

2) White: the colour of purity

Allan (2009) claimed that white is associated with peace, humility, innocence, and sincere. In the 15 news photographs, the white colour is rarely appeared. The photo which features the white colour is in news photograph 5, where there is a man who wears a white singlet. The colour in this cloth represents innocence, peace, and pureness. It means that his body symbolizes people who are innocent. The people are the victims of the leaders' corruption and dictatorship in Egypt.

3) Orange: the colour of spirit

Orange colour mostly appears in flames, which is very bright. The act of burning tires will create a huge fire and, thus, its flames shiny. Photos 1 and 2 feature the orange colour of the flames which is very bright compared to the dark smoke. Those photos also connote the courage and spirit of the people in voicing their demands in the demonstrations.

The voice of the people in the included objects

The objects appearing in these news photographs, either the attributes used by the demonstrators or the included objects captured by the photographers accidentally, have represented the voice of the people. Those objects do not only appear as an ornament, but they also make meaning in revealing the voice of the people. What follows are the included objects that are analyzed based on connotative procedure of object in Barthes' photographic message:

1. The mask of Mubarak and the handcuff

In this demonstration, the protester wears the mask of Mubarak to humiliate Mubarak (photo 9). Here, the mask hides the identity and personality of the man. It can be analogical with Mubarak's personality, the President of Egypt for 30 years which is actually a dictator, a liar, and a corruptor. The protester also voices that justice should be built in Egypt. The handcuff as a complement of the man's action shows that Mubarak has to be punished immediately and brought to the prison.

2. The noose

The noose appeared in photo 11 is a form of people's voice, in which they want and demand for justice in punishing Mubarak. The noose, which is used for punishing a criminal, is tightened on someone's neck. This is what the people want, that the noose must be tightened on Mubarak's neck so that he can take responsibility for what he has done to the Egyptian people.

3. The scale

The symbol of a scale becomes a common representation of justice. The origin comes from the image of a blind folded woman holding a set of scales. Some say it is the symbol of the goddess of Justice. The scale becomes a sign which presents that some people try to express their awareness of justice.

4. The helmet

In photo 7, the man with a helmet on his head but undressed signifies the symbol of protection. Here, the man's voice is demanding for the real protection for the people. The target for his action is the police. The helmet symbolizes the police who only protect and take side with the government. Meanwhile, the man's body, which is not covered by clothes, symbolizes the people who are not protected by the police or the leaders.

5. The blooded cloth

The blooded cloth held by the protester in photo 13 shows sadness. The man in the photo voices to stop violation of the Coptic Christian as minority. Since all people are human being, they also deserve to be treated equally with other people. The blooded cloth is a representation of the victim of the clashes. Meanwhile, the blood itself has the meaning of kinship, where all people are the servants of God and created from blood.

6. The coffin

A coffin is a funeral box used to display and contain dead people, either for burial or cremation. Coffin is identical with mourning. Photo 14 features coffin as the main focus with the women laying down their head over it. Here, the women's voice is revealed through the symbol of the coffin, in which they demand for justice and human rights of their deceased

fathers. They seem powerless, and from this symbol we can feel how they suffer.

7. *The veil and headscarf*

 The Egyptian women, who appear mostly with their headscarves and veils, are actually long treated as second-class citizens. The woman in photo 12 becomes a representation of all Egyptian Moslem women who similarly suffer. And now, after the protest, the women finally get the right to vote after they have struggled for a long time.

8. *The Egyptian flag*
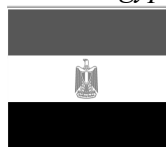
 The appearances of a national flag will always make a demonstration feel alive. The protesters mostly bring and wave their national flags indicating that they love their country. The emergences of the national flag are in photos 6, 7, 10, and 11. The Egyptian flag consists of three equal horizontal bands of red, white, and black. The 'Eagle of Saladin' is the national emblem of Egypt, depicting power, beauty and independence, and it is placed at the middle of the white band of the Egyptian flag.

9. *The flowers*

 A rose is a perfect choice for expressing the nuances of our deepest feelings. The appearance of three roses in photo 6, namely red rose, white rose, and yellow rose supports the nuances of peace. This is what is voiced by the people, specifically the *Muslim Brotherhood,* as the Islamist movement who fight for a change, new beginning and new life in Egypt.

10. *The camels and pyramid*

 Photo 8 features the animal followed by the pyramid as the characteristics of Egyptian tourism. In this photo, the man lost his job since tourists did not come to Egypt during the protest. Therefore, the man with the camels is voicing the hopes to take tourists back to Egypt and ride his camels again.

11. *The candle*

 As photo 15 shows, the depicted situation is a prayer for the victims with the light of candle. The candle seems to be a symbol of Christianity which represents the light of God or the light of the Christians. Mathews (2006) has noted that lighting a candle is a way of extending one's prayer and showing solidarity with the person on whose behalf the prayer is offered. Therefore, the candle is not only a form of peace, but also a symbol of solidarity. Here, the people are voicing for peace, religious freedom and justice.

12. *The headband*

 Photo 10 only features the man's face from the side. He wears a headband designed with Egyptian flag. The appearance of a headband indicates his love for Egypt and, thus, he voices his wants for peace in his country. In most protests, it is also common to use a headband for some people. The use of a headband seems to be a fashion identity in the demonstration.

13. *The burning tire*

 News photographs 1 and 2 feature the burning of tires indicating the chaotic situation in Egypt. Besides creating noxious fumes, the act of burning tires is actually the symbol of anger from the people. The flames created will render the situation an uprising; thus, this becomes a common sign of protest.

The Emergence of People's Voice by Photogenia (Technical Aspects)

The technical aspect used by the photographers is a key element, since it includes the ideology or the point of view of the photographers in capturing the moment which they consider

well and proper to be consumed by public. Each photographer has decisions in capturing photos and the decision is based on a set of paradigms. All photos can be discussed in terms of the paradigms of shot size, camera angle, focus, and lighting. These signifiers will connote meaning that can be related to each other, that as a whole produces a combination of signs, or a syntagm (Carter, 2002). Of all the 15 news photographs, the Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic analyses have been grasped and presented on the table below:

TECHNICAL ASPECTS OF PHOTOS					
Distance	**F**	**Angle**	**F**	**Focus**	**F**
Long-shot	2	High angle	3	Deep focus	7
Medium-long shot	1				
Medium-shot	4	Eye level	8	Selective focus	8
Medium-close up	2				
Close up	5	Low angle	4		
Big close up	1				
Lighting	**F**	**Lens Type**	**F**	**Framing**	**F**
Natural lighting	13	Wide	6	Left	2
Flash lighting	2	Telephoto	5	Right	3
		Standard	4	Centre	10

F: Frequency

Table 4 Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations within Photographs

From all the technical aspects used in this study, it can be inferred that the photographs mostly captured in *close up, eye-level, selective focus and natural lighting*. This absolutely supports the portrayal of the voice of the people, because photos taken at a close-up focus on either a face or a specific detail. So, a close-up of a face is a very intimate shot. The eye-level is a fairly neutral shot which shows the subjects as we would expect to see them in real life. Meanwhile, selective focus makes a part of the photograph as a focus such as the subjects or the people. Those paradigms make the photo subject much closer with the viewers. Thus, the voice of people can be revealed from this type of shot, angle and focus.

The Commutation Test
Aforementioned, the photographs were taken at *close-up, eye-level*, and *selective focus*. However, if they were commutated into the *extreme long shot, high angle,* and *deep focus*, it will affect the meaning of the photographs. The image taken with an extremely long shot will give general impression rather than specific information. A high angle shot can make a character look smaller, younger, weak, or more childlike. Meanwhile, a deep focus shows that everything will be in focus. The image that is probably shown with this commutation test will be like this:

Figure 2 The example of commutation test (Reuters Photo, 2011)

This photo is taken at *extreme long shot, high angle,* and *deep focus*. Although this photo also conveys meaning to the viewers, we can imagine that if the 15 news photographs were like this, it would be difficult to identify the voice of the people, including the specific

subject, object, emotion, gaze, and clothing identity. The way they protest and their voices probably would not be revealed expressly. The use of a *close-up* shot with *eye-level* angle and *selective focus* certainly will make the subjects emerge with their shown face, gaze and emotion clearly. Thus, we can see the voice of the people by means of technical aspects.

The relationship between text and image
Bourdieu (1996) claims that photos are nothing without words, but it may be truer that pictures are too many things without words. Basically, a photo text consists of headline and caption. Headline is usually placed above the photograph, while caption is under the photograph. In the present study, headlines and captions are analysed based on "**wh model"** to discover the relevant information with photos. As Gibson (2009) states, for most pictures, a reader wants to know such information as: Who is that? What's going on? When and where was this?

Why does he/she/it/look that way? How did this occur? Those elements can make it easier for the reader to get a concise and simple description of an event.

The Relationship between Headline and Photo

Based on the **wh**-model analysis, the headlines work as carriers of information. The headlines mostly explain the **who** and **what** element. In relation to the photos under study, fundamentally, there is not always a direct link between the photo and the headline. The headlines are here to deliver other things that do not appear in the picture but closely related to the subjects of the photo. For example, in news photo 12, the headline refers to the King of Saudi, but the photo shows an Egyptian woman; in news photo 15 the headline refers to the Egyptian Military, but the photo highlights the women; in news photo 13, the headline refers to the Egyptian PM, but the photo does not show his figure. A combination like this seems to create an interaction between the subject/actor in the headline with the subjects on the photo. In other words, the interaction creates a cause and effect. The photographs seem like the cause and the headlines seem like the effect. For example:

News photo 15:
<u>**Egypt Military**</u> <u>**Denies Shooting Protesters**</u> → **Headline**
Actor/subject   **action**

→Cause: The women: the victims of the clashes with Egyptian Military (The figure of Egyptian Military is excluded in the photo)

Effect: Egyptian Military's denial

rom the analysis of the 5w+1h element, the captions accompanying these photo-graphs also mostly cover the **who** and **what** elements. It means that only the subjects and their actions are largely clarified by the captions. Meanwhile, the place and time are not considered so much. The direct link between caption and photo is that the captions literally express and explain the people's wants and demands. For instance,

the caption in photo 8 reads: "*Egyptian men wait for tourists to take them on camel rides at the Giza pyramids on the outskirts of Cairo. Tour guides are pleading for tourists to return after the fall of President Hosni Mubarak.*" This caption explicitly explains what the man wants and wishes, in which he really wants the tourists come back to Egypt and ride his camels again.

The voice of the people

Based on the findings above, the voice of the people is the focal point in the study: how the photos portray the voice of the people using Barthes' orders of signification and photographic message. The voice of the people is the people's demands, grievances, and wishes for a new government in Egypt.

To reveal the people's voices, Barthes' photographic message (connotative procedure of pose, object and photogenia) is focused more in the analysis. As a result, the voice of the people in this study is portrayed in the photo subjects and the included objects of the photos. Meanwhile, the technical aspects of photo play a meaningful role in emerging the voice of the people.

From the analysis of the 15 news photographs, it is also found that the people's voice is revealed based on the photographers' framing of photo subjects and objects. In taking a photograph, the photographer's message about what is captured within the frame is "this is important" (Parry, 2010). Further, Burgin (1982, p.146) stated that "it is the position of point-of-view, occupied in fact by the camera, which is bestowed upon the spectator. To the point-of-view, the system of representation adds the *frame."* From this statement, Burgin proposes that the *frame* of the photograph organizes the objects depicted within a "decisive moment." Thus, the included objects revealing the people's voice in these photos were created by the photographers' intervention (framing). Overall, the researcher concludes that there are 4 (four) voices revealed by the people in these 15 news photographs:

No.	The voice of the people	News photographs
1.	The voice of freedom (the people want freedom)	Photo 1, 2, 3, 4
2.	The voice of peace (the people want peace)	Photo 6, 7, 8, 10
3.	The voice of justice (the people want and need justice)	Photo 5, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15
4.	The voice of human rights (the people demand for the equal rights)	Photo 12, 13, 14, 15

Table 5 The Voice of the People

1. The voice of freedom

The voice of freedom is revealed by the people who demand freedom in their country. In this case, freedom is something that related to the people's right in expressing or voicing their aspiration to the government. In these news photos, some people act brutally, signalling that they want to be free from the government's repression. For example, the burning of tires in the demonstration becomes a symbol of their freedom, meaning that they are all now free to do anything. The pose of throwing an object is also a voice of freedom, in which the protesters are ready to fight with the police, implying that they are now free and unimpeded.

2. The voice of peace

Peace is another dream of the Egyptian people. Unlike other protesters who burn tires, throw stones or even burn cars in the street, many protesters in the photographs show that they are voicing for peace. From the people's emotion, pose, and the included objects appearing in the photo, some protesters want peace in their country. For example, the pose of praying, closing eyes, staring and calmness or even the objects such as the Egyptian flag, flowers and candle support the nuances of peace. Peace is also symbolized by the colour of white, such as in the white rose of photo 6.

3. The voice of justice

Justice is the common voice of the people in these news photos. The people feel that a real justice should be built in Egypt. For instance, it is reflected in the symbol of a noose and a scale in photo 11. Here, the people want the noose to be tightened on Mubarak's neck in order for him to take responsibility for what he has done to the Egyptian people. The black clothes of the protesters indicate the death of justice in Egypt, because the black colour symbolises death and mourning (Allan, 2009).

5. The voice of human rights

Human right is also a very sensitive issue in the Egyptian protest. The people also want the government to fulfil the needs of human right. The common issue, which is related to human rights in Egypt, is the lack of people's right to vote, the violence of Coptic Christian's rights as a minority group in Egypt, and the violence of the Egyptian women's rights. For instance, photos 13, 14, and 15 feature the Egyptian Coptic Christians in which they want the government to protect their religious freedom. It is supported by the people's pose of mourning and crying indicating that they want justice for their human rights. The blooded cloth and the coffin, for instance, become a symbol of death and violation towards the Coptic Christians' human right as a minority class.

Referring to the photos' text, the analysis of headline and caption indicates that either headlines or captions play a different role in accompanying the news photos. In this case, the captions have linkages with the photo subjects in a way that they identify who the subjects are. In addition, the captions explicitly tell the people's voices by explaining what the people do, want, and demand in the demonstration. Meanwhile, the headlines mostly use the Egyptian rulers as the subjects/actors that do not appear in the pictures but are related closely to the subjects of the photo. The use of the Egyptian rulers as the actors of headlines speculates that the protesters are the victims of the government's action, and thus, the people's demands are directed to the

Egyptian government. Therefore, the people's voices are not only portrayed by the photos, but also the photo texts support the emergence of the people's voices.

CONCLUSION

The semiotic analysis on news photographs of Egyptian demonstration in this study uncovers the portrayal of the voice of the people using Roland Barthes' orders of signification and photographic message. The voice of the people, which becomes the focal point of the study, is the people's demands, grievances, and wishes related to the massive demonstration in Egypt. It is about the people who really want the downfall of Mubarak's 30-year rule and want to build democracy, freedom, and poverty relief. Thus, the people's voices in this study represent a turning point for Egypt's democracy and freedom.

The results of the study show that *The Jakarta Globe* visually constructs this event (demonstration) by focusing on the human action. *The Jakarta Globe* also shows a great empathy towards the protesters. It is supported by the selection of photographic subjects and the object symbolism, along with the accompanying headlines and captions which reveal the voice of the people. The semiotic analysis of these news photographs also indicates that the photos ignite strong emotional feelings in voicing the people's demands. Some of the common voices that these photos show are freedom (photos 1, 2, 3 and 4), justice (photos 5, 9, 11, 13, 14 and 15), peace (photos 6, 7, 8 and 10) and human rights (photos 12, 13, 14 and 15).

In addition, this study confirms findings from the previous studies that news photographs can help interpret particular news event through the selection, depiction, symbolism and lexical context such as headline or caption (Wolf, 2004; Fahmy and Kim, 2008; Mendelson and Wolf, 2009; Parry, 2010; Lovelace, 2010). In relation to the photo text such as headline and caption, the previous studies did not explain the role of headlines

clearly, but they only focused on photos and captions. Meanwhile, this study shows that both headline and caption have a different meaning in accompanying the photos.

The results provided in this study should be regarded as a starting point for discussion and not as a conclusive interpretation because there is no single correct answer in interpreting an image. Thus, next researchers may combine a qualitative method with a quantitative method to get a more objective result. In addition, further studies could compare the use of photographs among newspapers, magazines, or other media in order to get more viewpoints and the ideological position of the newspapers.

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Note:

All images in this article were obtained from *The Jakarta Globe* online newspapers [http://www.thejakartaglobe.com/]

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CHILDREN'S CHARACTERS IN ROALD DAHL'S NOVEL: *CHARLIE AND THE CHOCOLATE FACTORY*

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Abstract: Children's literature or children's books particularly by Roald Dahl have been adapted into many films and have received overwhelming response from children all over the world. Unlike novels for the adults, children's books explore the conflicts and challenge the children's characters encounter in their everyday lives. In addition, the issue of morality and moral values are always associated with the children's books. Thus, this research aims to discuss morality by analysing the children's characters in *Charlie and the chocolate factory (*1964) by Roald Dahl. The main focus of this study is the children's mature and immature morality that is potentially helpful to assist teachers and parents to be aware of the moral values highlighted in children's books. Gibbs' Revisionist Model is used in order to analyse the mature and immature morality of the children's characters. This study adopts a textual analysis in order to reveal the children's characters' morality and the moral values arising from the texts. The findings intend to demonstrate that children's books, particularly this novel, is relevant to be used as a medium to promote moral values.

Keywords: *moral development, morality, moral knowledge and moral values*

Abstrak: Kesusasteraan anak-anak dan novel anak-anak, terutama karya Roald Dahl telah diadaptasi ke dalam banyak film dan mendapat sambutan luar biasa dari anak-anak di seluruh dunia. Berlainan dengan novel untuk orang dewasa, novel anak-anak menjelajahi konflik, kekecewaan dan impian yang dialami oleh tokoh anak-anak dalam novel dalam menghadapi kehidupan sehari-hari mereka. Di samping itu, isu moral dan nilai-nilai moral senantiasa dikaitkan dengan buku-buku anak-anak. Oleh sebab itu, kajian ini bertujuan untuk membahas moralitas dengan menganalisis tokoh anak-anak dalam *Charlie and the chocolate factory (*1964) karya Roald Dahl. Fokus utama kajian ini adalah menganalisis kematangan dan ketidakmatangan moral anak-anak dalam perwatakan di novel ini. Kajian ini berpotensi membantu para guru dan orang tua untuk mengetahui nilai-nilai moral yang diketengahkan dalam buku anak-anak. Model *Revisionist Gibbs* digunakan untuk menganalisis kematangan dan ketidakmatangan moralitas anak-anak dalam novel ini. Kajian ini memanfaatkan kaidah analisis tekstual untuk mengungkapkan kematangan dan ketidakmatangan moraliti kanak-kanak dan nilai moral yang lahir daripada teks. Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa kesusasteraan anak-anak dan buku untuk anak-anak adalah relevan digunakan sebagai medium untuk meningkatkan nilai moral.

Katakunci: *perkembangan moral, moralitas, pengetahuan moral dan nilai moral*

Hunt (1994) regarded children's literature as a piece of writing that is suitable and meant for children. Lim (2009), in her article *Writing for Asian children: history, fantasy, and identity*, supported this view by claiming that "children's literature is a genre that is quite distinctive from fictions for adults and has very much its own set of conventions" (p. 21). If literature deals with the range of human emotions and engages the readers'

feelings and experience, children's literature helps children to explore their own thoughts and learn to understand others. Hafez (2002) claimed that "the books that children read will help mould and influence their view of life and the way they realise their experiences" (p. 158). This leads them to understand certain events and relate them with the situations in the real world. Besides, children's literature offers an opportunity for children to dwell on fantasy, cope with trauma and develop self-confidence during the childhood years. This is because this type of literature enhances the development of self-esteem among children.

Furthermore, children's literature is a powerful tool to promote moral values. Stories for children are significant as they have the elements of adventure, enter-tainment and education that teach children to behave in the society in a proper way (Coody, 1999). This also makes writers of children's books produce more writings for young readers. The story of *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* by Lewis Caroll and *Hansel and Gretel* by Brothers Grimm for example, remain in children's hearts because of the adventures, magic, and fantasy that awaken children's imagination (Mikkel-son, 1997; Kow, 2007; Gruner, 2009). However, West (1988) believed that the novels that children like best are the ones that represent their own social and moral development. Thus, the books that look appealing to grownups might not be interest-ing to children since the way children perceive the world might be different from the way adults do.

In the modern era, there are a number of children's books written to meet the needs and pleasures of children apart from considering the moral values conveyed. To encourage children to read might be a diffi-cult task for certain parents, since many children tend to dislike the books recom-mended by parents and teachers. Parents and teachers usually feel a good book for children is the one that deals both with children's adventures and appropriate values. The characters in the stories, for example, must behave properly, while doing good deeds and respecting others

is essential to educate the children. However, Mikkelson (1997) stated that although these elements are important, good children's literature should also contain innovative ideas that stimulate children's emotions and imagin-ation. Thus, encouraging children to judge the appropriateness of their behaviour can be observed through the characters in the children's stories since this enables them to relate their personal experiences and under-stand their parents' reactions if they behave in certain ways.

Children and books

Mikkelson (2005) stated that childhood is the age when children respond to fantasy and adventures, and thus, using literature can help children to develop their self-confidence and morality. Apart from that, literature for children is able to promote moral values in dealing with the issues like trauma, self-confidence and interpreting the world (Biskin & Hoskisson, 1972; Dana & Lynch-Brown, 1991; Dowd & Haden, 1994; Sheinman, 1999; Binnendyk & Schonert-Reichl, 2002). Besides, science and technology also transmit children's literature to a film such as the success of the *Harry Potter* series by J.K Rowling, *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884) by Mark Twain and also *Alice in wonderland,* a fantasy adventure film released by the Walt Disney in 2010, which is adapted from the fantasy novel *Alice's adventures in wonderland* (1865) by Lewis Caroll.

Rokimin (2006), on the other hand, suggested that "the characters in novels should have distinctive personality features such as dynamism, determination, hardwork and so on" (p. 13) in order to convince the readers. The study on *Harry Potter* novels by Binnendyk & Schonert-Reichl (2002), for example, revealed that *Harry Potter* novels are significant to educate children's moral behaviour and promote children's love of reading. Besides motivating children to read, literature could be used as a therapeutic tool in clinical practice since it is part of the children's experience (Haase, 2005).

Roald Dahl, children and education

According to Brotherson (2009), a survey conducted by National Education Associations between the years 1999 to 2000 reported that Roald Dahl's books were among the kids' top 100 books. Dahl has delighted children all over the world with exciting stories that enchanted children's lives. Among his famous books are *Matilda* (1988)*, The BFG* (1982)*, James and the Giant Peach* (1961)*, Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* (1964) and *The Witches* (1983).

In his writing career, Dahl is famously known as an author who wrote humourous fantasy stories that are lovable among children despite his creative, cynical and witty style which critics described as violent and cruel (West, 1988; Cullingford, 1998, Szuber, 1999). Thus, his writing of children's books usually met with adults' disapproval and, according to West (1988) and Szuber (1999), *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* although being much loved by the children, came under attack for being racist through the characters of the Oompa Loompas (West, 1988). Although the attack on the depiction of the Oompa Loompas as racist raised public uproar, Dahl pointed out in West (1988) that Oompa Loompas in *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* are "charming creatures, whereas the white kids in the book were, with the exception of Charlie, most unpleasant" (p. 72). To avoid the criticism, Dahl then revised the book by making the Oompa Loompas pink creatures that come from a remote island, instead of portraying them as black pygmies from Africa. In an article published in the *Horn Book Magazine* by Eleanor Cameron, she commented *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* as "one of the most tasteless books ever written for children" (West, 1988, p. 71).

However, Szuber (1999) claimed that a literary critic like Eleanor Cameron has never explored Dahl's work through the interpretation of the comic grotesque and the culture of childhood. Szuber (1999) asserted that most literary critics adopt a limited and narrow interpretation on Dahl's work and if only Dahl's stories are interpreted in the aspects of folk humor and comic grotesque, they would realize that the negative remarks such as sadism and violence in his writing are always demoralised with humour. Due to this issue, Dahl's work should be interpreted in a positive light.

Upon various criticisms on his books, Dahl argued that his writing serves as a motivation for children to enjoy reading. In an interview in *Trust Your Children* (West, 1988), Dahl claimed:

> My only purpose in writing books for children is to encourage them to develop a love of books. I'm not trying to indoctrine them in any way. I'm trying to entertain them. If I can get a young person into the habit of reading and thinking that books are fun, then, with a bit of luck, that habit will continue through life. (pp. 73-74)

In order to encourage children to read, it is important to ensure the novels should be suitable with the level of children's moral reasoning, because children favour books that reflect their own social and moral development. Despite the great criticism on Dahl's *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* (1964), I believe that this novel is able to inspire children through the characters presented in the novel. Dahl created a number of children's characters and some grownups in the stories to show how the children experience moral development. Thus, I am interested in choosing this novel to identify how the characters depict children's immature morality in terms of their behaviour in certain situations, their moral judgment in decision making and also their relationship with others. The children's mature and immature morality in this novel will be my focus in this research. This is because the knowledge of children's mature and immature morality is important for parents and educators in order to understand children. This study would also help parents and educators to be aware of the moral values highlighted in this particular novel.

Children and moral development

Among the psychologists who had made major contribution to the children's moral development field is Lawrence Kohlberg, who had developed his moral development theory by explaining the origin of justice. However, Kohlberg's (1972) moral development theory was criticized by Gilligan (1977), for she claimed that the orientation of moral reasoning or justice is not the only element that represents an individual's moral behavior (Gibbs, 2003). Gibbs' (2003) model revised Kohlberg's (1972) moral development theory by emphasizing mature and immature morality of an individual. According to Gibbs (2003), immature morality represents immature moral judgment. Children learn that the punishment given makes the action wrong and any physical damage is a harmful act. Children with immature morality also possess egocentric orientation when morality is viewed as an exchange of favours, "I did this so you'd better do that for me," "pay them back if they've done it to you," or "what's in it for me?" before you help others (Gibbs, 2005, p. 148). Quite similarly to Kohlberg's pre-conventional stage, fairness is interpreted in a physical, pragmatic way and, reciprocity is a matter of "you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours" (Gibbs, 2003; Gibbs, 2005).

Gibbs (2003) also claimed that an individual with immature morality has trouble understanding the ideal mutuality in a relationship. For example, he or she tends to be self-centered, and thus, is better at detecting how others are unfair, rather than he or she is unfair to others (Gibbs, 2005). Moreover, an individual who depicts immature morality is of the view that everybody should have the right to think and get what he or she wants and "may assert that nobody even the authority should boss anybody around" (Gibbs, 2005, p. 148).

Mature morality, on the other hand, defines moral judgment as mutual trust and understanding of others (Gibbs, 2005). This is when children try to make a good impression so that they can start a good relationship with others. This includes being nice and trying to understand other people's perspectives. For example, keeping a promise and being honest are common courtesy to make others trust you. Gibbs (2005) stated that children or youth who showed little or no moral judgment beyond immature morality are considered as not considering other people's perspectives.

Moreover, mature morality also focuses on societal expectations and ideal values (Gibbs, 2005). Children or youth contribute to the society by giving cooperation, showing respect and taking responsibilities for others. Through this action, a person is expected to maintain the values but at the same time consider the situation. A person should also portray honesty and justice in their relationships as a means to maintain a harmonious society.

Studies on Roald Dahl's works

Roald Dahl has been a very influential writer whose stories have been adapted to many films. Unlike other children's writers, Roald Dahl breaks free from the conventional children's books by writing about naughty children, hideous beasts and disgusting ideas (Szuber, 1999). Royer (1998) pointed out that most people evaluate his works as portraying positive impact to the readers, despite the great criticism received on his writings. Although humour is not the primary focus in this study, it is important to know that Roald Dahl's witty and humorous way of writing style has attracted children to read his books, and Dahl informed the world that he had completed his mission to encourage children to become readers (West, 1988). When *Matilda* came under attack, West (1992) claimed that critics often fail to notice the positive presentation of the protagonist Matilda who is brilliant, brave and independent. Although she is still young, Matilda does not let her poor home life affect her self-esteem (Royer, 1998).

Royer (1998) also asserted that Dahl's theme portrays the belief that good and moral virtues triumph in a victory while evil will be punished and destroyed. Although some critics argued that Dahl's work depicts the negative portrayal of the adults, this type of element according to Royer (1998) gives inspiration for

adolescent readers because there is a feeling of rebellion among them while developing their identity. Nevertheless, the positive element is injected in other characters such as the grandmother in *The Witches* when the grandmother said, "It doesn't matter who you are or what you look like so long as somebody loves you" (Royer, 1998).

Looking at Roald Dahl's work at the aspect of social criticism, Roald Dahl mostly used the representation of human flaws in his writing to convey certain social problems. Tumer (2009) in her research on *Roald's Dahl Work as a Means of Social Criticism* mentioned that Dahl used two techniques to depict his social criticism. The first technique is by ridiculing certain characters, and the second technique is by portraying a bad ending for the bad characters. As a result, Dahl's portrayal of social criticism brought different reactions to readers especially adults, due to its harsh treatment on the grown up characters in his novels. It is also argued that the brutal and evil punishment as portrayed in the novels might give a false impression to children that the values are acceptable in real life. Roald Dah in West (1998) defended his novels by claiming:

> Children know that the violence in my stories is only make-believe. It's much like the violence in the old fairy tales, especially the Grimms' tales. These tales are pretty rough, but the violence is confined to a magical time and place. When violence is tied to fantasy and humor, children find it more amusing than threatening. (p. 75)

Nevertheless, Szuber (1999) argued that most critics do not fully recognize the culture of childhood and its relation to the comic grotesque while evaluating Roald Dahl's work. She claimed that Dahl's works, which critics believed represented violence and cruelty, are part of the complex literary genre defined as the comic grotesque. Besides, to understand the comic grotesque through the point of view of a child, it is important to understand

the children's humour. Zbaracki (2003) in his research about *Humor in Literature* stated that humour is essential in children's literature because "children are happy to laugh at mistakes made by other children, provided they no longer make the same mistakes" (p. 21). Szuber (1999) asserted that the narrow interpretation on Dahl's work by critics resembles Dahl's work in a negative light. This is because in the culture of childhood, "the grotesque element can be interpreted as a means of overcoming anxiety and oppression in a world governed by adult authority" (Szuber, 1999, p. 22).

After looking at the past studies done on Roald Dahl's work and considering the criticism, we can observe that Roald Dahl expresses the idea of morality through his work in a very extraordinary sense. This present study however, looks at the aspect of children's immature morality by analysing the children's characters in Roald Dahl's *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*. Analysing the children's mature and immature morality would look at the concept of morality in depth, and this could also provide a means for the researcher to identify the moral values presented in this particular novel.

Moral education in Malaysian schools

According to the Ministry of Education, Malaysia (2000), moral education is implemented in the Malaysian primary and secondary schools to inculcate spiritual and moral awareness among students in the context of religion, tradition and culture. With the moral education, students are expected to be morally and socially responsible for their decisions and actions. Mamat (2003) in her study on *Assessment in Moral Education at The Secondary School Level* stated that there are 16 values congruent to the universal values being taught to school children to ensure healthy relationship among family members, peers and members of the society. The 16 values are listed below:

Compassion	Freedom	Moderation
Self-reliance	Courage	Gratitude
Humility	Rationality	Cooperation
Respect	Honesty	Public Spiritedness
Love	Diligence	Justice
Physical and Mental Cleanliness		

(Mamat, 2003, p. 130)

Mamat (2003) reported that Lemin, Potts and Weslford (1994) claimed these values are quite similar to the values applied in the programs in Ontario, Canada and Western Australia. Hence, it shows that these values are universally accepted and shared by people from different cultures and backgrounds.

METHOD

This study uses thematic analysis, and the analysis uses Gibb's (2003) Revisionist model to look at the mature and immature morality of the children characters. The characters' mature and immature morality are analysed based on the interaction with the peers and adults through the 16 values as implied in the Moral Education in Malaysia. In this study, the mature and immature morality is significant to understand the children's characters in the novel. Extracts will be taken from the novel so that the moral development of the children characters can be analysed through the characters' thoughts, words and actions. Three children characters are selected in this study. They are Augustus Gloop, Veruca Salt and the protagonist – Charlie Bucket.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Augustus Gloop

Augustus represents immaturity of action when he kneels on the chocolate river bank to drink some chocolate, even though he is prohibited from committing such an action. Despite the advice given by the adults, he "had quietly sneaked down to the edge of the river" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory, 1964, p. 96*). Gibbs (2005) stated that a person who depicts immature morality feels that "authority

should not boss anyone around" (p.148). This has been proven when his mother does not approve of his behaviour, so she asked him to stop by exclaiming, "Augustus, sweetheart. I don't think you had better do that." Portraying an "egocentric manner which depicts immature morality" (Gibbs, 2005), he ignores his mother and "he was now kneeling on the riverbank" and starts "scooping hot melted chocolate into his mouth as fast as he could." These scenes depict Augustus' character as a greedy boy whose insatiable manner is caused by the fear that others would have a share for the delicious chocolate soon if he does not take such an action. This does not merit a moral action, as he has not sought the owner's permission.

Augustus also does not take "the slightest notice of his mother or Mr. Wonka" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 97) which resembles his ego-centrism. Gibbs (2003) also asserted that physical damage committed by an individual is acknowledged to be wrong while punish-ment serves as a way to correct the behavior. In the text, "For sudden, there was a shriek, and then, a splash, and into the river went Augustus Gloop" clearly illustrates the penalty of Augustus' own ignorance. He is also sent "shooting up the pipe," to be "altered a bit" and to be "boiled for a minute more" just to make sure that "all the greed and the gall is boiled away for once and all" (p. 105). The author criticizes greedy children, for they are described as immature and need to be punished.

Veruca Salt

Veruca Salt portrays immature morality when she "scream[s]" to her parents, "lie[s] for hours" and "kick[s] and yell[s]" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p.

40) on the floor in order to insist on her needs and for the community to accom-modate her needs and wants. Veruca would throw a tantrum in the most pestering way, when her wish is not being granted by the parents. This supports Gibbs' (2005) view that an immature child has trouble under-standing the ideal relationship with others and prone to detect how her parents are being unfair to her.

Another example that portrays Veruca's egocentrism due to her impetuous manner is when she requests for an Oompa Loompa from her father. Veruca "shouted" and "screamed" whenever she requests for the things she wants, employing the idea of being practically demanding. Quite similar like Augustus, she is gutsy and ravenous; she impulsively demands that her father buys her an Oompa Loompa, depicting her immaturity. Her words, "Daddy! I want an Oompa-Loompa right away!" demonstrates her command to her father to own an Oompa-Loompa immediately. She goes on by saying "I want to take it home with me! Go on, Daddy! Get me an Oompa Loompa!" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 96). This exemplifies her unyielding manner to listen to anybody except herself. She is, again, depicting immature morality, declaring her needs in light of her own view without contemplating the other person's situation.

Besides, she even instructs Mr. Salt to buy her a big boat like Mr. Wonka, and this reveals her egocentric manner. She goes on by exclaiming, "Daddy," said Veruca Salt, "I want a boat like this! I want you to buy me a big pink boiled-sweet boat exactly like Mr Wonka's! And I want a chocolate river and I want… I want…" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 107). Disap-proving Veruca's attitude, Grandpa Joe informs Charlie, "She wants a good kick in the pants" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 107), pointing out the view that punishment is expected to correct this child's behaviour.

Another example that shows Veruca's immature morality is when she hastily requests her parents to get her a trained squirrel belonging to Mr Wonka. Gibbs (2005) stated that a person who depicts immature morality has trouble understanding mutuality in a relationship. Veruca makes a decision to have a squirrel when she informs Mrs. Salt, "I've decided I want a squirrel! Get me one of those squirrels!", demonstrat-ing the idea that she is being bossy, selfish and inconsiderate towards her parents. This also foreshadows Veruca's flaw that she is going to be the next victim to receive a punishment. Veruca with her intractable manner argues that she is going to get the squirrel herself to prove to others that she can have it without others' assistance. This supports Gibbs's (2005) view that egocentric orientation marks immature morality. Veruca claims, "Who says I can't" and "I'm going to get myself one this very minute" and she "had already thrown open the door and rushed in," all these clarify the idea of disobedience and irresponsibility towards the adults' advice. This also foreshadows her fate of going to succumb to her own weakness.

As suggested by Grandpa Joe, a spoiled girl should deserve a punishment. Dahl, again, uses a "bad ending" for the bad character to transmit the value of children's obedience and responsibility. Just like Augustus, Veruca instantly receives a punishment for her egocentrism. The disobedient and irresponsible Veruca is then held tightly by the squirrels' hands. She "kicked and screamed, but it was no use." This suggests that she is trying to break free from the squirrels, and thus, implies the idea that children should think before they act in any given situation to avoid bad consequences. Veruca is also "going where all the other bad nuts go," which clearly symbolizes her bad character, so she deserves to go "down the rubbish chute" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 143).

Charlie Bucket

Analysing his character, one could see Charlie as a portrayal of a perfect grandchild since he always "went into the room of his four grandparents to listen to their stories, and then afterwards to say good night" (Dahl, *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory*, 1964. p.

19). His willingness to share and listen to his grandparents' stories depicts his perseverance, kindness and responsibility as the only child in the Bucket family. Charlie establishes a warm relationship with his parents and four grandparents, symbolizing his responsibility toward the elders. In addition, his grandparents reckon that Charlie "was the bright things in their life" (p. 19). Charlie's social connection with his grandparents signifies mature morality, in which respect is gained through the positive interaction the family members have at home. Although the Bucket family is poor, healthy relationships in the family contribute to a harmonious environment.

Besides, Charlie's intention to share a bar of chocolate with his parents and grandparents during his birthday portrays his mature morality, depicting his kindness and care toward the rest of family. "Here, Mother, have a bit. We'll share it. I want everybody to taste it" (Dahl*, Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 45). Refusing to accept the fact that the chocolate belongs to him, Charlie strongly insists his family members to take it when he pleads with Grandpa Joe, "Please," begged Charlie, turning round and offering it to Grandpa Joe.

Furthermore, the phrase "I hear his mother tried to slip her own piece of bread on to his plate at breakfast this morning, but he wouldn't touch it" confirms Charlie's denial to take other people's portion in a gentle way. His kind manner indirectly reassures his mother to eat the bread later because "he made her take back." Analysing Charlie's character, Grandpa George commented that "He's a fine little fellow" and "He deserves better than this" (Dahl*, Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 58). This foreshadows that Charlie's courage and kindness toward others in the family should be blessed with a reward. Nevertheless, one could see that the good deed Charlie accomplished is not on the basis of reward or exchanging favours, but rather on the feeling of love and care for his family. This fits the characteristic of Gibbs' (2003) mature morality when any action done is based on love and respect for the others. This shows the portrayal of his mature morality since Gibbs (2003) stated that understanding others is important in building a positive relationship.

At the end, when Charlie is rewarded with the chocolate factory, Charlie feels doubtful if his parents and grandparents would agree to live at the factory. He "tried to calm the three old people who are still petrified with fear," showing his responsibility to make sure his grandparents who feel frightened feel better. He persuades his grandparents—"It's quite safe"— to indicate his assurance that they will be visiting the "most wonderful place in the world" (Dahl*, Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* 1964, p. 189). The situation also portrays Charlie's mature morality, for he is trying to ensure his beloved grandparents are comfortable with the situation at the chocolate factory. Due to his good manners and his virtue for being a "good sensible loving child," he is eventually rewarded the Wonka chocolate factory.

Moral value(s) identified

Based on the 16 values being implemented in the Moral Education in Malaysia, the moral values of obedience, honesty, respect and courage are presented through the depiction of children's mature and immature morality in both novels. From the analysis, it is obvious that moral values are significant in developing children's mature and immature morality.

Firstly, the value of obedience is identified. Children who are disobedient, greedy and aggressive toward their parents are depicted as immature and are punished to correct their misbehaviour. This can be seen through the two characters, Veruca and Augustus, whose parents are unable to educate them to be good and obedient. Charlie, on the other hand, is an obedient child. He obeys all the rules fixed in the factory and is rewarded with a chocolate factory at the end. The value of honesty is observed when Charlie questions Veruca's father's honesty for using his power and status to buy all the Wonka chocolate bars. Charlie feels Veruca's way of getting the golden ticket is unfair since it reduces the possibility of other children winning the ticket.

Furthermore, the value of responsibility can be seen through the character of Charlie. By being responsible toward his parents and grandparents, Charlie portrays a perfect grandson. He shows his love and responsibility by listening to the grandparents' stories and calms them when they are in need. Besides, the value of courage is identified when this poor boy, with his strength and courage, tries to share his family's burden by sharing his food and not taking others' portion. Showing respect and care towards his family also develops a positive relationship with the elders.

CONCLUSION

Morality and the issues of morality cannot be separated from children. Children learn to become socially responsible persons through experience and encouragement from the elders. For instance, socializing with adults and peers help children understand the value of respect, responsibility, cooperation and support provided by the society around them.

In *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory,* the bad characters being punished signify the egocentric behaviour of each to achieve personal fulfillment. Their immature morality is mostly depicted by their egocentric and non-emphatic manner. From the analysis, it is revealed that Augustus is greedy and oblivious while Veruca is spoilt and bossy. Both children share the same charac-teristic—they are disobedient. As a result, punishment serves as a way to correct their immature behaviour.

Although Dahl does not clearly state in this novel whether the children characters such as Augustus and Veruca learn their lesson for each punishment given, the audience especially young readers probably learn to behave better if they know that good and moral virtues triumph a victory while evil and bad deeds deserve a punishment. This can be clearly seen through the analysis in which Augustus' greediness sent him up to the pipe and Veruca's spoilt attitude leads her to the rubbish chute. This helps young readers understand the consequences of their bad habit by relating them to the real world.

The value of obedience, responsibility and honesty are also identified in the novel. Children who are disobedient, greedy and aggressive towards the parents and others are depicted as immature and are punished to correct their misbehaviour. Parents also play major roles in educating the children to well-behaved. In order to shape a moral individual, moral values should be implemented since childhood.

Although the present study offers way of looking at mature and immature morality in children's book by the author from the West, Dahl's *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* would benefit readers from the non-Western community since the value identified such as respect, honesty and obedience are quite similar to the universal values taught to school children in Malaysia. Thus, it is recommended that policy makers and teachers in school incorporate children's literature in the primary schools in Malaysia to equip school children with better under-standing about morality and moral values explored in the children's books. From the findings, this study gives readers a new insight of looking at literary texts through a different perspective, especially on the issues of morality. Since moral and morality are not concrete matters (Mun, 2004), it is possible for a study in the future to look at them by applying different theories on analysing the literary texts.

A cultural-developmental theory could perhaps discuss the issue of morality in the children's literature. Since an individual's culture plays significant role in the moral identity tradition (Jensen, 2008), a study on the relation of culture could identify the patterns and factors of children's mature and immature morality as depicted in the children's literature. Analysing children's literature by looking at the various ethics and diverse cultures could also reveal different perspectives of the ideas of moral and morality in a certain society.

The analysis of the characters in the novel has also contributed to the children's literature studies in which, despite the criticism on Roald

Dahl's works, it proves that moral values presented in these two novels are expressed through the children's mature and immature morality examined in the text. As a final say, Roald Dahl's work has influenced children to become readers due to the sense of confidence, courage and hope he represented through the children's characters in the novel.

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THE WRITTEN DISCOURSE OF INTERVIEWING STYLE FOR A MAGAZINE INTERVIEW

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Abstract: This paper examines the written discourse of interviewing style for the purpose of print publication. Specifically, this paper sought to describe and explain the phases of interviewing procedures, the typology of the questions, and the transitional strategies executed by Oprah Winfrey during her interviews for *O Magazine*. One hundred and ten (110) response-soliciting statements were subjected to discourse analytic procedure to determine the features of such utterances. The results showed that her interview procedure follows a certain pattern that contributes to her ability to maintain the intimacy, familiarity, and dynamics of conversation. Further, results revealed that the interviewer employs a variety of response-soliciting strategies and transitional strategies that unconsciously put the control and authority in the conversation to the interviewees. Finally, some pedagogical implications were also presented for classroom use.

Keywords: *discourse analysis, interviewing style, interview questions, written discourse*

Abstrak: Makalah ini meneliti wacana tulisan gaya wawancara untuk tujuan penerbitan cetak. Makalah ini khususnya mencoba menggambarkan dan menjelaskan tahapan prosedur wawancara, tipologi pertanyaannya, dan strategi transisi yang dilakukan oleh Oprah Winfrey selama wawancaranya di *O Magazine*. Seratus sepuluh pernyataan yang merupakan respon terhadap pertanyaan wawancara menjadi subjek penelitian melalui prosedur analisis wacana untuk menentukan ciri-ciri ucapan. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa prosedur wawancara mengikuti pola tertentu yang berkontribusi terhadap kemampuan Oprah dalam mempertahankan kedekatan, keakraban, dan dinamika percakapan. Selain itu, terungkap pula bahwa pewawancara meggunakan beragam strategi untuk memperoleh respon dan strategi transisi yang secara tidak sadar memberikan kontrol dan kuasa dalam percakapan terhadap yang diwawancara. Akhirnya, beberapa implikasi pedagogik juga dihadirkan untuk kepentingan di kelas.

Katakunci: *analisis wacana, gaya wawancara, pertanyaan wawancara, wacana tertulis*

An increasing attention has been given to the concept of genre because of the shifting views that language is shaped by context to achieve social purposes (Hyland, 2007). This paradigm shift has opened the venue to analyze language used in a definite social context and discourse community leading to a research endeavor called discourse analysis. Discourse analysis "emphasizes the role of language in the construction of social reality" (Talja, 1999, p. 460) and has attracted researchers from various fields, such as linguists, sociologists, translators, advertisers, and communication experts, making it a multi-disciplinary endeavor (Bhatia, 2002). It is concerned with both macrolinguistic elements such as genre, moves, learner interaction with discourse in a particular field or discipline and microlinguistic ones such as frequency counts (Master, 2005). A recent development in discourse analysis

gave birth to the concept of genre analysis, which deals with the higher level of structure and organization of a given text (Xu, 2005). As a study of situated linguistic behavior, genre analysis is a versatile and dynamic activity that essentially describes and explains conventionalized textual artifacts in a specific discipline or fields (Bhatia, 2002).

A form of text and discourse that can be investigated on are interviews performed in a specific social context. Evidently, interview has been one of the key elements for effective academic, business and professional, political, and other social communication. It is a conversation, whether face-to-face or through other media, between or among interlocutors. Interview can serve many functions, one of which is performance evaluation and screening. Interviews can be used to determine whether a candidate is fit for hiring or promotion. Interviews can also function as information-gathering instrument used in surveys and news gathering. Lastly, interviews can be used for academic purposes, such as place-ment, admission, and pre-graduation (exit interview).

In a professional context, one sector that deals greatly with interviews is mass media acting as a discourse community. Media is defined as "one of society's key set of institutions, industries, and cultural practices" (Masterman, 2001, p. 16) and the people's way to connect to their social world (Couldrey, 2003). In these fields, interviews are integral to the gathering and delivery of accurate information, in which interview questions are formulated under the notion that interviewers are impartial conduit for the overhearing audience (Clayman & Heritage, 2002). Interviews are commonly viewed on the television and heard on radio. Three types of broadcast interview exist: the live interview, the phone interview, and the recorded interview. Live interview is a synchronous face-to-face conversation between the interlocutors. Phone interview, on the other hand, is a synchronous non-face-to-face conversation between interlo-cutors. Unlike phone and live interviews, recorded

interviews are not done in real-time. However, they may be face-to-face or not.

As experts suggest, to maintain a good interview, an interviewer requires to be skilled at rapport building and inter-personal communication; he/she must be articulate, persistent, flexible, in character, reflective, witty, and good at listening. He/she must also know how to tailor and sequence questions for a more dynamic conversation. As defined by Heritage (2002, p. 1427), a question is a "form of social action, designed to seek information and accomplished in a turn at talk by means of interrogative syntax." He further explained that questions can be in interrogative or declarative forms. In declarative questions, the asker raises the intonation.

Several studies have been conducted in analyzing the discourse of interviews in various settings, such as academic (Perkins, 1998; Lazaraton & Saville, 1994), occupation (Vrij, Mann, Kristen, & Fisher, 2007), politics (Bull & Mayer, 1993), and broadcast media (Clayman, 2001; Heritage, 2002; Ilie, 1999).

Perkins (1998) analyzed the teacher interview questions and practices used by middle school principals. The purpose of her study is to examine the category, content, and type of interview questions. She found out that principals used structured interviews and that no significant differences exists in the type of questions asked and practices that the principals used, despite differences in their demographic characteristics. Further, a study on processes and outcomes in oral assessment revealed that, despite the training given to the interviewers, they still vary considerably in the support that they provide (Lazaraton & Saville, 1994).

Vrij, Mann, Kristen, and Fisher (2007) investigated whether the accusatory, information gathering, and behavior analyses reveal verbal cues to deceit. They also examined the effects of these three interview styles on the ability to detect deception. Results revealed that accusatory style contained the least verbal cues to deceit and that no significant difference was found on the effects of the three interview styles on the ability to

identify deception.

Bull and Mayer's (1993) study analyzed eight televised political interviews to assess the amounts of equivocalization, to develop typologies of non-replies, and to compare the interview styles of Margaret Thatcher and Neil Kinnock. They found that the interviewees did not reply to the majority of the posted questions; instead, they made political points followed by attacking the questions.

Very few studies were conducted to examine the dynamics of interview in a broadcast media context, one of which is Clayman's paper titled "Answers and Evasions." This paper tried to investigate the nature of answering and resisting questions in broadcast news interviews. He found that interviewees employ different ways of "damage control." Another study conducted by Heritage (2002) examines the limits of questioning of negative interrogatives using news interviews as a source of data. Results revealed that negative interrogatives appear frequently in news interviews as a vehicle of assertions, but not those interrogatives with attached tags. In the context of talk shows, Ilie (1999) examines the three types of non-standard questions: expository, rhetorical, and echo. Using the transcripts of Oprah Winfrey's talk show, the analysis was carried out through response elicitation and argumentative orientation. Results revealed that the three non-standard questions and their respective responses varied in their degree of elicitation. Further, the findings showed that no discrete categories exist in questions and responses.

As to the present study, to the knowledge of the researcher, no research has been conducted yet on the discourse of interview for the purpose of print publication, more so, research that explores the response-soliciting patterns and styles during interview of an internationally acclaimed and influential media personality (i.e. Oprah Winfrey). It is in this context that this study was undertaken. Unlike Ilie's (1999) study which focused on four question categories on broadcast mode (i.e. information-eliciting, answer-eliciting, action-eliciting, and mental-response

eliciting), the present study focuses on analyzing the written discourse (i.e. printed mode) of the interviewing style of Oprah Winfrey, specifically, the phases of Oprah's interviewing procedures, the typology of the questions she used in her interviews, and the transitional strategies she executed.

METHOD

The present study employed a discourse analytic method, which has the purpose of describing, analyzing, and interpreting data (Talja, 1999). Specifically, interview questions were analyzed at a macro-sociologic level. These questions were based on the written discourse of Oprah Winfrey's interviewing style in "Oprah Talks To" page. As one of the most powerful and influential women in the world according to Forbes, Oprah Winfrey was selected as a viable subject for the study because of her significant influence on modern culture through her charismatic, intimate, and familiar style of communication (Illouz, 2003).

The selected texts, which were the transcripts of Oprah's interview with Sarah Jessica Parker and Stevie Wonder that constitute 49 and 69 response-soliciting statements respectively, were taken from *O, The Oprah Magazine* March 2004 and May 2004 issues, respectively. The said issues were selected because of the abundance of response-soliciting statements. Specifically, the focus of this paper's analysis is on the questioning style of Oprah Winfrey during the interviews, particularly the interview phases, linguistic forms of questions, and transitional strategies.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Phases on Oprah Winfrey's interviewing

There are three phases generated in the analysis of the interview conducted by Oprah Winfrey on her "Oprah Talks To" segment. These are the warm-up stage, the probing phase, and the cool-down phase.

<u>Phase I. Warm-up phase (Preparation and Opening)</u>

March 2004 issue-Interview with Sarah Jessica Parker:

Oprah: By the time this article is in print, you will have taped your last episode of *Sex and the City*. Is that scary?

SJP: What a hard decision it was to end the show! And as scary as it is to leave – sometimes you have to do what is risky.

Oprah: So you're okay with closing Carrie's wardrobe closet?

SJP: For now yes. But I'm very attached to the crew….

Oprah: I understand – the crew become like family. On my desk, I've got a picture of my stage manager, Dean, right there next to Stedman and the dogs.

May 2004 Issue-Interview with Stevie Wonder:

Oprah: When you performed at my 50th birthday party, people were on their feet, singing every song. DO you think the days of your kind of music are finished?

Stevie: What we hear today is real music.

Oprah: Rap is real music?

Stevie: When we were growing up and listening to our music, the older people said, "That's horrible!"

Oprah: So we've become our parents?

<u>Phase II. Probing Phase</u>

From the preparation and the opening phase, starts the period of discussion of the main topics, which begins with the interviewees' family and personal issues, then to their professional life, then back again to their family and personal issues.

March 2004 issue-Interview with Sarah Jessica Parker:

Personal Life Questions:

Question No. 4: That's not the same as working every day. But I know you also needed to make this decision for yourself and your family?

Question No. 8: Do you want more children?

Question No. 12: What do you like to cook?

Question No. 20: I'm with you, sister. Who are the women you admire?

Professional Life Questions:

Question No. 21: *Sex and the City* made America feel differently about being single. Was that your intention when you took the role?

Question No. 26: Have there ever been things in the script that just shock you?

Personal Life Questions:

Question No. 30: Yes, so where do you see yourself ten years from now?

Question No. 34: How many shoes do you have?

Question No. 39: As you approach the next chapter of your life, what are the things you're most certain about?

May 2004 Issue-Interview with Stevie Wonder:

Personal Life Questions:

Question No. 7: Can you explain how you came to be so smart, sensitive, and connected to the world without being able to see? And do you remember colors at all?

Question No. 8: Weren't you put in an incubator and given too much oxygen?

Question No. 10: I read that when you were 5, you said to your mom, "Don't worry about me being blind because I'm happy." True?

Question No. 19: Once you started playing the piano, did you become known for that in your community?

Professional Life Questions:

Question No. 20: When you signed with Motown, did your life change immediately?

Question No. 25: How did "You are the sunshine of my life" come to you?

Question No. 28: How do you define yourself as a musician?

Personal Life Questions:

Question No. 30: That's why we're here to figure out those things out for ourselves. How do you define yourself as a man?

Question No. 31: Why do you say you aren't a normal man?

Phase III. Cool-down Phase

During the cool-down phase, both the interviews dealt with a personal question. In the case of interview with Stevie Wonder, a question regarding the vision for the interviewee's professional activity (i.e. album) was posted.

March 2004 issue-Interview with Sarah Jessica Parker:

Oprah: Do your best ideas come in the shower? Mine come in the tub.

SJP: It's the only time when you're really, really alone. For people who live in cities where you have to drive a lot, ideas come in the car. For me the shower is the one place where all the world's spinning stops.

Oprah: It might have something to do with the water.

SJP: It's the quietest place. Standing in the shower that day, I didn't dream that in a million years we'd ever get Mikhail on the show.

Oprah: Really?

SJP: No. But it's a great lesson. Even when the odds are stacked against you, have a crazy-big dream—and then proceed.

May 2004 Issue-Interview with Stevie Wonder:

Oprah: There's always a song inside you.

Stevie: Yes. But it has taken me ten years to feel there's enough of this and that. You're the first person I'll tell the title of the album. It's called *A Time to Love*. We've had all sorts of time to talk about the war, but when will there be a time to love? It's now.

Oprah: What's your vision for this album?

Stevie: I hope people will say, "We've got to make a difference. We've got to have more respect for one another. We've got to find a better way of expressing ourselves without belittling each other. We've got to remember that the way we came to this planet was through love." I'm hoping people will understand that we cannot be a United States until we are a united people.

Typology of the questions employed

In the context of the present study, typology form refers to the structure used by the interviewer to signal a question and solicit response from the interviewees. Such forms include declarative, imperative, interroga-tive, ellipsis, and response forms. The following table shows the distribution of ways on soliciting response from the interviewees.

Form of Response Solicitation	Interview 1		Interview 2		Overall Distribution	
	F	P (%)	F	P (%)	F	P (%)
QFP	8	16.33	10	16.39	18	16.36
QF	12	24.49	29	47.54	41	37.27
DF	21	42.86	19	31.15	40	36.36
RF	3	6.12	1	1.64	4	3.64
IF	1	2.04	0	0	1	0.91
E	3	6.12	1	1.64	4	3.64
EP	1	2.04	1	1.64	2	1.82
Total	49	100	61	100	110	100

Legend:

QFP = Interrogative form with prestatement

QF = Interrogative form without prestatement

DF = Declarative form

RF = Response form

IF = Imperative form

E = Ellipses without prestatement (in question form)

EP = Ellipses with prestatement

For Interview 1, results show that most of the linguistic form used to solicit responses during the course of the interview was in declarative form orthographically (DF) with a frequency percentage of 42.86, followed by interrogative form without prestatement (QF) with a frequency percentage of 24.49; interrogative form with prestatement (QFP) with a frequency percentage of 16.33; both the ellipses without prestatement (E) and response form (RF) had a frequency percentage of 6.12 while both the ellipses with prestatement (EP) and imperative form (IF) obtained a frequency percentage of 2.04; and imperative form (IF) with a frequency percentage of 0.91.

The results for Interview 2 somewhat differed from those of Interview 1. QF obtained the highest frequency percentage of 47.54 compared to DF with frequency percentage of 31.15. These two are followed by QFP (16.39), RF (1.64), E (1.64), and EP (1.64). IF obtained zero frequency.

Overall, QF obtained the highest frequency percentage of 37.27. Close to second is DF with 36.36. Despite some differences in the results of Interview 1 and Interview 2, the results obtained a correlation value of 0.81, which can be interpreted as strongly correlated. Below are some of the exemplars of the response-soliciting statements.

March 2004 Issue

QFP = Interrogative form with prestatement
By the time this article is in print, you will have taped your last episode of *Sex and the City*. Is that scary?
It is. You were in your early 30s when you married, and you're approaching 40 now. What kind of woman do you want to become?
I'm with you, sister. Who are the women you admire?
I've always wanted to ask you something: Do you get all your Manolos for free?
QF = Interrogative form without prestatement
Have you gotten any sleep since he arrived?
Do you want more children?
What do you like to cook?
How many shoes do you have?
DF = Declarative form
I understand—the crew become like family. On my desk, I've got a picture of my stage manager, Dean, right there next to Stedman and the dogs.
That's not the same as working every day. But I know you also needed to make this decision for yourself and your family.
You light up when you talk about him.
You like talking about food, but you must not eat a lot. I'm lookin' at ya!
So I'm talking to a sleep-deprived woman right now.
RF = Response form
Yes.
I'm not.
IF = Imperative form
Explain that to us.
E = Ellipses without prestatement (in question form)
Weighty?
Really?

EP = Ellipses with prestatement
Speaking of love, you said on one of the biography shows that it's been a honeymoon ever since you and Matthew married. True?

May 2004 Issue

QFP = Interrogative form with prestatement
We also didn't grow up with videos. What happens to a generation bombarded with images of mansions and diamonds, Rolls-Royces, and scantily clad girls—and the idea of life as one big party?   Over the years, your music has challenged complacency. Was it always your intention to use music as a vehicle for reaching the world, or were you just writing songs you liked?   That's why we're here—to figure those things out for ourselves. How do you define yourself as a man?   When you performed at my 50th birthday party, people were on their feet, singing every word to every song. Do you think the days of your kind of music—music that touches our soul and creates memories—are finished?
QF = Interrogative form without prestatement
Can you explain how you came to be so smart, sensitive, and connected to the world without being able to see? And do you remember colors at all?   Weren't you put in an incubator and given too much oxygen?   Have you ever felt bitter because of the doctor's mistake?   What are the biggest lessons she passed on to you?   What did you feel the first time you touched the keys?
DF = Declarative form
So we've become our parents.   You would also prefer a breast to gratuitous violence.   The same thing happened to Quincy Jones when he was around 11. He was a little hoodlum in Seattle, and he broke into a warehouse to steal pies. He found a piano, and when he touched the keys for the first time, he said he knew he'd come home.   In 2000 there were reports that you were planning to get some kind of chip to regain your sight.
RF = Response form
Period.
E = Ellipses without prestatement (in question form)
Really?
EP = Ellipses with prestatement
I read that when you were 5, you said to your mom, "Don't worry about me being blind, because I'm happy." True?

Transitional Strategies Employed during Interview

With close examination on the written text's transition from one question to another, there were three ways on how to make transition. The following table shows the frequency of questions based on last previous response (RQ), questions that are not directly related to the last previous response but with transition markers (NRQT), and questions that are not directly related to the last previous response and without transitional markers (NRQ).

Transition	Interview 1		Interview 2		Overall Distribution	
	F	P (%)	F	P (%)	F	P (%)
RQ	41	83.67	50	81.97	91	82.73
NRQT	5	10.21	7	11.48	12	10.91
NRQ	3	6.12	4	6.55	7	6.36
Total	49	100	61	100	110	100

Among the three techniques used in both interviews, RQ is the most dominating strategy for question transition, which covers 91 or 82.73 percent. Moreover, 12 or 10.91 percent of all the questions use NRQT. NRQ got a frequency of 7 or 6.36 percent. With a correlation value of 0.999, it can be surmised that the two interviews are highly consistent with the transitional strategies employed during the interviews.

According to Robbins and Hunsaker's (1996) model, an interview follows four stages: the preparation, the opening, the period of questioning and discussion, and the conclusion. In connection with this, Oprah's interview seems to have similarities with the stated model. Oprah performed the warm-up phase (i.e. preparation stage) by relating the issue to her. During this phase, the interview started by asking the interviewees on the latest project that they have just completed. Oprah then relates the responses of the interviewees to her own personal experience. During the probing phase, a pattern of development was also observed. Both Interviews 1 and 2 followed the personal-professional-personal pattern. Such pattern seemed to be a strategy to smoothen the transition from warm-up phase to probing phase and probing phase to cool down phase. As Ilie (1999) pointed out, question framing is fundamental to probing personal and professional life of the guest while maintaining the personality of the inter-viewer. This phenomenon was ascertained during the conversation in the two interviews. The majority of the response-soliciting statements deal with personal and professional issues because such type of interview has two major functions, which is to inform and to entertain. Further, several feedback moves were present during the probing phase particularly in a form of a *follow-up* (involves the explicit confirmation of the interviewer) and *evaluation* (whether or not the interlocutors subscribe with the other person's statement) on the response of the interviewees; however, these feedback moves are more prominent in Oprah's interview with Sarah and not with her interview with Stevie. An example of such move is shown below:

Follow-up

SJP: *Right. I think we have a good marriage. We'll see. We've been together for 12 years. That's a long time.*

Oprah: *It is. You were in your early 30s when you married, and you're approaching 40 now. What kind of woman do you want to become?*

Evaluative

SJP: *I just gave away a stack the other day. Now I have about 70 or 80 pairs.*

Oprah: *I consider that normal.*

Lastly, the cool-down phase primarily focuses on personal questions coupled with questions regarding their career plans and visions.

Generally, the interviewer begins and ends the interview process (Bull & Mayer, 1993). However, what makes Oprah's interview different is that both her interviews ended with statements from the interviewees. This can be a strategy to emphasize the authority and control that reside on the interviewees.

As to the typology of questions employed by the interviewer, QF and DF were the most frequent forms of soliciting response, which sustain the conversation. These results, particularly in Interview 2, partially support the arguments forwarded by Thornbury and Slade (2006, p.86) that "a coherent conversation

that consisted solely of declarative statements is difficult to imagine." However, such claim was contradicted by the results of the first interview (which are coherent), wherein DF is the most frequently used response-soliciting form. The use of DF may have been influenced by the interviewer's presupposition of an affirmative answer from the interviewee. This claim was supported by Vander Brook, Schlue, and Campbell (1980) and Williams (1990) claiming that native speakers of English generally use non-inverted questions when there is a presupposition of a "yes" answer.

Thornbury and Slade (2006) further claim that ellipsis occurs frequently at the beginning of the utterances. However, in both the response-soliciting forms that use ellipsis, such form is placed after a complete utterance (e.g. *Oprah: I read that when you were 5, you said to your mom, "Don't worry about me being blind, because I'm happy." True?* and *Oprah: Speaking of love, you said on one of the biography shows that it's been a honeymoon ever since you and Matthew married. True?*)

Moreover, all statements used by Oprah are in active voice. As explained by Strunk (2000), active voice shows more impact in conversation. It will make the interaction livelier. Similarly, response form and pre-statements used by Oprah are related to her personal experience. One away to earn respect is telling something about the interviewer's story (Toropov, 1997).

With regard to the transitional strategies, it is hypothesized that the reason for using RQ during interview is to show that the interviewee has the control over the conversation and not the interviewer. The frequent use of RQ also proves that the interviewer wanted to make the interviewee a collaborator of the whole interview process. Such transitional strategy can also be a factor that contributes to the rapport building skills and charisma exemplified by Oprah Winfrey's that makes her interviewees more engaged in the conversation. Aside from unconsciously making the control reside on the interviewer, another function of RQ is to improve cohesion in conversation, which adds dynamics to the flow of conversation and promotes topic consistency (Thornbury & Slade, 2006).

In the case of NRQT, it generally functions differently from RQ by acting as topic-introducing questions. An example is shown below:

SJP: *Well, I leave a mess and then I feel crappy about it. Before I left home today, I left a note saying, "I apologize for the state of the closet. Don't touch a thing in there! I'll clean it all up when I get back."*

Oprah: *As you approach the next chapter of your life, what are the things you're most certain about?*

SJP: *I'm most certain of my utter and undistractible devotion to my son. I'm not a religious or spiritual person, but I'm extraordinarily grateful for my good fortune. At least twice a day, I'm reminded of how lucky I am. Sometimes I walk by a newsstand and my picture will be on a magazine cover—and somebody else is actually curious enough to buy it. I can't believe this is my life.*

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that the interviewer (i.e. Oprah Winfrey) employs the warm-up, probing, and cool-down phase consistently. This is true to her use of response-soliciting and transitional strategies during both interviews which contribute to the intimacy, familiarity, and dynamics of the conversation. Pedagogically, it is recommended that students be taught of the different strategies employed by Oprah when conducting an interview, be it a real task or a pedagogical task. Teachers must also undergo training on how to perform behavioral interviews, which can be helpful when interviewing students about their classroom performance or about personal problems that have impact on their academic performance. Furthermore, a more extensive study should be conducted on analyzing the oral discourse of Oprah's interview style, which also involve the nonverbal and paralinguistic features. A study

on the influence of gender on the structuring of the questions can also be examined to determine whether an interrogative form is more frequent between male-female/ female-male interview discourse.

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THE DYNAMICS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE CHANGE FROM THE OLD ERA TO THE DIGITAL AGE

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Abstract: This article attempts to discuss why and how English has changed, tracing from particular features such as spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and meaning from Old English era until Modern English, how the people's attitude toward the changes, and whether these changes ruin or contribute to the development of English as a global language. As a final remark, this article will also offer a few suggestions on how the phenomenon of language change should be treated particularly on the relation with English language teaching and learning.

Key words: language change, form, meaning, attitude

Abstrak: Artikel ini mencoba membahas mengapa dan bagaimana bahasa Inggris mengalami perubahan baik dari segi ejaan, kosa kata, tata bahasa, maupun makna, sejak dari zaman Inggris kuno hingga zaman modern. Pembahasan juga mencakup bagaimana sikap orang-orang terhadap perubahan yang terjadi pada bahasa Inggris, dan apakah perubahan tersebut merusak atau memberikan kontribusi terhadap perkembangan bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa global. Pada bagian akhir artikel akan dipaparkan sedikit saran bagaimana sebaiknya menghadapi fenomena perubahan tersebut terutama dalam kaitannya dengan pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris.

Kata kunci: perubahan bahasa, bentuk, makna, sikap

"Language does change, and it is just as impossible to preserve the tongue that Shakespeare spoke as it is to stop cultural change" (David Crystal)

Language change is a phenomenon in which language features such as phonetic, lexis, syntax, and semantic features vary because of the changing needs. As a language used by many people throughout the world, English has undergone a series of fascinating changes since the era of Old English until now. The English expressions which hundred years ago were considered simple and colloquial might seem strange to today's generation. Below is an example from a work of Robert Mannyng written in the 14th century as quoted by Aitchison (2001):

In symple speche as I couthe,
That is lightest in mannes mouthe.
I mad noght for no disours,
Ne for no seggers, no harpours,
Bot for the luf of symple men,
that strange Inglis can not ken

In the above lines, although Mannyng believed that his language was simple and easy to understand, it is very likely that the people now will have problem in comprehending the meaning completely. If those lines are compared with a headline found in the internet: *Txts n emails mk ppl stupid coz they R worse than smking pot & lead 2 a st8 of 'infomania'*, perhaps not many people could get the message as well. These are just two examples of how

language could be very different in terms of spelling, vocabulary, sentence construction, and even meaning.

Despite the fact that language change is a natural and inevitable phenomenon, not all people are happy with it. Some linguists as well as journalists are concerned and even claim that the change tends to move toward negative directions, making language consist of flaws and ruining the standard (Anderson & Trudgill, 1990; Finnegan, Besnier, Blair, & Collins, 1992; Freeborn, 1992). Aitchison (2001) has presented examples of complaints about language change since 1960 to 1999, which mostly came from authors and editors. Among the complaints are "the growing unintelligibility of spoken English", "the grammar is becoming coarser", "the standard of speech and pronunciation has declined, and "a lot of maudlins and misusages." The following section will discuss the underlying reasons as well as the process of language change.

WHY AND HOW LANGUAGE CHANGES?

Language may change slowly or rapidly. Some scholars refer to it as language evolution, and the cause of language evolution has been analyzed differently. A group of theorists believes that language is an adaptation, that is, language needs to develop or evolve in order for humans to adapt with others. One of the supporters of this theory is a psycholinguist, Stephen Pinker. In his book *The Language Instinct: How the Mind Creates Language* (2000), he has suggested that language is produced as a combination of innate ability (that is, language is instinctively controlled by a part of the brain called cerebral cortex) and a pressure from outside (one of which is social interaction with community). In other words, language may evolve through natural selection. The human cognitive ability also plays an important role in the improvement of language. Another group such as one represented by Stephen Jay Gould and Noam Chomsky believes that language is not a product of natural selection or adaptation;

rather, as Chomsky famously argued, language is believed to be "emergent physical properties associated with the specific structure of the brain (http://library.thinkquest.org/C004367/la1.shtml). In practice, more people seem to espouse the first theory.

As Meredith (1998) argued, "language change is not a superficial decision or event," but rather as a way to survive in the changing world, and it is often as "the direct results of political, economic and cultural imperialism." This can be seen from how English develops from its native country England and spreads to the whole world. First, it was because of colonialism, but then the people in the world just voluntarily adapt the language. In a similar manner, Mahoney (2008) has agreed that language changes as a result of social, economic, and political pressure. She added that the unique way that individuals speak may also cause the language to change. Her argument is based on the fact that no two individuals use a language in exactly the same way. The vocabulary and expressions people use depend on their age, education level, place to live, social status and other factors. Through social interaction, new words and sayings are picked up and integrated into everyday speech.

Furthermore, Mahoney as quoted from David Lightfood, a linguist at National Science Foundation, has explained that the agents of language change are children as the new generation. Therefore, although language is passed down through generations so that parents and children can communicate with each other, in the process of learning a language, children often internalize it differently and develop a different variation of language (Mahoney, 2008). The language gap between previous generation and today's generation often brings about a continuous debate on whether language has become deteriorated or become improved.

Ellis (2008) suggested that language changes as a result of usage. He gave an example of phonological change which is caused by the frequent usage of particular words. High frequency of usage resulted in automaticity

which leads to creative construction such as in the example of *gimme*, which is the sound reduction of *give me*. The frequent usage also underpins what Ellis labeled as grammatical erosion. The more frequent certain words are used, the more likely they will get shortened or even omitted. For example, *of, the. a, an, in, to, is, was, I, you , he, be, it, to, for, with, by, on, at, that*, which are the most frequently-used words in English, are often dropped by the speakers. The most frequent words also tend to be ambiguous in homophony and polysemy, such as *to, too, two; their, they're, there; I, eye, aye*, (Ellis, 2008, p. 234), so it is common to find their incorrect usage.

Regarding how language changes, Aitchison (2001) has outlined three possibilities: first, slow decay; second, slow evolution to a more efficient state; and third, language remains in a substantially similar state from the point of view of progress or decay. Slow decay happens when certain feature of language is losing, such as the case of European languages which gradually lose their old word endings. Slow evolution to a more efficient state or survival of the fittest occurs when existing language adapts to the needs of time, so old terms are discarded and replaced by new terms which are often in a much simpler and regular form. In the third case, language is viewed as being advance or decline from opposing forces, so different opinions exist.

A number of people view language change negatively; whereas others view it positively, including the prominent linguist David Crystal. Crystal has written numerous papers and articles regarding language change. Based on his experience as a broadcaster at BBC, he had received unfavorable comments from the listeners who wondered why the language used by the broadcaster seemed to have deviated from the standardized English. His response was that language was not a static system, and that changes either in grammar or pronunciation were not something new so that we should feel annoyed; instead, the changes recur and it had already started hundred years ago (Crystal, 1992).

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT FROM HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Traced from the language family in the world, English is classified by the scholars as a part of one large group of language family called Indo-European. That is why, similar forms and meaning between English and other languages in the group can be easily traced, such as the words *father, mother, friend*, which are similar with German words *vater, mutter, freund* (Yule, 2006, p. 184). Interestingly, those words are also similar with Spanish and Italian *madre* and *padre*, which are in other branch of Indo-European. This proves that languages might have come from the same ancestor (known as proto-language), but then they diverge, develop and vary as people spread in the world.

Historically, English language development has taken place since thousand years ago. One of the causes is language contact which results from migration, in which the inhabitants of the world move from one place to another, establish their own community and develop new expressions in communicating with each other (Finnegan et al., 1992; Leith, 2003). The following figure outlines the development of English language from the ancient time to the modern time.

During 500 BC – 43 BC, England was inhabited by the Celts, who used Celtic language, which is totally different form today's English. When the Romans invaded and ruled England for about 400 years from 43 BC – 450 AD, they inherited Latin words, and Celtic language was no longer used except by the people in Ireland and Scotland, with six sub-language groups surviving: Cornish, Welsh, Breton, Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, and Manx (Meredith, 1998). Several distinct features of Celtic language are found in grammatical structure. For instance, in today's English the word order is normally subject – verb – object, whereas Celtic language took the order of verb – subject – object, so the sentence "the woman came" would be "Deth an venen" or "came the woman" (Meredith, 1998). In addition, Celtic language tends to

use passive voice instead of active, such as "I teach" (*dysgaf*) is expressed as "is taught" (*dysgir*) and "I do/make" (*déanaim*) as "is done" (*déantar*). Another difference can be seen from how the sentence "I have a cat" is constructed as "there is a cat to me," or "I have an apple" as "There is an apple with me", showing that 'have' is not commonly used for possession and replaced by preposition instead (Meredith, 1998).
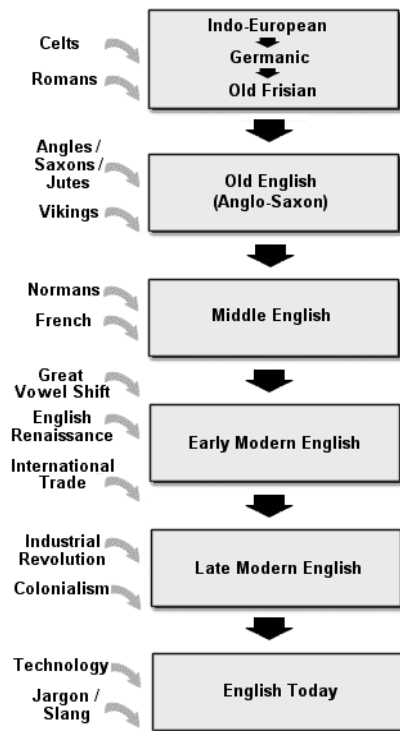
Figure 1. The main influences on the development of English language
(Source: http://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/index.html)

In the 5th century, the Anglo Saxon tribes from Germany came to England. The Anglo Saxon settlement had added certain features into Old English language. Some words survived until today with some slight differences. For example, today's words *man, wife, child, eat, and drink* originated from the Old English *mann, wif, cild, etan, and drincan* (Yule, 2006, p. 187). Here, the slight changes in both spelling and pronunciation are noticeable. The Danish invasion in 789 AD brought destruction to Anglo Saxon civilization. A great number of Anglo Saxon words were lost.

King Alfred the Great was the one who tried to preserve the Anglo Saxon literary heritage. Some words which still survived were *cyning (king), cwene(queen), erl(earl), ladi (lady),* and *lord* (Mastin, 2011). Other Anglo-Saxon vocabulary which also survives into modern English is everyday words such as *earth, house, food, sing, night* and *sleep.*

At the beginning of the Middle Age (c. 1066 AD), the Norman conquest transformed England both culturally and linguistically. French was used widely among the Norman noblemen, and Latin was used as the language of science and education, while English had no official status and was treated like a third language as it was only used by the low class Englishmen. Fortunately, inter-marriage with native English nobility and everyday exchange between masters and servants had encouraged bilingualism. Many words adapted from French have added more specific forms of today's English, particularly for the terms used in government and law such *as judgment, court, parliament, verdicts, evidence, defendant, solicitor, juror,* or *jury* (Finnegan et al., 1992, p. 283). Some other words adapted from French are related to fashion and lifestyle such as *mansion, boot, beauty, mirror, jewel, appetite, banquet.* Another significant change brought by French was the plural ending "s", which replaced the Old English form of "en' ending such as in *housen* or *shoen*, so now they become *houses* and *shoes*. The 'en' ending which still exists today is in the words of *children* and *oxen* (Mastin, 2011).

During 1337–1450, England and French were involved in The Hundred Year War, leading to a higher status of English language, as French was regarded as the language of the enemy. The used-to-be low class English people gained a better economic and social status, and language division between the noblemen and the commoners was no longer observed. Middle English language had distinct feature, particularly in pronunciation. All consonants were pronounced, for example the letter "k" in the word *knight* had to be pronounced clearly, unlike today's pronunciation where the "k" is

not pronounced. Another example is the word *child* was pronounced as *t∫ild*, different from today's *t∫aild* (Mahoney, 2008). In addition, the long vowel was pronounced like Latin-derived Romance languages of Europe, so *sheep* was pronounced like *shape*, *me* like *may, mine* as *meen, mate* as *maat, out* as *oot*, and *house* as *hoose*. In terms of spelling, Middle English mostly used the words ending with "e" such as *ende, ferne, straunge*, and the "e' had to be pronounced as well (Mastin, 2011). This can be noticed in the works of Chaucer, the most prominent poet during the Middle Age, who had played an important role in promoting English so that it became widely used in society.

The era between Middle English and Early Modern period was known as the Great Vowel Shift, in which long vowel sounds were made higher and further forward in the mouth. The change in pronunciation caused a change in spelling so that it reflected the sound of the words, such as *stan* became *stone, derk* became *dark,* and *herte* became *heart* (Mastin, 2011).

Early Modern period in the 16th century, known as Elizabethan era, was marked by English Renaissance and international trade. English language even gained more popularity than the previous period, and again some changes occurred. During this era, there were a lot of borrowings from Latin and Greek, which were considered as the language of education and science, so words such as *genius, species, radius, specimen, apparatus, paralysis,* and *focus* started to be used. Many loanwords were derived as a result of international trade, such as *armada, barricade* from Spanish, *balcony, macaroni, piano*, from Italian, *noodle, muffin, kindergarten* from German, *breeze, tank, marmalade* from Portuguese, *yacht, cruise, dock, lottery*, from Dutch, *tea, typhoon* from China, and *almanac, algebra* from Arabic. In terms of sentence construction, word order had used subject-verb-object patterns. Interestingly, *to be* was still commonly used as the auxiliary rather than *have*, so the today's construction *I have come* was strangely written as *I am come*. The old verb ending "-en" was gradually replaced by "-eth" such as in *loveth, doth*, and *hath*.

Shakespeare, as the most phenomenal figure in English literature, had contributed a great number of English words. In his works, he often experimented with part of speech and deviated the grammatical rules, for example making noun into verb such as in "he pageants us," "dog them at the heels," "the good Brutus ghosted," "Lord Angelo dukes it well," and "uncle me no uncle." However, his extraordinary gift in playing with the language resulted in numerous invented terms are still used today such as *barefaced, critical, leapfrog, monu-mental, homicide, countless, premeditated, dislocate*, and famous phrases such as *love is blind, vanish into thin air*, or *flesh and blood* (Mastin, 2011).

During the 17th and 18th century, English dictionary started to exist, consisting of grammar, pronunciation and spelling guides. The most famous one was written by Samuel Johnson. His *Dictionary of English Language* was considered the most eminent English dictionary before the more comprehensive one, *Oxford English Dictionary,* was published. The Industrial Revolution during the late 18th and the early 19th century had boosted the emergence of new words that never existed before in English language. These words were used for the new products and machines that developed during this time such as *engine, train, combustion, electricity, telephone, telegraph,* and *camera*.

From the 18th century to the 20th century, Britain had gained its position as the world power with many colonies all over the world. The users of English language grew significantly and English has become the language spoken not only by its native users but also non-native users who live outside Britain. The English colonies also made a great influence to the language by adding loanwords to the English language. Therefore, words such as *kangaroo* and *boomerang*, whose origin is Australia, or *bungalow, jungle, cot,* and *candy*, which are Indian words, are adapted into English. America as one of the colonies even developed its own terms, making American English tend to be different

from British English, not only in lexis but also in semantics. Americans use *fall* for *autumn*, *hog* for pig, *trash* for *rubbish*, and *guess* for *think*. In terms of semantic, American words *lot* and *lumber* mean differently from the British meaning (Mastin, 2011).

OUT-OF-DATE VS. UP-TO-DATE ENGLISH

Ye knowe ek, that in forme speche is chaunge,
Withinne a thousand yer, and words tho
That hadden prys now wonder nyce and straunge
Us thenketh em, and yet they spake hem so,
And spedde as wel in love as men now do
<div align="right">(Chaucer, Troylus and Criseyde)</div>

Chaucer, the greatest poet in the Middle Age had been aware that the language people spoke during his time was very different from the previous era. Today's generation would also find how Chaucer's language is strange to their ears.

Today, as language continues to develop and diverges, a number of old words may no longer be used, and new words emerge. Some words are even 'mutilated', a term used by linguists who feel unhappy of the seemingly ruined language and view them as a decay. The linguists who intend to retain and reconstruct the pure form of language might come from the view that changes that have taken place over thousand years cause language to be separated and mutilated. If language had never changed, people in the world might have spoken the same language and no need to get confused with each other (Anderson & Trudgill, 1990). However, it can not be denied that humans continue to make progress, and so does language as a part of their life. New jargons and technical terms are required to suit the ongoing development of education, science, and technology, not to mention the lifestyle as in foods, toys, and gadgets.

At lexical and semantic levels, some old words survive until now, some are no longer used, and many new words appear. For example, *nice* used to mean *ignorant, vulgar* used to mean *ordinary*, and *sophisticated* used to mean *adulterated, artificial, falsified* (Leith, 2003, p. 74). In one of his works, Shakespeare used *attorney* as a verb, meaning *carry out by a substitute*, as seen in this lines: "their encounters, though not personal, hath been royally attorneyed with interchange of gifts" (Shakespeare, *The Winter Tale*). In the past, *aggravate* only meant *to make more serious,* but now it also means *irritate* (Anderson & Trudgill, 1990; Freeborn, 1992). In some groups of society, *bad* and *wicked* are now both different varieties of good (Mastin, 2011). This extension in word meaning should not make people become worried or bothered, because in fact, it can enrich English language. It is true that when new meaning appears for the first time, not many people would accept it easily and comfortably. However, what is considered non standard, uncommon, and corrupted in one time may become acceptable in a different era (Anderson & Trudgill, 1990; Burridge, 2002).

The alteration in vocabulary is logical because human lifestyle itself changes across generation. For example, old generation is familiar with *icebox, record player, studious young man*, while youngsters now would use the terms *fridge, stereo, nerd.* Similarly, new generation may use words such as *tank tops, six- packs, sitcoms*, which in the past might not even exist (Finnegan et al., 1992, p. 231). The language changes even faster during the recent century, so the words which used to be very common in the previous decade such as *walkman* and *OHP*, seem to be out-of-date now, as today's generation, are more familiar with *MP3, iPod,* or *LCD.* It is in this century that people get *doodlebugs, gasmask, gobstoppers, miniskirt* and *mods* and *rockers*; enjoy *dim sum, cappucino, chicken tikka masala* and *pizzerias*; talk of *chavs, mingers* and *weirdos*; and are addicted to *tellies, websites, cybercafes* and *compact discs*(http://www. bl.uk/learning/langlit/sounds/). Neologisms (new word or expression in a language) also occurs by combining words, so now compound terms such as *fashionista, frenemy, metrosexual, sonfuzzle, bro-mance, sexting,*

flexitarian, gastropub, infomercial, dramedy, and many others, are common (Mastin, 2011). All this proves how richly-growing English vocabulary is today. New words continue to be invented, and they often cannot be found in the latest dictionary.

In terms of grammatical construction, some may claim that English becomes worse. However, the sentence from Shakespeare "Goes the king hence today?" compared with the modern standard grammar "Is the king going out today*?*" (Finnegan et al., 1992, p. 232) brings the evidence that grammatical forms have improved. In addition, today's noun phrase can be formed with more word strings in front of the head word such as *never to be forgotten experience*, and there is an increasing number of phrasal verbs such as *run across* or *put up with*. From these features, Freeborn claimed that "English has become a much more analytic language" (1992, p. 198).

LANGUAGE CHANGE AND SOCIO-CULTURAL CONTEXT

As social creatures, humans prefer to be accepted as the same with the community they live with. In their daily interaction, it is very likely that people would imitate their fellow's language. Aitchison (2003) has mentioned that language changes might happen "from above', or conscious imitation, and 'from below" or subconscious imitation, which both come from human desire to associate with others. Thus, when for instance, there is an increasing trend of dropping the *t* at the end of the words such as in *hot, what, football,* or *a bit more* (Aitchison, 2003, p. 164) or how 'house' is pronounced *heouse, no* becomes *neow* and *kids* becomes *kuds* (Mackinnon, 2002, p. 340), it cannot simply be judged as a careless, sloppy pronunciation. It is likely that they occur because of the social influence.

The fact that English is used and adapted differently in many parts of the world should also be taken into consideration. Even in the native countries such as England and the U.S.,

there is a different perspective on the use of *hopefully* or "I've got to" (Trask, 2000) or in the expression "Did you buy your car yet?" and "Have you bought your car yet", not to mention English varieties in Asia or Africa (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 58).

It is also important to consider other aspects behind language alteration, such as the social context where it is applied, or whether it is used for oral or written, casual or formal setting. Some people might feel annoyed with the expression such as "I ain't seen him"," We done it yesterday," or double negative construction in "I ain't got none" or "I don't want none" (Anderson & Trudgill, 1990, p. 167) because they only view the language construction from the prescriptive grammar. However, if people have understood that some expressions are only a matter of variation and dialect that build up among certain community, they would not complain and regard it as a sign of language decay.

It is true that language change also causes few problems, such as confusion and misunderstanding in communication, especially among people who use different regional dialects, or among different generations. For example, the utterance "After all those ditzy bimbo I thought I'd be a wuss to pass up this stonking part, even if it is an indie flick" (Trask, 2000, p. 89) will certainly make some people, particularly the elderly, frustrated. They would think that English has disfigured and mutilated. In contrast, the young generation who use it can figure out the meaning easily since they are familiar with the context. People will vary their language depending on the situation and the person they interact with. The better they know their interlocutor, the less formal language they will use (Burridge, 2002).

Another illustration of how word meaning depends on the social context is in the utterance "The bakkie had to stop at a red robot." During his visit to South Africa, David Crystal was surprised to learn that *robot* means *traffic light* and *bakkie* means *truck* (Crystal, 2010). Those who have never been to South Africa or never learn from a South African-

English dictionary might turn into confusion when they encounter such expressions.

It is evident that as a global language, English has undergone a lot of adaptation and influence at the place it is used and by the people who use it. In the countries where English is used as second or foreign language, local terms will influence the use of English. On the other hand, non-native speakers who live in an English speaking country will also enrich the English word repertoire. One instance is the growing spread of Islam which makes terms such a *halal* and *hijab* seem to have been accepted as English words. Another instance can be found in food names.

ENGLISH IN THE DIGITAL ERA

The most influential factor of language change today is the sophisticated communication technology, particularly the internet and mobile phone. David Crystal has mentioned in one of his articles that the internet has brought a linguistic revolution (Crystal, 2001). Similarly, Mastin (2011) also argued that the digital age has brought English into a linguistic peak in terms of word acquisition. The Internet has produced numerous set of neologisms such as the terms *online, download, hacker, spam, emoticon, blogosphere, podcast*, and a whole range of acronyms, contractions and shorthands used in email and social networking. The digital era also has allowed "verbification" of nouns as used to be applied by Shakespeare, which modern language purists often disapprove. So, now it is common to say *just email me, to text, or googling*.

The dominant users of the digital technology are undeniably young people. The language they used has been labelled "teen-talk", or more specifically "textisms", "textese", "textspeak" in the case of SMS, "netspeak", "netlingo", and "weblish" in the case of computer-based communication (Farina & Liddy, 2011). The common features of textisms are nonstandard spelling, nonstandard capitalization and punctuation, abbreviation, and the use of emoticons. Crystal called it as the most extraordinary variations in the chronicle of English language (Crystal, 2006).

The nature of mobile phone which limits the texters to type long messages has led the use of abbreviation. So, in texting the short form such as *"cu l8r"* or "RUOK" is more commonly found than *"see you later"* or "are you okay?" The types of shortening include initialism, that is, by using only the beginning letters such as BTW for *by the way*, OMG for *oh my God*, TTLY for *talk to you later*, and the omission of vowels so the words like *people, texting*, and *homework* would become *ppl, txtg,* and *hmwrk*. Another feature is the combination of letter and number homophone, also called logograms or syllabogram, for example NE1 for *anyone*, and G8T for *great*. Nonstandard spelling and accent stylization are also found in the language of text messaging, such as *sum* for *some, skool* for *school, dat* for *that,* and *thanx* for *thanks* (Farina & Lyddy, 2011). They even become shortened as *thx* and *plz*. Typographic symbols are also parts of textism. It is a single or multiple characters used to represent the whole word (Bieswanger, 2008 as cited in Farina & Lyddy, 2011), for example *x* to represent kiss, and *zzzz* to represent sleep or tiredness. Meanwhile, emoticons are used to represent feelings, emotion, or facial expression, such as ":-)" for a smile and "<3" for heart or love.

Some people are fascinated about this new phenomenon; some others are worried that it would deviate from the standard language. Back in the 18th century, people used to have similar concern over English language change. The admiration toward Latin led an attempt to use the correct form of language according to the rules (Aitchison, 2001). Today, what worries some people, especially the elder generation, is that the language change may ruin the standard language and affect literacy. As the abbreviations often contain ambiguous and undechiperable sentences (Farina & Lyddy, 2011), they may also lead to confusion and misunderstanding.

In his article "I h8 txt msgs: How texting is wrecking our language", published in *Daily*

Mail on September 24, 2007, the journalist John Humphrys (2007) expressed his concern and disappointment on how the 6th edition of *Oxford English Dictionary* has made several changes on the way certain words are written, which Humphrey complained as the "victim of fashion."

Those who are on Humphrey's (2007) side would prefer to see the language written neatly, following the standard. This includes Dr. Bernard Lamb, an Emeritus reader of Genetics at Imperial College London, who proposed that Standard English or Queen's English is the one which must be used. He showed the evidence how today's generation has moved away from the correct standard English in the job applications sent by the graduates which contain errors in their CVs and cover letters, despite their good university background. Furthermore, Lamb mentioned that deviations from the Queen's English may include errors in grammar, spelling, punctuation and word choice. If someone says: *"Me and him gets on great"*, or *"Me an' Jim is runnin' late"*, it is considered a deviation (Lamb, 2010).

It is understandable, then, if there has been an intention "to reconstruct the full, pure form of an original stage from the variously disfigured and mutilated forms which are attested in the individual languages" (Curtius as cited in Yule, 2006, p. 192), since the existing language seems to deviate. The habit of using abbreviation or sloppy language will possibly lead the people into the ignorance of using the language appropriately, such as when communicating with a teacher or a supervisor or in other formal writings. In case of children, it may influence their literacy.

However, some research revealed that textism does not hamper literacy. In studies by Coventry University during 2006-2007, pre-teenage children who were better at spelling and writing were found to use the most texting abbreviations (Crystal, 2008). Textism even correlates positively with word reading, vocabulary and phonological awareness in children, and some aspects of language performance in young adults. This may reflect skilled use of metalinguistic knowledge, which

allows the texters to switch between differing language systems (Farina & Lyddy, 2011).

In addition, Crystal is convinced that 90% of language used in texting is written in normal, standard English. He also believes that textism adds dimension and new dynamics to the English language, and suggests that it encourages creativity and wordplay. The creative ingenuity of some texters, such as AGM which stands for *Ahm Gannin Yem*, meaning *'I'm going home'*, even featured dialectal variation (Gregory, 2011). This might be observed as well among the texters in Indonesia who use their distinct form of English as the influence of the local language.

CONCLUSION

The contested views of language change continue as the English language keeps evolving, involving phonetic, lexical, grammatical, and semantic features. The question remains: "Is it possible to distinguish bad and good changes?" (Aitchison, 2001). Moreover, does language change ruin or contribute to the development of English as a global language? The judgment that English is ruining often comes out from comparing the Standard British English with varieties of English which exist today. If the non-standard English is what linguists or journalists refer to as decay and must be refined, it appears to be a misleading attitude. In terms of academic setting, it is relevant and necessary to use the Standard English. However, in terms of daily language, the use of non-standard English is acceptable, and there is no need to claim that English becomes deteriorated as long as people can successfully interact with each other. Moreover, judging that English used by certain community as low or impure would only lead to the thought that one's language is superior than the other (Mackinnon, 2002). The distinct feature of recent language which roots from digital technology should even be viewed positively as it may actually enrich the English language.

The fact that language is dynamic should be treated wisely by its users by being aware of appropriate situation in which particular language feature should be applied. In the context of English teaching and learning, it is the role of the teacher to expose the students to different varieties of English, spoken and written, formal and informal. Teachers should also be able to make the students aware about appropriate and inappropriate English, so they know how to use the language appropriately in particular context. For example, in a formal forum, even if it is only in an email or a *facebook* group discussion, it might not be favorable if the shortening such as 'u' is used in addressing other people.

Ultimately, language differences between one generation to another and varieties of English that exist in the world today prove that English will continue to evolve. It is the nature of human language, and, thus, cannot simply be judged as decay. Colloquial and invented terms used by youngsters or media, social dialects caused by nativisation, and initialisms boosted by textism, perhaps, display that English has deviated from its pure, standard forms. However, language change in the world has created a variety of communities, living with their own identity, culture, values, and ideas. English has developed in order to meet the demands of the modern world. Therefore, "rather than worrying about variation and change, we should rejoice in the cultural and linguistic diversity they represent" (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 53).

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THE BANGLADESHI EMPLOYMENT SECTOR: EMPLOYER PERSPECTIVES CONCERNING ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

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Abstract: This paper presents a brief summary of a study which was carried out to investigate how employers representing major employment sectors in the Bangladeshi Industry view the skills and English proficiency level of the current employees. Opinions were also solicited on what skills are required for fresh recruits. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 employers representing the major employment sectors in Bangladeshi Industry. Results revealed the importance of English as an indispensible means of communication in the Bangladeshi corporate sector and showed that the business enterprises use extensive amounts of English. It also highlighted that the existent English proficiency of the employees was far below the required proficiency level. Recommendations were made to address the gap and prepare the youth to meet the demands of the global market.

Keywords: English proficiency, competency, employability skills, global literacy skills

Abstrak: Makalah ini menghadirkan ringkasan singkat sebuah kajian yang dilaksanakan untuk meneliti bagaimana para pemberi kerja yang mewakili sektor-sektor kerja utama dalam industri Bangladesh memandang keterampilan dan tingkatan kecakapan Bahasa Inggris para pekerja mereka saat ini. Pendapat mereka juga ditanyakan mengenai keterampilan apa yang dibutuhkan untuk pekerja baru. Wawancara semi terstruktur dilakukan terhadap 30 pemberi kerja yang mewakili sektor besar industri Bangladesh. Hasilnya mengungkapkan pentingnya Bahasa Inggris sebagai alat komunikasi yang tak terhindarkan dalam sektor bisnis Bangladesh dan menunjukkan bahwa perusahaan-perusahaan sering sekali menggunakan Bahasa Inggris. Temuan juga menyoroti kecakapan berbahasa Inggris pekerja yang masih jauh di bawah tingkat kecakapan yang dibutuhkan. Akhirnya, rekomendasi diberikan untuk mengatasi ketimpangan tersebut dan mempersiapkan pemuda agar bisa memenuhi tuntutan pasar global.

Katakunci: Keterampilan berbahasa Inggris, kompetensi, keterampilan dalam bekerja, keterampilan literasi global.

Nowadays English is the language of the latest business management in the world and is also the means of scientific discourse (Manivannan, 2006). English is used for international communication where the interlocutors do not have a common first language (Kennedy, 2001). Because most new technologies were developed in the West, consequently most of the associated terminology is in English, and so it is necessary for Periphery nations to use English to obtain and use these technologies when developing or modernizing their services, industries and infrastructures (Kachru, 1994). Moreover English is best suited to social development because it facilitates modernization, leisure,

career opportunities and choice (Moritoshi, 2001).

In the present day English is perceived as a highly influential factor in employment and promotion in Periphery nations as diverse as:

- China, where a test of English proficiency determines employment and promotion and facilities (Yong & Campbell, 1995).
- Brazil, where most organizations and companies and all multinational ones use or take into account the 'Test of English for international communication' (TOEIC) scores when reviewing job applications and promotions (Friedrich, 2000).
- Saudi Arabia, where most Saudi graduates believe English can enhance their nations' economical development (Al-Haq & Smadi, 1996).
- Pakistan, where all communication is in English and promotions and employment are governed by English proficiency (Mansoor, 2007).
- Malaysia, where primary employment requirements are the ability to communicate in English and high academic achievement and good technical knowledge (Sirat, et al. 2008).

Bangladesh is a developing nation which has been and is at present struggling against poverty and illiteracy since its inception in 1971. As a primarily monolingual nation where Bangla is the official national language and the mother tongue of the majority of the populace, Bangladesh has had little scope for the use of its official second language English till recently. However since the 1990's the *global literacy skills* i.e. proficiency in technology and English has affected globalization which has deeply influenced the political, socio-economic and cultural dimensions of most societies (Harvey, 1990) including Bangladesh. Eager to participate in the global economy like other developing nations Bangladesh has opened itself to the rest of the world and as in other former colonies of Western superpowers; participation in the global economy has meant "an explosion" of foreign investments which have opened up job opportunities where English competency is the prerequisite for employment (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). Courtesy of the internet and globalization, the arrival of multi-nationals and participation in international organizations, English is the medium in which business is conducted and is the de facto *lingua franca* of international commu-nication, and it has become a much sought after commodity (Crystal, 2003; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1999).

The medium of education for the general masses is Bangla and only a small fraction of the Bangladeshi population can afford private English education (Khan, 2004) but this elite group is gaining an advantage over the rest who receive inadequate or no English language teaching in the state educational system. English is the language of the educated elite and is not commonly used in daily interaction yet the contemporary labor market, particularly the Bangladeshi corporate world, needs a work force that is competent in English.

> Within the country, employment in any organization looks for proficiency in English. Entry into government jobs requires being selected through a competitive examination where English is a subject, while any non-government office that has dealings outside the national border looks particularly for people with English proficiency. Since the pay structure of such NGO's is better than other jobs, people are interested to be employed there, and want to learn English. (Qader, 1999, p. 187)

Graddol in his investigations of global level of English found that "in many countries English has become implicated in social and economic mechanisms which structure in equality" (Graddol, 1997, p. 38)

This is found to be true in the case of Bangladesh at present, where English can open doors to wealth, prestige and success (Moham, 2007) but it is also "a gate keeping mechanism," providing access to information and high-tech communication to the limited few who have access to English education (David & Govindasamy, 2005). English proficiency is used as a screening mechanism in most job selections, university admission

tests and even the Bangladesh Civil Service entrance examinations (BCS).

English is now in much demand to facilitate the participation of young Bangladeshis in global activities (Choudhury, 2001). The mushrooming of English language coaching centers all over Dhaka city and the other major cities along with the proliferation of advertisements for English courses in most national dailies attest to the power of the language and its increased demand.

This research sought the opinion of major employers in the Bangladeshi corpor-ate sector in order to establish the present standard of English proficiency amongst corporate employees and their shortcomings. Moreover information was also obtained regarding the English proficiency and defi-ciencies of job applicants. Studies in other South East Asian ex-colonies corroborate the accuracy of Graddol's findings vis-à-vis the existing role, status and importance of English in the employment sector globally.

In her exploration of the employers' perceptions of language needs in Pakistan, Mansoor (2007) found that English is a prerequisite for employment and promotions; moreover most written work and documentation were in English. In senior management posts English is mandatory and the current trend showed a rise of the use of English in the workplace. Finally, the language proficiency of most employees was perceived as below the required levels. Consequently, most institutions conducted in-house English courses.

So-mui & Mead's (2000) appraisal of the workplace communication of textile and clothing merchandisers in Hong Kong revealed that written English was used more than spoken English; fax, e-mail, telephone and face-to-face communication were the most common and preferred modes of communication and communications in English took place with over 46 countries.

In her examination of the English language needs of hospital staff, Menon (2000) found that equal proficiency in all the four skills is not a requirement for service sector workers so that flaws in commu-nication were possible. The main emphasis was on listening and speaking and grammar; basic reading for technical routine matters was needed, but writing was minimally used as online and written materials were available.

Thompson (2001) surveyed the important entry-level employability skills sought by employers in the Chippewa Valley area and discovered that Employers felt that "barely half of the new employees entering the work force possess the critical skills of listening and speaking" (Thompson, 2001, p. 9). Furthermore:

> [T]wo out of every five job applicants who were tested for basic skills – defined as functional workplace literacy -- the ability to read instructions, write reports – at an adequate level – were categorized as deficient"; and that 'new employees entering the work force – do not possess the 'critical skills' that today's employers deem necessary. (Thompson, 2001, p. 2)

In researching the causes for graduate unemployment in Malaysia, Sirat, et al. (2008) identified "the ability to communicate in English" and "high academic achievement and good technical knowledge" as primary employment requirements. They stressed that the industrial sector prioritized English skills and that most unemployed graduates had failed to take advantage of available job opportunities because of their weakness in English. Moreover employers determined job applicants' weaknesses from written assignments and applications and thus both written and oral English skills were job requirements.

In their investigation of the language proficiency of Malaysian graduates Sarudin, et al. (2008) found that "graduates failed to impress" interviewers' panels in job inter-views as they lacked English conversation and communication skills. Most employees were perceived as "limited users of English" in the productive skills (writing and speaking) and "modest users of English" in the receptive skills (reading and listening). Employers stressed that it was "essential for employees to perform well in writing--in order to function effectively" in working environments in industry. Employees in the banking and legal sectors, faced problems entertaining clients, participating in

meetings and discussions and presenting papers in English, as they could not present their views and opinions effectively in English. Shockingly, government staff could not be sent for overseas training because of their "limited ability to write and speak in English" and there were concerns about the "lack of reading."

This study looked into the English Language requirements of the Bangladeshi employment sector today and tried to determine the employers' perceptions as regards the present levels of English proficiency. It was hoped that the require-ments and needs of the Bangladeshi employment sector as well as the short-comings and lacks of job applicants would be identified in this process.

METHOD

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with thirty employers representing the major employment sectors in Bangladeshi Industry; the main criterion for selection was successful business enterprises that not only had a large number of employees but also frequently employed fresh graduates (see appendix for questionnaire).

Sampling: Employers from the following sectors were chosen:

Private Hospital
Private bank
Public bank
Private Telecom company
Security services company
Insurance company
Buying house
Private School
Private University College
Private Television channel
English News Daily
Bangla News Daily
National Airlines
Five Star Hotel
Non Government Organization (NGO)
Bangladesh Civil Services Commission (BCS)

Advertising agency
Travel agency
Shipping industry
Garments industry
Housing industry
Food industry
Electronics industry
Pharmaceutical industry
Leather industry
Ceramics industry
Tobacco industry
Automobile assembly industry
Tea industry
Agro industry

Most of the interview findings have been tabulated and converted to numerical data for clarity and certain selected interview excerpts pertinent to the study have been analyzed and presented in order to shed light on employers' opinions with regard to the need and importance of English in the Bangladeshi business arena as well as the existing standard of English.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section presents and discusses some of the significant findings and themes arising from the research that was carried out pertaining to the views of Bangladeshi employers concerning the English profi-ciency and problems of current corporate employees and job applicants.

Role and Significance of English in the Bangladeshi Corporate Arena

In order to ascertain the significance of English in the Bangladeshi business scene the researchers investigated the extent to which the various business enterprises used English in their day-to-day communication. The following table presents the findings:

Table 1: Workplace usage of English

|	Rate of use of English at workplace	Number of Organizations
High use of English	100%	23.5%
	90%	6.5%
	80%	6.5%
	70%	6.5%
	60%	6.5%
	50%	23.5%
Sub Total		**73%**
Low use of English	40%	3.5%
	30%	-
	20%	13.5%
	10%	10%
Sub Total		**27%**

NB N=30

From the findings it appears that the business enterprises use an extensive amount of English; ranging from companies which have a low frequency of English use (10%-40%) to companies which have very high frequencies of English use (50%-100%) (*see* Table:1). These results strongly sustain the importance of and the need for adequate English proficiency in order for Bangladeshi business enterprises to function properly.

Further investigation was carried out in order to gain a clearer idea of the nature of the communication. The results are depicted in the following figure:

Figure 1: Amount of English Communication
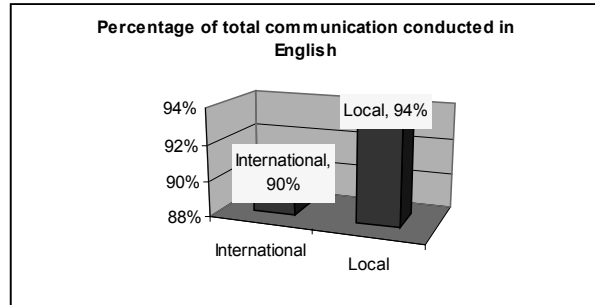
The findings established that almost all communication (90%; 94%) both local and international is conducted in English even in a monolingual, predominantly Bangla speaking nation like Bangladesh (*see* Figure 1). These findings strongly support those of So-mui & Mead (2000) in Hong Kong and Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan and reinforce the importance of and need for good English proficiency.

The employers' views about various aspects of the language skills were examined next; the findings are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Employers' perceptions about the language skills

Skills	Listening			Speaking			Reading			Writing		
	Yes	No	NR	Yes	No	NR	Yes	No	NR	Yes	No	NR
Skills needed by applicants	70%	0%	30%	94%	0%	7%	74%	0%	27%	94%	0%	7%
Are applicants' skills satisfactory?	30%	50%	20%	17%	80%	4%	47%	37%	17%	34%	67%	0%
Skills used in communication	60%	0%	0%	90%	0%	0%	77%	0%	0%	97%	0%	0%
Crucial on-the-job skills	67%	0%	0%	67%	0%	0%	50%	0%	0%	77%	0%	0%
Are employee's skills satisfactory?	47%	34%	0%	37%	60%	0%	54%	27%	0%	37%	60%	0%
Skills needing improvement	54%	0%	0%	90%	0%	0%	40%	0%	0%	74%	0%	0%

As seen from Table 2 the majority of the employers (94%) expected proficiency in the productive skills (speaking and writing); moreover the receptive skills (reading and listening) are expected by a considerable number of employers (70-74%) (*see* Table 3). In addition the Automobile, Banking, Real estate, Shipping, Electronics, Leather and Ceramics sector employers observed that "*depending on the context*" any of the skills may be required so proficiency in all skills is necessary. The findings correspond to those

of Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan, Sarudin, et al. (2008) in Malaysia and So-mui & Mead (2000) in Hong Kong and establish that depending on the situation equally good proficiency in all the skills is a requirement in the Bangladeshi business scene.

Then, the employers' opinions about the skills that are used most often in workplace communications in Bangladeshi business organizations were looked into. The findings show that the overwhelming majority of the employers (90%; 97%) expected the use of written and spoken communications in the workplace; and a considerable number of employers (77%; 60%) expected the use of reading and listening (see Table 2). From these findings it can be inferred that employers expect adequate proficiency and some use of all four skills in workplace communications. The Housing sector employer commented that nowadays even local Bangladeshi clients "expect spoken and written English communications"; similarly the buying house, advertising agency, ceramics industry, shipping industry, auto-mobile industry, electronics industry, tea industry employers stated that "all communications nowadays are in English" and "it is a growing need in the market today". These findings concur with those of So-mui & Mead (2000) in Hong Kong, Sarudin, Zubairi, Nordin & Omar (2008) in Malaysia and Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan.

Subsequently the crucial job skills from the employers' perspective were probed. The findings attested to the fact that nowadays proficiency in all four skills is to some extent crucial in the Bangladeshi corporate setting since the outstanding majority of the employers (77%; 67%; 67%) perceived writing, listening and speaking as crucial kills and half of the employers (50%) also perceived reading as a crucial skill (refer to Table 2). The findings reflect those of Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan and Sirat, et al. (2008) in Malaysia and strongly establish that equal good proficiency in all the language skills is a need of the Bangladeshi corporate setting. The employers' opinion about the English aptitude of their existing employees was sought next.

Perceptions concerning the English proficiency

Surprisingly it was discovered that the majority of the employers (60%) did not perceive their employees as proficient in the productive skills i.e. speaking and writing; however a large number of employers (54%; 47%) perceived them as proficient in reading and listening (see Table 2). The BCS employer even commented that "they can write, but only wrong English, with no sentence structure, grammar or anything." Along the same lines the NGO, buying house, advertising agency, tea industry, television and building industry employers observed that "everything they write has to be completely rewritten, not corrected"; and the advertising and television employers commented that "they have a lot of potential but cannot do anything because they are unable to communicate." These findings regarding the prevalent unsatisfactory levels of English proficiency in the corporate sector of Bangladesh are similar to those of Sirat, et al. (2008) in Malaysia, Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan and Thompson (2001) in the United States of America.

The skills most in need of improvement from the Employers' viewpoint were ascertained after that. It was found that the majority of the employers (90%; 74%) identified the productive skills – speaking and writing as most in need of improvement; many employers (54%) also felt that listening needed improvement (see Table 2). Many employers felt improvement was particularly necessary in writing as most employers had to "regularly edit and double-check" all written communications. The Electronics industry employer, declared that "they cannot write anything, not even a hundred words write-up" since they "do not have the language, grammar or anything". The travel agency, leather industry and ceramics industry employers remarked that "English is not being given enough emphasis in education"; additionally the media, leather industry, tea industry, ceramics industry, housing industry, buying house sector employers opined that

"the education system is faulty" as students "can pass exams without studying, just by memorizing a few answers"; besides they commented that "the teachers themselves are poor and not proficient in English and are unable to teach their students as they themselves are products of this same faulty system; a complete change in methodology is needed." These findings paint a quite sorry picture of the current standards of English in the Bangladeshi corporate scene and reflect the findings of Thompson (2001) in the United States of America and Sarudin, et al. Omar (2008) in Malaysia.

In order to gain a more comprehensive idea about the nature of the deficiency in the employee's English proficiency further investigations were conducted, the findings are presented in Table 3.

The employers were asked to rate their perception of their employees' English proficiency and the English proficiency that they required in order for their enterprise to function optimally, on an ascending scale of 1 to 10. In this manner an approximation of the gap between the actual and the required levels of the employees' English proficiency was made. It was discovered that irrespective of how high or low the required levels of English proficiency were, the actual proficiency levels were invariably much lower; it should be noted that most of these organizations had extremely stringent recruitment procedures and different sectors emphasized on the requirement of different communicative skills (*see* Table 3). It may be mentioned that the insurance agency, travel agency and daily English did not need reading skills, while Garment industry did not need listening and speaking skills. Hence from these findings it was established that a considerable gap existed between the required and actual levels of English proficiency in all the skills and in all the chosen corporate sectors. These findings may also be taken as an indication of the employers' dissatisfaction with prevailing levels of English proficiency.

**Table 3: Gap between required and actual levels of employees' English proficiency**

Employment Sector	Listening Level		Speaking Level		Reading Level		Writing Level	
	Req.	Act.	Req.	Act.	Req.	Act.	Req.	Act.
Services								
BCS	9	3.5	9	4.5	6	3	6	3
Hospital	7.5	2.5	8.5	1.5	6.5	3.5	8.5	3.5
Telecom	8.5	7	10	6	10	9	10	10
Public bank	6.5	4	7	3.5	5	5	6	4.5
Private bank	6	4.5	8.5	5	7.5	5	8.5	6
NGO	8	4.5	7	4.5	10	4.5	9	4.5
Trade								
Security	9	5	10	8	10	10	10.5	8
Insurance	4	3.5	6	6	NR	NR	5	5
Buying house	10	8.5	8	5	9.5	7.5	10	8
Education								
University	10	5	8	5	8	5	8	4.5
Public school	6	5	8	4.5	6	5	7	4.5
Media								
TV channel	8	2.5	8	2.5	7	4	6	2
Bangla daily	10	6.5	7.5	2.5	10	4.5	8.5	0
English daily	5	4	6	5	NR	NR	8	4.5
Advertising	9	5	8.5	5	8	5	8	4

Travel								
Airlines	9	9	8	8	7	7	6	6
Travel agency	6	2.5	10	3.5	NR	NR	10	4.5
Hotel	8	4	9	6	8.5	4	8.5	4
Industry								
Electronics	8.5	8	10	9.5	7	5.5	8	5.5
Tea	6	5.5	5	5	7	6.5	5	4.5
Garments	NR	NR	NR	NR	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5
Tobacco	10	9.5	10	9.5	10	9.5	10	9.5
Leather	7	5.5	9.5	6.5	8.5	6.5	8.5	5
Ceramics	5	4	6	3	5	5	8	6
Agro	8.5	4	10	5.5	8.5	5.5	8.5	5.5
Food industry	8	5.5	8	6	7	5	10	5.5
Vehicle	7	4	9	5	6	6	5	5
Shipping	9	7	10	6	10	6	10	6
Building	5	3	10	4.5	3	3	8	3.5
Medicine	5	3	6	2.5	7	5	5	2.5

** Req. – Required; Act. – Actual; NR – Not Required

Furthermore it was found that many business enterprises tried to address the problem of the inadequate English proficiency of their employees by conducting in-house English courses. This was the next point of investigation where the results are depicted in Figure 2.

On-the-job English Language Training Courses
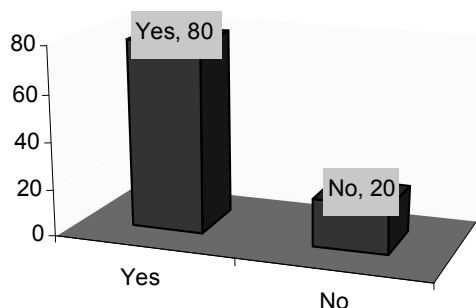
Figure 2: On the job English training

It was found that an overwhelming majority of the organizations (80%) had compulsory in-house language development courses and some of the organizations (34%) availed of British Council's executive courses (see Figure 3). These findings clearly emphasize the indispensability as well as importance and necessity of English proficiency in the Bangladeshi corporate sector and at the same time call attention to the employees' serious lack of satisfactory English proficiency.
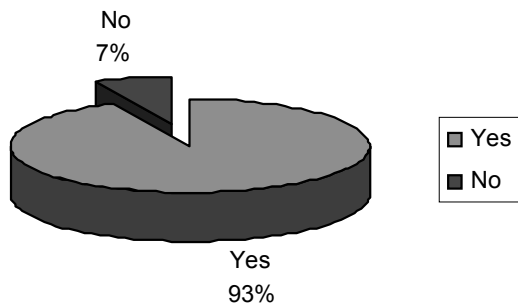
Perceptions pertaining to the English proficiency

It was determined that half of the employers (50%) perceived entry-level job applicants as incompetent in listening; an over-whelming majority of the employers (80%) perceived them as incompetent in speaking; and similarly a considerable number of employers (67%) perceived them as incom-petent in writing (see Table 2). Thus except for reading, the employers did not perceive job applicants as competent in any of the other skills. Additionally employers from the agro industry, tea industry, ceramics industry, electronics industry, buying house, advertising agency and BCS sectors commented that the English proficiency of most job applicants is "very poor" and "not up to the mark". The Media sector employers remarked that though "there has been an apparent increase in literacy—these graduates are good for nothing", unfortunately "they are a liability not an asset as they are totally incompetent." These findings and sentiments

expressed reflect those of Sirat, et al. (2008) in Malaysia and Thompson (2001) in the United States of America. Thus it was acknowledged that the English proficiency of the majority of job applicants is far below the standards required for employment in the Bangladeshi corporate scene and a general dissatisfaction with the prevailing English proficiency of job applicants on the part of the corporate employers was also discerned.

The employers' views about the impact of a lack of English proficiency on a job applicant's career prospects were examined and the results are depicted in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Employers' opinions on whether the lack of English affects career prospects


It was discovered that in accordance with Graddol's findings as well as that of other related studies the majority of the employers (93%) stated that a lack of English language skills seriously hampered the job prospects of prospective applicants. The Bangladesh Civil Services Commission (BCS) and garments industry employers were the only respondents who would employ a professionally competent graduate lacking English proficiency (refer to Figure 3). Also employers from the electronics industry, tea industry, automobile industry, banking, leather industry, shipping industry, tobacco industry, private university-college, private telecom, NGO and ceramics industry disclosed that they "head hunted" for people "good in English" as nowadays even in Bangladesh "the corporate world is competitive and globalized" and the "company image" is important, so employers want "smart and English speaking" employees. This highlights the importance of English proficiency for

employment in the Bangladeshi corporate scenario and implies that English is widely being used as "a gate keeping mechanism" in job recruitment in Bangladesh.

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Finally, information was gathered on the widespread job selection processes in Bangladesh, Figure 4 illustrates the findings.

Figure 4: Form of assessment prevalent in job selections
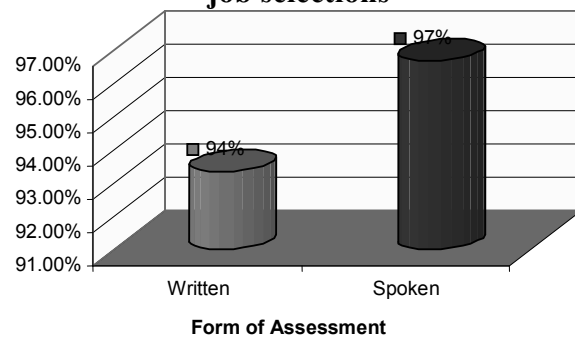
It was found that in keeping with the findings of Sirat, et al. (2008) in Malaysia, Mansoor (2007) in Pakistan and Thompson

(2001) in the United States of America the majority of the employers (97%; 94%) formally assessed job applicants' speaking skills and writing skills at the very initial phase of recruitment (see Figure 4). Moreover employers from the private bank, tovacco industry, leather industry, shipping industry, and BCS firmly stated that unless job applicants successfully qualified in the initial written assessment they would not be called for an oral interview nor be given the chance to prove their professional compe-tence. These findings reinforced that English proficiency is the key deciding factor for employment in Bangladesh; and the productive skills-writing and speaking in particular are essential. It was thus ascertained that without English proficiency employment in the Bangladeshi corporate scenario would be impossible.

CONCLUSION

This investigation attempted to determine how employers who are major players in Bangladeshi industry viewed the function and importance of English in the workplace, their outlook concerning the English aptitude of their present employees and their viewpoint regarding the requirements and English competency of new recruits. On the basis of the findings, shortcomings and deficiencies in the English proficiency of the Bangladeshi corporate workforce were identified. The significant findings that ensued from this research may be summarized as follows: 1) The widespread use and prevalence of English in the Bangladeshi corporate scene was established; 2) It was recognized that English is an undisputed and indispensable means of communication in today's Bangladeshi corporate sector; 3) It was determined that the prevailing English proficiency of corporate employees fall far below the level of proficiency required in order for business enterprises to function optimally; 4) It was acknowledged that employers are on the whole dissatisfied with their employees' English proficiency; 5) It was found that most corporate organizations are attempting to address this shortcoming by implementing compulsory English courses for their staff; 6) It was established that English proficiency is the key factor in determining the employability of job applicants in most job selections; 7) It was documented that the English proficiency of most job applicants are below the required standards and are therefore perceived as unsatisfactory by employers; 8) reinforced the importance of and prevalence of English in the employment sector; and 9) It was thus established that in spite of compulsory English at the pre-university level and additional English at the university freshmen the present system of education has failed to equip today's Bangladeshi youth with the English competency necessary for employment.

In view of the inadequacies and shortcomings determined from the investigation the following recommendations have been made. Firstly, data should be collected and constructive feedback and input should be obtained concerning the requirements and shortcomings in English proficiency from the main people concerned, namely the employers, employees, job applicants, students and educators. Secondly, the English Language Teaching (ELT) curricula being used presently at the school and university levels need to be revised on the basis of comprehensive feedback from the major stakeholders in order to address the present inadequacies in English proficiency. Thirdly, samples of authentic written communication and spoken communication should be obtained from the business sector and analyzed in order to inform, model and update the ELT curricula being used at school and university levels. Fourthly, authentic workplace communication should be analyzed and observed in order to inform and assist in updating the existing school and university level ELT curricula.

Fifthly, authentic samples of writing should be obtained from students and job applicants and analyzed in order to identify the specific sub-skill areas in need of improvement and changes should be made accordingly to the existing school and university level ELT curricula. Next, listening and reading tasks and practice based on actual corporate sector

require-ments and tasks should be ascertained and included as part of the remodeled school and university level ELT curricula. Then, ELT methodology and classroom practice at the school and university level need to be modified in order to address the existing shortcomings in the English proficiency of the workforce. Finally, Comprehensive, informed policies and measures based on research and analysis of the actual needs of the business sector should be implemented in order to rectify the situation and equip the workforce with employable English skills.

At present Bangladesh fears marginal-ization and is faced with the grim reality of lagging behind neighboring nations (Sungwon, 2007) that are forging ahead in terms of access to the world market, mainly on account of the English proficiency of their workforce. At the moment in Bangladesh, English is simultaneously perceived as "enriching and inevitable, even necessary" and "imperialistic and damaging" (Canagarajah, 1993) as it is in other parts of the world. The present attitude towards English in Bangladesh is one of "pragmatic liberalism" (Rahman, 2007); English is accepted as a modern-day asset, which is of key importance to national development. English which is not within easy reach of the multitude has become and is being seen as the most potent instrument of social and economic advancement (Rahman, 2007). Thus English is now acknowledged as a means to maximize opportunities (Bisong, 1995) and has become a principal asset in attaining global participation and leadership. As long as English continues to be the language of international discourse (Hashimoto, 2007) there is no other alter-native than to familiarizing and equipping ourselves with satisfactory English proficiency.

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APPENDIX

Semi-structured Interview Questions for Bangladeshi Employers

A Needs Assessment of the Employers' Perspective of the importance of English Language (EL)

1. What EL skills must a fresh graduate have when seeking employment?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
2. Are you satisfied with the EL skills of graduates during interviews?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
3. How many of your employees actually need to communicate in English? (in %)
4. Do you have to communicate internationally and/or locally if so how?
5. What sort of communication skills do your employees use in workplace communications?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
6. Does a lack of EL skills hinder people from getting jobs?
7. What EL skills do you consider to be important for your organization?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
8. What EL skills are crucial for your line of work?
9. Are your employees sufficiently proficient?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
10. Which areas do you feel need improvement?
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
11. Do your employees have to undergo any English language training? If so is it in-house or otherwise?
12. Please rate the importance of the following skills on a scale of 1-10 (1-least important and 10- most important)
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
13. What level of proficiency in the skills do you need from your employees for the optimum functioning of your organization on a scale of 1-10? (1-least important and 10-most important)
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
14. What is your perception of the present level of proficiency of your employees on a scale of 1-10? (1-least important and 10-most important)
    Listening   Speaking   Reading   Writing
15. Final comments?

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SUDANESE UNIVERSITIES: GOALS, ATTITUDES, AND REALITY

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Abstract: The goals and means of language study continue in the very center of debates among specialists in language teaching/learning. Different views relating to language and its functions are reflected in two main approaches to language teaching/ learning. On the one hand, language is considered to be principally instrumental, a means of communicating thought and information. One the other hand, language is viewed as an important element of human being's thought processes, perceptions, and self-expressions; and as such, it is placed at the core of translingual and transcultural competence. This paper investigates the current situation of teaching/ learning foreign languages in the Sudanese universities with special focus on the goals of teaching these languages and their role in students' future. Goals of language teaching and students' attitudes towards the process will be related to the job opportunities available for the students on graduation. Data for the paper have been collected using questionnaires and interviews administered to students and teachers from five language departments at Khartoum University: English, French, German, Russian, and Chinese. Questionnaires and interviews on language attitude will be administered among Four-year language majors representing the four departments. The central question the paper tries to answer is whether there is a realistic match between the goals of language teaching/learning set by policy makers and students' interests and expectations. Results are expected to contribute to the efforts made to restructure language-in-education curriculum at university level in a way that addresses the expectations of both policy makers and students.

Keywords: Foreign language teaching and learning, goals, attitude

Abstrak: Tujuan dan cara pembelajaran bahasa terus menjadi fokus perdebatan di antara ahli pengajaran dan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris. Pandangan yang berbeda-beda terhadap bahasa dan fungsinya terlihat dalam dua pendekatan utama terhadap pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa. Di satu sisi, bahasa dianggap sangat penting sebagai alat untuk mengkomunikasikan pikiran dan informasi. Di sisi lain, bahasa dipandang sebagai elemen penting dalam proses berpikir manusia, persepsi, dan ekspresi diri; oleh karena itu, bahasa ditempatkan sebagai inti kecakapan transbahasa dan transbudaya. Makalah ini menyelidiki situasi terkini di bidang pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa asing di universitas-universitas Sudan dengan fokus khusus pada tujuan pengajaran bahasa asing dan perannya untuk masa depan siswa. Tujuan pengajaran bahasa dan sikap siswa terhadap proses tersebut akan dihubungkan dengan kesempatan kerja yang tersedia untuk siswa saat mereka lulus. Data dikumpulkan dengan menggunakan kuesioner dan wawancara yang dilakukan terhadap siswa dan guru dari lima jurusan bahasa di Universitas Khartoum: Inggris, Perancis, Jerman, Rusia, dan Cina. Kuesioner dan wawancara mengenai sikap bahasa akan diberikan pada mahasiswa bahasa tingkat empat yang mewakili empat jurusan. Pertanyaan utama makalah ini mencoba untuk menjawab apakah ada kecocokan yang realistis antara tujuan pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa yang dicanangkan oleh para

pembuat kebijakan dengan minat serta pengharapan siswa. Hasilnya diharapkan bisa memberikan kontribusi terhadap usaha untuk menyusun ulang kurikulum pendidikan bahasa pada tingkat universitas sebagaimana mungkin sehingga bisa memenuhi harapan baik pembuat kebijakan maupun siswa.

Katakunci: Pengajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa asing, tujuan, sikap.

The Sudan can be divided very roughly into two regions, the North and the South. From the 7th century onwards a process of arabiciation began in the Northern Sudan. Tribes from Arabia crossed to Egypt and later moved south along the Nile valley. They looked for better past rage for their animals—rich, slaves—and to escape from tax-collectors. The Arabs progressed peacefully, such as through intermarriage with indigenous groups, resulting in a widespread adoption of the Arabic language and culture. Religious schools, Khalwas, were established almost everywhere in the Northern part of the country. Students were taught Arabic language so as to be able to study the Quran. In the 1814, schools were already drawing students from a wide area in the Sudan; the teachers had many books on theology and law brought from Cairo or Mecca.

The status and use of Arabic was further enhanced when the Turko-Egyptian administration started employing local Sudanese in their administration. A system of religious courts, in which religious men and teachers were appointed, was also established. As a result, Arabic replaced Turkish as the language of government correspondence. This situation continued till 1898, when the British invaded Sudan, controlling the major parts of it with some pockets in the south and Darfur to be brought under control. With the beginning of the British administration, English language found its way into Sudan. This was promoted when the British decided to introduce government schools to provide modern education alongside with the Quranic models presented in the Khalwas. The teaching in the first British schools was in Arabic focusing on reading, writing, arithmetic, Arabic language, and English (to be taught in the higher classes).

In 1901, Gordon Memorial College was established to start as an elementary school and upgraded to secondary status later and finally became a university—the present University of Khartoum. Among the objectives set for the university were:
1. the creation of a native artisan class
2. a diffusion of education among the masses of the people to enable them to understand the basic elements of the government
3. the creation of a small administrative class who would ultimately find many minor posts; this group only was required to learn English

It was decided that the medium of instruction at Gordon College (for the secondary level) should be English. As a consequence, English became very popular among the school boys who joined the college. The main objective was to enable the students to join the government administration, whereof English played a crucial role in promotion. In addition, knowledge of English was associated with social prestige, which encouraged students to be very keen to improve their proficiency in English.

In contrast with the North, where both Arabic and English were used in the administration, the South began with an administration wholly run in Arabic and gradually changed into English between 1904 and 1918. The process continued until 1940 when Arabic was abandoned. In 1913, only clerks with a good command of English could find job opportunities in the government in Bahr el Ghazal. In 1918, the British named English as the official language of correspondence in the South. The role of English in the South was further enhanced by teaching it in schools, particularly at the intermediate level.

English remained the medium of instruction at school till 1965, when it was replaced with Arabic. The Arabicization of school education was an answer to the national feelings and enthusiasm following October revolution in 1964 (Hurries). In other words, Arabicization of education was merely a political and national issue rather than educational or linguistic. This national political feeling led to the replacement of English with Arabic as a medium of instruction at university level in 1990. Recognizing the important role of English in the academic life of students, the Ministry of High education decided that English should be taught as a university required subject to all undergraduate students. Accordingly, specialized units were established in all universities throughout Sudan to teach English, mainly ESP.

METHOD

This study mainly depends on questionnaires and interviews in the process of data collection. The questionnaire consists of three sections. The first section was concerned with information on students departments as well as their academic background. The second consisted of general information questions, in which subjects were requested to answer with "yes," "no," or "I don't know." This is in addition to examining students' awareness of the necessity of learning a foreign language. The third section investigated specific learning preferences, where subjects were asked to answer with: 1. Strongly agree; 2. Slightly agree; 3. I don't know; 4.Disagree; and, 5. Strongly disagree. This paper focuses on the results obtained by the first and second sections of the questionnaire. Interviews with students, professors, and head departments at the faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum, were also conducted to supplement the data collected via the questionnaires or to verify them. Head departments were asked about the number of students enrolled in their departments and the criteria of selecting them.

As many as 160 students belonging to four language departments at the University of Khartoum have been employed to gather data on the reasons behind choosing languages as a program of study. The main objective here is to examine the attitudes and motivations the students have for learning a foreign language. Results are going to be compared with answers to questions regarding job opportunities available for the students on graduation. Subjects' responses will also be discussed in the light of the present job markets made available by the presence of a huge number of international companies and NGOs in the Sudan following the economic and political developments recently occurred in the country.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The growing concern with English in recent years led to the establishment of English Departments offering B.A. in English in almost all of the public and private universities all over the Sudan. Students' ultimate objective in the faculties of Arts and education in these universities is to learn English as a major subject. If they do not find a seat in one of language departments, the second option would be another foreign language or a social science such as mass communication, psychology, history, etc. Table1 below gives an approximate picture of English popularity in a number of Sudanese universities. It seems that the students are highly motivated to learn a foreign language in general and English in particular. Motivation has been identified as the learner's goal and beliefs with regard to learning a second language (Crooks and Shmidt, 1991). It is thought that students who are most successful when learning a foreign language are those who have motivation in learning that language.

Table 1. Number of English majors in some Sudanese universities

University (government and private)	Number of students	Location
University of Khartoum	224	Khartoum
Neelain University	800	Khartoum
Sudan University for science & technology	200	Khartoum
Omdurman Ahlia University	463	Khartoum
Jazeera University	231	Medani
Juba University	200	Southern Sudan
Alfashir University	200	North of Darfur
Nyala University	201	South of Darfur
Zalinji University	100	West of Darfur
Kassala University	160	Eastern Sudan
ImmamAlmahadi University	243	White Nile(Central)
Bekhatelruda University	208	White Nile (Central)

The new language policy of the Sudan endorsed by the Comprehensive Peace Agreement signed in Naivasha in 2005 announces English as an official language of the Sudan together with Arabic. This policy further enhances the role of English in the Sudan in general and in the southern region in particular. The agreement opens the door for English to play the role of the language of instruction at university level in both parts of the country. In fact, English is used as a medium of instruction in most of the schools and universities operating in the South. English is also used widely by the officials of the government of Southern Sudan, especially when taking to the international media.

The need for English in the Sudan following the new language policy has significantly increased due to the growing demand for people with good command of English. The United Nations' missions in the Sudan and other international organizations employ thousands of Sudanese in different jobs, in which a fair command of English is required. The UNAMIS and UNAMIS (Peace keeping forces in Darfur and Southern Sudan, respectively) have to deal with the local communities through translators of varying degrees of competence in English. The outbreak of war in Darfur paved the way for about 120 NGOs to come and work in relief activities in the region. This led to the creation of more job opportunities for individuals with some command in English. In such an encouraging environment, one expects more and more students to join the departments of English at different Sudanese universities to secure a good job in the near future.

Learning languages for practical reasons is evident among various communities in the Sudan, including the tightly closed language groups. Research on language use and attitude indicates that Arabic is the most important language in a variety of domains (Miller and Abu Manga, 1996, Mugaddam 2006a, Mugaddam, 2006b). In a more recent survey conducted in Tima villages in the Nuba Mountains (Mugaddam, forthcoming), we have found a high demand for English and Arabic among subjects of different age groups. The two languages were preferred for the significant role they play in people's life in the region (English as a medium of instruction at the village schools and Arabic as a language of wider communication in the area). Table 2 below gives a detailed description of the situation .

Table 2. Language respondents wish to learn for practical reasons

Language	7-12 years		13-19 years		20-39 years		40-59 years		60+ years		Total	
Tima	93	38.91%	88	41.5%	107	44.58%	119	50%	143	55%	550	43.2%
Tima & Arabic	49	20.5%	43	20.28%	67	27.91%	48	20.16%	46	17.69%	253	21.2%
Tima -English	32	13.38%	24	11.32%	17	7.08%	19	7.98%	27	10.38%	119	10.0%
Arabic	31	12.97%	15	7.07%	14	5.83%	18	7.56%	23	8.84%	101	8.49%
English	8	3.34%	3	1.41%	11	4.58%	7	2.94%	4	1.53%	33	2.77%
English & Arabic	6	2.51%	9	4.24%	4	1.66%	8	3.36%	-	-	27	2.27%
Tima - A & E	20	8.36%	30	14.15%	20	8.33%	19	7.98%	17	6.53%	106	8.91%
Total	239	100%	212	100%	240	100%	238	100	260	100%	1189	100%

As can be seen in the table, there is a growing interest in learning English and Arabic

together with the ethnic language. The highest percentage was registered by Tima (43.25%), which suggests a strong desire among the Tima speech community to preserve their own language. This tendency increases as we move from the fifth first age group, the youngest, to the first age group, the oldest. In other words, older generation individuals within the community are very keen to maintain their own ethnic language, Tima. If we take the four patterns: Tima, Tima and Arabic, Tima and English, and Tima, Arabic & English, together, we will discover that more than 83% of the sample population believe that it is important to learn the three languages. A closer look at the table reveals that English was the least reported language the subjects wish to gain literacy. This observation is consistent across the different age groups, especially the young generation. This will be quite reasonable if we put into consideration the fact that English has already taken its place as the only medium of instruction at all of the schools in the villages. In addition, old generation individuals apparently have no urgent need for English as almost all of their everyday communication takes place in Tima and or Arabic, and, of course, they have no ambitions for better opportunities in the future job markets compared to youngsters.

The analysis also shows that a considerable portion of the sample population

have emphasized the necessity for learning other languages besides Tima. About 57% of the subjects have reported that it is very important for them to learn Arabic and English. The two languages were reported mainly for the practical function they play in the subjects' everyday life. Socioeconomic and sociopolitical factors will further enhance this tendency as Tima youngsters will have no other alternative but to master the two languages (English and Arabic), should they wish to play a significant role in the social and economic activities in and outside the Sudan. As a direct consequence, the local language, Tima, get lost by younger generation in the long run.

Other foreign Languages at Sudanese Universities

Teaching languages rather than English at university level in Sudan is limited to very few universities. While French is taught in four universities: Khartoum University, Sudan University, Ahlia University, and Omdurman Islamic university, German, Chinese, and Russian are offered only by the University of Khartoum. These languages are very popular among students enrolled in the faculties of arts and education at the University. The students first look for a seat in a language department, and then consider other options.

Students of foreign languages in the Faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum, for instance, constitute about 30% of the total number of the faculty students (913 out of 2971). Table 2 gives the number of students in the five language departments at the Faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum.

Table 3. Number of language students at the Faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum

Department	Number of students	Percentage
English	244	26.7%
French	252	27.6%
Chinese	192	21%
Russian	154	16.8%
German	070	7.6%
Total	913	100%

Table 2 shows that a significant number of students in Khartoum University chose foreign languages as a field of study. English, Chinese, French, German, and Russian represent the most popular subjects among students of the Faculty of Arts. The departments are, in theory, given a free hand to decide on the number of students they would take in according to their capacity in terms of teaching staff, rooms, labs, and other teaching facilities. However, the number of students who applied for a seat in the five departments was almost double the actual number enrolled. The Department of Chinese, for instance, receives more than 250 applications from students wishing to join the department each year, of which only 60 are accepted. The head of the department has indicated that even the 60 students are accepted after continuous pressures from the faculty administration. The ideal number of students for the department, according to him, ranges from 20 to 30 as the teaching facilities (staff, rooms, other teaching aids, etc,) do not accommodate more than 30 students.

Chinese language was introduced as a subject of study at the faculty of arts in the early 1990, following the beginning of China's big investments in Sudan. China's transformation from an insular, agrarian society into a key force in the world economy forced the Chinese to send their companies to distant points in search of raw materials. Part of a broader push by china to expand trade and influence across Africa, its relationship with Sudan also shows China's intense willingness to do business wherever it is possible to secure oil. In line with this policy to spread China's influence around the world, the Chinese government encourages the use of Chinese language as an effective strategy (BBC report). By 2008, an estimated 120.000 students would travel to China to attend college both at graduate and undergraduate levels. Sudanese students have already taken their share in these Chinese government scholarships. Sudanese universities receive a number of scholarships for their potential staff to obtain MSc and PhD in different fields of study in China.

Language attitudes and reality
The central question in this regard is "why do students like to do foreign languages?" This question was put to 160 students from the five language departments in an attempt to link students' attitudes towards the languages they learn and the actual reality represented by the job opportunities available for them after graduation. Table 3 summarizes students' reasons for learning foreign languages.

Table 4. Reasons for learning a foreign language among Khartoum University students

Language	Jobs	Communication with the world outside	Prestige	Studies	Total
English	53 (33.1%)	33 (20.6%)	29 (18.1%)	26 (16.2%)	142 (88.7%)
Chinese	37 (23.1%)	1 (0.6%)	-	6 (3.7%)	44(27.5%)
German	23 (14.7%)	21 (13.1%)	13 (8.1%)	24 (15%)	64 (40%)
French	12 (7.5%)	14 (8.75%)	40(25%)	3 (1.8%)	69 (43.1%)
Russian	-	16 (10%)	6 (3.75%)	46 (28.7%)	68 (42.5%)

As shown by Table 3, English was reported as important for several reasons: job opportunities (33.1%), communication with the world outside (20.6%), prestige (18.1%), and studies (16.2%). Most of the students believed that English would enable them to find a good job on graduation. The recent economic growth in the Sudan together with the signing of Comprehensive Peace Agreement paved the way for heavy foreign investments in the country. Companies and international organizations have come to the Sudan implementing development program, which created jobs for many Sudanese. The United Nations alone employs about 13.000 Sudanese in different jobs, including language assistants, translators, interpreters, security personnel, drivers, etc. It goes without saying that good command of English is one of the essential criteria for employing individuals in such posts.

I observed that many of our classmates and students who did English during their course of study at the university have got jobs in those NGOs or international companies operating in Khartoum or Darfur. Availability of jobs requiring good command of English is also made possible by the national companies who do business with foreigners. The spread of international and private schools in Khartoum and other urban centers in Sudan is another source of job opportunities for specialists in English language. Relatively good salaries are paid for teachers of English with a university degree and some experience in teaching English.

The analysis shows that economic factors played a crucial role in the growth of Chinese language in the Sudan. As the table displays, a good number of students have indicated that they would like to learn Chinese due to the increasing job opportunities provided via knowledge of the language. This is mainly because of the expansion of Chinese investments in the country. China invested more than 10 billion US dollars in the oil industry alone. The Sudan produces about 500.000 barrels per day and has proven a reserve of at least 563 million barrels per day. It is this projected oil-boom led by Chinese firms that caught the eye of many Sudanese students to learn Chinese language.

China also pumped about 3.5 billion dollars for investments in the commercial exchange with Sudan. In addition, Chinese companies are building dams (e.g. Merowe), roads, bridges, electricity projects and investing heavily in agriculture. As a result, many jobs have been created for graduates of Chinese, even those with a fair knowledge of the language. We came to know that in some cases, students of Chinese at Khartoum University are offered jobs even before graduation. A professor of Chinese language at the department indicated that most of his students were motivated by money, which is clearly reflected in their proficiency in the language. To ensure a good proficiency in Chinese, the Department organizes a language competition in which students show their ability to express themselves in the language by various means. Joking, storytelling and singing are among the activities performed in the competition. Some of the students interviewed emphasized the importance of Chinese for their future careers, saying that a post in one of the Chinese companies is guaranteed as soon as they graduate

As mentioned previously, the Chinese use language as a means of spreading their influence globally. The Chinese Embassy and other academic institutions constantly support the Department of Chinese language in all of its cultural and academic activities. Students are offered Scholarships, ranging from masters to short training courses in China on a regular basis. This support significantly contributes to the positive attitudes the students have towards Chinese language and culture. Sara, a fourth year student, described Chinese as a beautiful language, stressing a strong wish to visit China and read for her postgraduate studies there. Such an attitude has been found to be dominant among the students of Chinese who make serious efforts to improve their proficiency in the language so as to be able to pass the exams set as a basic criterion for getting a job in the future. The survey reported both instrumental and integrative motivation (Gardener and Lambert 1972) to learning Chinese language among students of Chinese at Khartoum University. Yet, instrumental motivation seems to be more prevalent as the data in the table suggest.

The analysis of the table also shows that French is favored considerably by students. Many students have indicated that they learn French because it was the language of prestige (40%) and some believed that it was a beautiful language. Very few subjects reported that they learned French for economic reasons (job opportunities). It is obvious that French has no practical function to play in the students' future life. In fact, most of those who did French as a major subject have ended up with jobs that have nothing to do with French. This is mainly because of the limited jobs offered for specialists in French language in Sudan. Some very skilled translators find good positions in the UN and other NGOs based in Khartoum and Darfur. Occasional opportunities for translating international conferences and symposiums held in Khartoum are also available for the lucky ones. Apart from this, it is very hard for students with degrees in French to find bread-winning posts in Sudan's job market. Many of the students interviewed indicated that they learn French because it was a beautiful language or that they would like to communicate with French speaking communities or for further studies in France.

Similar attitudes were found among some of our subjects towards Russian language. Although the departments of Russian language is joined by a quite good number of students every academic year, very few of them see some roles of the language in their economic life. The students believed that the language might be useful for postgraduate studies in the future. This view is featured by response such as "I may need the language for my further studies in Russia,""Russian helps me understand the works of Russian novelist,""Russian is a beautiful language." Students have also stressed the importance of the language for communicating with its speech communities. Some students have indicated that they chose Russian language as a field of study because they had no other choice. In other words, they did not find a place other language departments in the faculty, particularly English and Chinese. This attitude is strongly supported by the reality of job market in the Sudan, where very few opportunities are available for people with a good knowledge of Russian.

The survey also reported a growing interest in German language among the students under study. Since 1991, the Department of German language has been offering a B.A. program in German language. The department accepts 20 to 30 students annually after tough competition based on students' performance in English and Arabic. Students have several reasons for joining the department, among which is the fact that the top ones in the language performance are given a chance to visit Germany twice for short courses. Sending language students abroad was a long tradition in the Faculty of Arts. Unfortunately, the practice has stopped in recent years due to financial problems, except for the Department of German Language. Availability of job opportunities for those with excellent command of German is another important incentive for the students to do German language. Famous German car

companies like Mercedes, Volkswagen, and Audi have their representatives in Khartoum, who urgently need translators from German to Arabic and Arabic to German to meet their German staffs' and local customers' needs. Other German and national companies doing business in Germany and the Sudan are also employing individuals with a good knowledge of German language.

CONCLUSION

The study of foreign languages in Sudanese universities attracts a considerable number of students. Departments of English, French, Chinese, German, and Russian are among the most popular departments in the Faculty of Arts, University of Khartoum. Sophomore students try hard to get a seat in one of these departments. Having failed to find a chance in these departments, students go for other humanities such as history, geography, Islamic studies, and archeology. However, English, Chinese and German are seen by students as very important languages for their future life. The recent economic growth in the Sudan together with the coming of a large number of NGOS (more than a hundred), following the signing of Peace between the South and North and outbreak of war in Darfur, have created many job opportunities for those having knowledge of foreign languages, especially English and Chinese. Other languages such as French, German, and Russian are learned basically for communication with speakers of these languages or for further studies abroad.

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THE EVENT OF SEPTEMBER 11TH IN AMERICAN AND SYRIAN WRITTEN MEDIA DISCOURSE

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Abstract: Aiming at highlighting the important role of written media discourse in implicit transfer of the dominant ideology of discourse context, the present data-driven paper demonstrates how the lexical features of repetition and synonymy as well as the structural and thematic features of passivisation, nominalization and predicated theme were utilized by the discourse producers of the data to mediate between their own underlying ideology and the target readers' understanding of the event of September 11th 2001. Through a comparative statistical analysis of the written media discourse of the data for the study written in two ideologically opposing contexts of Syria and America, we have tried to explicate how the discourse producers utilized various lexical and thematic strategies to produce different impressions of the event and implicitly force the underlying ideology on the readers.

Keywords: September 11th 2001, thematization, passivisation, nominalization, synonymy, CDA

Abstrak: Dengan bertujuan untuk menyoroti peran penting wacana media tertulis dalam perpindahan ideology tersembunyi sebuah konteks wacana, makalah ini berusaha menunjukkan bagaimana fitur-fitur leksikon pengulangan dan sinonim juga fitur struktural dan tematis dari pemasivan kalimat, nominalisasi, dan tema berpredikat digunakan oleh pembuat wacana untuk menengahi ideology dasar mereka dan pemahaman target pembaca akan peristiwa 11 September 2001. Melalui analisis statistic komparatif terhadap wacana media tertulis terhadap data kajian ini yang diperoleh dari dua konteks yang berlainan secara ideologi, yaitu Siria dan Amerika, kami telah mencoba untuk memperlihatkan bagaimana pembuat wacana menggunakan beragam strategi leksikal dan tematis untuk menghasilkan kesan yang berbeda terhadap peristiwa tersebut dan memaksakan ideologi dasarnya terhadap para pembaca.

Katakunci: 11 September 2001, tematisasi, pemasifan, nominalisasi, sinonimi, CDA

One of the goals of Critical Discourse Analysis, or CDA for short, is an unbiased analysis of both oral and written discourse to highlight the underlying social power of the discourse under analysis in order to reveal its explicit and implicit power influences on the reader, not to find faults or negative points with it, as the term "critical" may literally imply (Bloor and Bloor 2007, Rogers, 2004, Paltridge 2006). Neither is the goal to accuse any writer or authority in power of intentional deception. According to Paltridge (2006), CDA connects the use of language to the social and political context in which it occurs. The present study is no exception; we aim to present a CDA of two written media discourse

on the event of September 11th 2001, mainly based on the notions of agency and goal/ affected in systemic functional linguistics originally proposed by Halliday. In this view, language is conceived as a source for communication and making meanings rather than as a formal system. Linguistic structures are viewed as interrelated systems available for the expression of meaning in situational context (Flowerdew, 2008).

September 11th attacks of 2001 on twin buildings in America and Pentagon was one of the most tragic events that shocked all nations around the globe, and led to great developments and changes in the world affairs, which persist until today. As Freedman (2005) said the so-called al-Qa'ida attack on the United States of America on September 11th, 2001, had a defining impact on the (US) administration." I used the phrase "so-called" here since according to a "World Public Opinion.org" poll of 17 nations published in September 10, 2008, in average of 46% said that Al Qaeda was behind the attacks while 15% chose the US government, 7% Israel, and 7%other perpetrators as the agents behind the attacks. One in four said they do not know. No consensus on the agency issue of the event existed. Some explicitly attributed the event to the American government. Meyssan (2002) at a presentation in Zayed Center, Abu Dhabi, explicated the exact reasons and put forward some evidence in this regard, saying the responsibility, "cannot be attributed to foreign terrorists from Arab-Muslim world–even if some of those involved might have been Muslims." According to Brown (2005), the Muslim world sympathized with the American nation fiercely condemning it. This was even witnessed in Iran and Syria known as anti-American policies. The wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, and the continuing violence between Palestine and Israel, to name a few, are some evident by-products of the event, justified by the great social hatred, fear and shock, across the world in general and in the United States, in particular. Media discourse on "terror" and "terrorism" was coined and developed, paving the way for ruling powers to justify

their subsequent policies in the world. A discourse of prejudice developed. The words "terrorist" and "fundamentalist" were widely used. The original association of the word "fundamentalist" with the words "Christian, Bible, Literal" pointed their negative implications towards "Islam, Islamic, and Muslim" (Bloor and Bloor 2007). As such, the media in Islamic world reacted to this trend by writing on the issue and blaming Israel and the USA for the event.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate how written media discourse used the tools of language to account for the mentioned event, following the lines offered by their respective ruling systems and the social sensations of the people living in the two ideologically divergent societies. Syria written media discourse was randomly chosen as the token of Muslim written media context, while American written media context was chosen as the center and the target of the attacks. Due to the divergent reactions to the mentioned event in the two contexts, the following research question was formulated: *How do ideological differences between Syria and USA are reflected in the written media discourse on the event of September 11th 2001?*

To answer the question above, five news items from Syrian written media contexts on the event of September 11th 2001 and a piece from *The New York Times* website on September 12, 2001 from American media context were randomly selected. Availability of the needed data was one of the limitations of the study. Unwanted unconscious bias effect on the writers due to our social context of living was another limitation, though we have tried to keep it to the minimum through adopting a systematic procedure.

After the introduction of discourse analysis by Zellig Harris in 1952, in the late 1970's Critical Discourse analysis (CDA) came to the fore by Roger Fowler, as a way of studying the link between language and social meanings. In fact, during 1980's and 1990's, a need was felt for the addition of critical component to the field of discourse analysis (Van Dijk, 2004). CDA, according to

Flowerdew (2008), views language as a form of social practice. CDA "includes not only a description and interpretation of discourse in context, but also offers an explanation of why and how discourse works" (Rogers, 2004, p.2 as cited in Paltridge, 2008, p.185). As such, theories of language should be related to theories of society. CDA has now turned into a truly international ethical practice with its own clear-cut boundaries. As such, critical discourse analysis can be used for uncovering the hidden deep level ideologies embodied in written media discourse. Paltridge (2008) spoke of doing CDA at three levels of discourse or genre, sentence, and word or phrase. At the level of discourse or genre, issues like framing, foregrounding and backgrounding, and the attitudes and points of view of the text are discussed. At sentence level, issues like topicalization and agent-patient relationships are under focus. At word and phrase level word connotations, degree of formality-informality and technicality are discussed. Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics proved to be so handy in CDA, helping the critical discourse analyst, according to Brooks (1995) to "uncover how language works to construct meanings that signify people, objects and events in the world in specific ways" (p. 462). The meanings may be hidden or implicit for an untrained common reader, as indirect discourse participant. CDA serves as a link between the discourse, oral or written, and the social setting of its production.

As endorsed by Fowler (1991), the news stories produced in particular social settings reflect the underlying values. Media genre of discourse is a true reflection of the world perspectives of discourse producers embedded intentionally or unintentionally in the discourse, serving the purpose of both informing and controlling. Hodge and Kress (1993) referred to the importance of language "as an instrument of control and communication" (p. 6). It is a communication between the writer and the reader as encoder and decoder of discourse (Behnam 2002), utilizing linguistic strategies like passivization, and nominalization that are related to the assignment of semantic roles in

discourse (Johnston 2008). Media discourse can be a tool of exercising power through the medium of ideology for "foregrounding" or backgrounding ideas (Paltridge 2008). Ideologies also serve as "background knowledge" in the society, in Fairclough's (2005) terms, and as a basis on which new events are interpreted or new perspectives are produced. Ideologies are social manifestations of beliefs. Therefore, they pose readers in situations to interpret new social changes in particular ways, entailing specific reactions to them as well. Terrorism or threatening other people's lives was originally linked to countries other than Islamic ones, mainly associated with drug trafficking groups. After September 11th attacks in America by the so-called Al-Qaida backing Islamic fundamentalists , the use of the word "terrorism" and "fundamentalism" came to be associated with Muslim radicals, creating a marred vision of the world of Islam and Islamic countries, justifying the counter-actions by the American government. On the spur of the new situation, new media discourse was coined and later developed due to the appearance of new form of terrorism and violence (Kleinfield 2007). Media entered a psychological war. According to Sakiama Masaki (2009), BBC and CNN irresponsibly aired over and over again the pictures of "Palestinians celebrating the terrorist attack," aiming "to exaggerate the Islamic threat and the fear of ruthless terrorists" (p. 1). To sum up, ideologies may be reflected and distributed among the readers as discourse participants through the use of media discourse. In Reath's terms (1998), written media discourse both gives information and captures "the ideological stance of the reader" (p. 50). This is intentionally done so implicitly and indirectly that a usual reader accepts them as taken for granted as unquestionable pieces of facts, as expected by the *elite* in power, as Van Dijk's (2004) called them. They shape and control the reproduction of written media discourse, and thus determine the way it would be understood and interpreted by common powerless readers. In this sense, Johnstone (2008) considers power as "institutionally"

defined, like the power of a president who acquires the power to declare war. Media genre of discourse provides a tool for indirect power enactment.

METHOD

The present study was conducted based on the ideological context of the sequence of events following the shocking event of September 11th 2001, using materials consisting of five news pieces reflecting the stance of Syrian government, namely *Syria Times, Syria Times Online,* and *Al-Thawrah* published in October, November, and September 2001. (See appendix B). In addition, a news item from US-based, *The New York Times*, was retrieved from its main website for the purpose of critical discourse analysis of the event. The paragraphs from both contexts have been numbered for ease of reference. (*See* Appendix A)

One of the most prominent theorists of text and context relationship regarding the development of CDA has been M.A.K. Halliday, who delineated several functions for any language, one of them being the "ideational function." Transitivity, mood, and theme are interrelated notions in his general framework of linguistic systems. Halliday (1985) suggested an analysis of text in terms of participants and processes. That means asking about agency and affected participants or who or what is affected or benefits from the process. Various syntactic mechanisms are employed to give a sense of how *the action is performed, by whom and on what* by various syntactic mechanisms. Then, written media discourse can convey different ideologies of the media workers to the media users. Based on the discussion above, transitivity is a fundamental concept in Hallidayan linguistics, which could be used in the analysis of representation in the text. As such, the method here is disclosing the agency relationships utilized by discourse producers in producing each piece of written media discourse.

The data for this study from two ideologically different Syrian and American contexts have been analyzed using the principles of CDA in terms of the textual lexical devices and structural devices A content analysis of the news texts in the mentioned two contexts on the same topic, namely the attacks of September 11th 2001 seemed to be a logical way of understanding the underlying ideology of the text producers on the mentioned dimensions.

To focus the specific scope of the study, the semiotic features of the texts or macrostructure of the texts under study were disregarded. Paragraph arrangements and the accompanying pictures were ignored as requiring another form of study looking at the issue from another angle. Micro study of the text to unravel the differential representation of people, processes, and ideologies through the use of different textual strategies was the focus of this study. Specifically, an analysis of ways of representing agency, affected, and beneficiary through the use of structural devices, and the use of some lexical cohesive devices including repetition and synonyms to create certain impressions or feelings are what we pursue here. Analyzing the structural strategies is based on a study of passivation and nominalization according to Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar. A study of repetition as a lexical cohesive device is done based on Paltridge (2008).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned before, the data for the present study comprises five news items from Syrian written media contexts on the event of September 11th 2001 and a piece from *New York Times* website written by the writer, Serge Schemann on September 12th 2001 numbered 1 to 7 here for ease of discussion. The texts were randomly selected from a pool of data available on the topic. The two texts are analyzed in terms of cohesive device of repetition, and synonymy according to Paltridge (2008), the structural thematization devices of passivation, nominalization and predicated theme based on Halliday (1985) and Thompson (1996).

Repetition and Synonymy as cohesive devices

Repetition is a lexical cohesive device, in which some words are repeated in a text. According to Paltridge (2008), "In English it is not good style to continuously repeat the same word in a text" (p. 134). Of course, the deliberate repetition of some items may be intently utilized for putting a special emphasis on something or implicit creation of a special effect on readers' minds.

In the text from the American context, the following patterns were discerned, which were aimed at enlarging the magnitude and the depth of the shocking event that *victimized* the American nation generally but, at the same time, the effects was neutralized and kept to minimum by the *hero* America. In other words, an attempt was made to depict a picture of both a victim and a hero out of USA concerning the event:

1. The word *hijacker* and the related words like *hijacked* or *hijack* were repeated five times, which implicitly indicate the wrong stealing action done on American property (planes here).

2. The word *plane* or other closely related words like *jetliner* and *Flight Number* were repeated 9 times in the American data for the study depicting a picture of innocent ordinary passengers as the medium and one of the targets of the attacks, which is condemned in the eyes of public opinion.

3. The word *world Trade Center, tower(s),* and *building* were repeated ten times to put the target of the attacks and their unwarlike nature to the public eye, trying to unconsciously arouse the sympathy of the ordinary media reader by drawing an affected picture out of the buildings and the place they are located in, namely New York, which by itself has been repeated two times.

4. Exaggeration with numbers through the repetitive use of expressions like *24000, 266, several scores, numerous, hundreds, thousands, several, horrendous numbers, thousands and thousands, as many as, no official count, the worst, very high,* *highest state of alert* and so on. The greater the statistics, the more likely the reader is inclined to accept the facts implied by them. Exaggerated reference to numbers is done 14 times throughout the text.

5. The use of special vocabulary, mostly verbs that give dramatic image of the tragic event, has more lasting impressions on the reader and arouses them emotionally. The use of special emotionally loaded lexicons like *rammed, topple, crash, damage, aflame, perish, plow into, victim, calamity, attack, disaster, hit, lost, collapsed, broken bone, dead, killed, injured, ash-chocked, survivors* give the notion of damaging and hurting that are mostly associated with deep emotional connotations. A simple frequency count showed 24 cases of this special use of lexical items.

6. The use of vocabulary usually associated with terror and killing, like armed with, knife, box cutter has occurred seven times throughout the text.

7. The use of words indicating a picture of a *hero* for America and the people dealing with the case aims to soothe the public pain by trying to indicate that, despite the great magnitude of the event, the nation has dealt admirably and cleverly with the issue. This is mainly done in paragraph six of the text. The following nine cases may be termed as the manifestations of the case:

> …guard unit called out…..
> ….attacks carefully coordinated…. (to show the severity of the event)
> all buildings evacuated except situation room where vice president, chenny remains in charge.
> …hijackers failed in…………
> > the planes were gorged with fuel (to show the severity of the event)
> > Barbara …. Managed to reach her husband …
> > ….medical examiner officers were ready ….
> > firefighters, police officers, rescue workers ….
> > rescuers had been able to ………………

Table 1 and figure 1 below summarize the frequency for each category mentioned above:

Table 1
Frequency count for each pattern of repetition and synonymy in the American data

Patern	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Frequency	5	9	10	14	24	7	9	78
percentage	6.41	11.53	12.82	17.94	30.69	8.97	11.53	100

Figure 1: The Frequency of repetition and synonymy for the American data
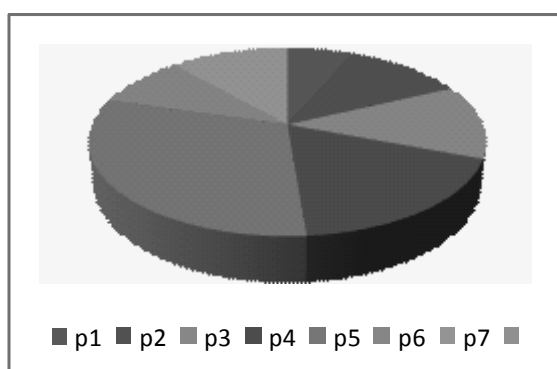
As seen in the data for the study, the most frequent pattern is 5, amounting to 24 cases, in which the writer has intentionally tried to depict an innocent picture of America which has been unfairly attacked and damaged by outsiders, the name of which has not been mentioned. This can be inferred from the context of situation by exophoric reference. By the use of the repetition and synonymy devices above, the writer manages to create a dramatic effect. The use of exaggerated numbers ranks the second. According to the general rule, greater quantities have greater effects. The writer has successfully used the mentioned technique to create a bigger and more serious picture of the importance of the attack by Muslim extremist group (implicitly).

Analyzing the text from the other side of the spectrum, Syria, the following patterns are discerned:

1. Although the text from the American context made no mention of the other side of the battle, the data from the Syrian sources in one way or another referred to Israel and America using different words namely, *Israel, Israeli, Mosad, Zionist,* *Terroris Number One* and *USA, Pentagon, Americans, uncle Sam*. On the whole, the words about Israel were mentioned 22 times. Also the USA-related words were repeated 10 times. This contradicts sharply with the writing strategy of the American writer that only, by implication, the reader was led to infer through the context and exophoric reference who the writer is talking about. The predominant mention of Israel puts it at the conscious center of attacks. It may probably be the reflection of the cultural differences in the ways of understanding and expressing the issue.

2. The word *Uncle Sam* is used intertextually three times, in reference to American government to indicate the hegemonic nature of it. Repetition, if used redundantly, may carry connotative meanings.

3. The writers from the Syrian context try to create a picture of a victim from the Muslim nations, rather than the American nation that has been attacked. They use the words *defenseless, poor nation, Afghanistan and Palestine* to get this meaning across. Four cases of such use of synonymous words were detected in the data for the study.

4. The writers from the Syrian context use the name of the target of attacks, yet in a way that the fault is not directed at Muslims. For example, they use words like, *destructive attacks on world trade center, Pentagon, White House, Washington, New York*. These are usually used in sentences, in which the name of Israel is mentioned in one way or another to put the blames for the universally disgusting event on them. There were nine cases of repetition or synonymy related to this pattern.

5. There has been the use of words *seem,*

assume, make false in four cases implying that the writers do not accept the accusations against the Moslems, implicitly rejecting it through the use of sentences like:

➢ *Everyone assumes that Islamic terrorists are to blame for …….*
➢ *This might seem strange but what is more significant is the deliberate ignorance*

*by the Israeli government of the reason for the arrests.*

➢ *Everyone is assuming that the dangers we face is from Islamic terrorists*

Table 2 and figure 2 below summarize the categories of different sorts of repetition and synonymy in statistical form:

Table 2

The statistical information for the cases of repetition and synonymy in Syrian texts

Pattern	1	2	3	4	5	Total
frequency	22	3	4	9	4	42
percentage	52.38	7.14	9.52	21.42	9.52	100

Figure 2

The frequency of repetition and synonymy for the Syrian data
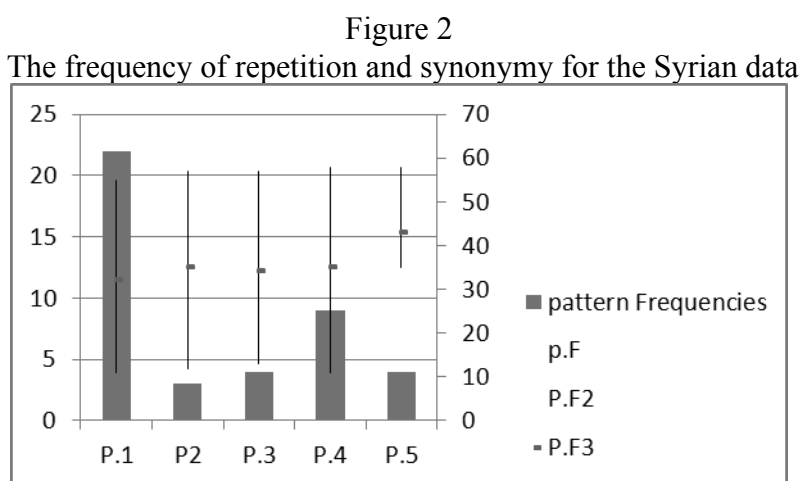
Comparing the results given in table 1 and table 2 reveals that the number of cases for the use of repetition and synonymy in the Syrian text is fewer than that of the American text. However, the exact word repetition of 52.3% for the Syrian text is much higher than the American context amounting to only 6.41%. Also, with the American context, 30.69 % of exaggerative reference to events and numbers was detected, while no exaggeration was found with the Syrian text.

Thematization

Speakers and writers in any language construct their messages in a way that makes them fit smoothly into the new events (Thompson, 1996). In addition to giving new information to the listeners or readers, they occasionally try to signal to readers how their present point is related to the previous ones. To do so, they use *thematization* strategies; they sequence

their theme-rheme relationship in a way that the flow of information would logically be plausible and based on the interlocutors' shared negotiated meanings. The data analysis for the present study revealed the use of *passivation, nominalization* and *predicated theme* as the tools utilized by the writers of the media discourse to sequence theme-rheme related information.

Passivisation

Bias in the media discourse is reflected in syntactic structures of sentences such as the use of active or passive constructions, which allow the written media producers to foreground or background the agents, with the purpose of establishing agent or affected relationships in the readers' mind. Indeed, the passive participants do not act upon others. Media producers use this feature in assigning a less important role to the real instigators

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of an event. By the application of passive construction, the writer gives the actors in an event a less attention grabbing role, and in doing this, they background the role of the actors in an event.

According to Thompson (1997, p.130), "passivisation" is a thematizing device that moves a constituent into theme position. Sometimes, the agent or the doer of the action is explicitly mentioned after the preposition *by*. As Thompson (1997) endorsed, "it enables the writer to maintain the starting point" (p. 131). The use of active/passive structures is a tool for highlighting the agent or the goal/recipient(s) of an action in the readers' mind. This is done in implicit ways without the reader's conscious awareness of it since the reader naturally treats the information in the theme position as the new or more important information while the use of passive structure backgrounds or de-thematizes the real instigator of an action.

As shown in figure 3 and figure 4 below, the analysis of the two sets of data for the study revealed 19 active sentences and 13 passive sentences for the American text. Also, 13 active and 6 passive struc-tures were identified in the Syrian text.

Figure (3)
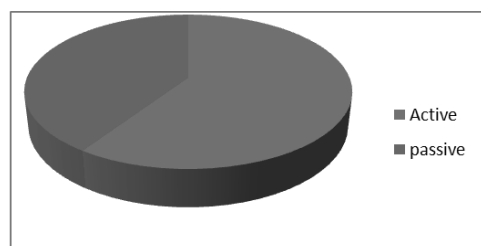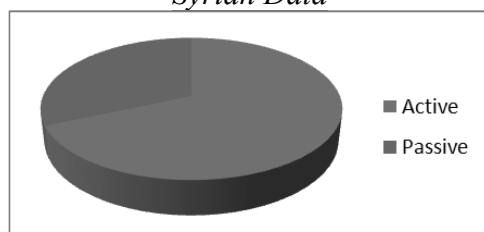*Percentage of the use of Active/passive in American Data*

Figure (4).
Percentage of the use of Active/passive in Syrian Data

The following examples indicate how the two sides in the argument utilized active sentences to focus attention on the agents or doers of actions and the goals or the recipients of the action of the verb:

➢ *Hijackers rammed jetliners into each of New York's World Trade Center*
➢ *a third jetliner crashed into the Pentagon in Virginia*
➢ *American Airlines Flight 11crashed into the north tower*
➢ *United Airlines Flight 175 plowed into the south tower*
➢ *American Airlines Boeing 757 Flight 77 hit the western part of the Pentagon*
➢ *United Airlines Flight 93 crashed near Pittsburgh*
➢ *The collapse of the towers caused another World Trade Center building to fall*

In the sentences above from the American text, the writer has deliberately included the agents by direct reference as in the first sentence or has used exhophoric reference to refer to the instigators of the event, the blame of which was put on the Islamic extremist group Al-Qaeda. The departure of *jetliner* and the *flights* or the *collapse* of the towers in the last example could not happen by themselves. An agent was needed to instigate it, which through exophoric reference was any of the members of the Islamic Al-Qaeda militia group. Contrarily, the texts from the Syrian context used the following active sentences to put the blame of the event on USA and Israel:

➢ *An Israeli government spokesman reported the news of ....*
➢ *The Israelis did not even mention the reason*
➢ *the American Administration accuse others*
➢ *The Israeli government may find pretexts to get its subjects*
➢ *Israelis have been practicing the ugliest acts of terrorism against the defenseless Palestinian people*
➢ *Uncle Sam shouldn't have connived with the Israeli terrorist acts*
➢ *They, the Zionists, want to silence us*
➢ *Ariel Sharon who wants to divert attention away from his aggressive plot*

In the sentences above, from the Syrian context, the point of allegations has swung mostly towards Israel and, in some cases, to America by outright direct reference to the mentioned countries. Thematizing Israel and USA psychologically cajoles the reader to consider Israel and America as the agents of the terrible event.

Now we turn to the use of passivization techniques in both contexts to emphasize the event itself or those who are affected by the event rather than the agent. The text from the American context used the following cases of passivization serving as a thematizing technique in order to give greater prominence to the goals of actions or those affected by the event described in the verb:

➢ *The calamity was already being ranked the worst and most audacious terror attack in American history*
➢ *The attacks seemed carefully coordinated*
➢ *Several score more were known dead*
➢ *Numerous firefighters, police officers and other rescue workers were killed or injured*
➢ *Hundreds were treated for cuts, broken bones, burns, and smoke inhalation*
➢ *The real carnage was concealed for now by the twisted, smoking, ash-choked burns and smoke inhalation carcasses of the twin towers*
➢ *Several other buildings in the area were damaged*
➢ *Rescuers were stymied by other buildings*
➢ *Two Port Authority police officers had been pulled from the ruins*
➢ *The military was put on the highest state of alert,*
➢ *National Guard units were called out*
➢ *Two aircraft carriers were dispatched*
➢ *The White House, the Pentagon and the Capitol were evacuated*

In the examples above from the American context, it seems that the writer has used passivisation as a technique to show both the depth of the audacious tragic event, like the first to the 10th sentence above, and the ability of the government to deal with the issue very quickly like sentences 10 to 15.

The following sentences from the Syrian sample also indicate the attempt of the writers in the other side of the ideological spectrum to thematize certain elements to highlight them in the readers' minds:

➢ *A big quantity of the Anthrax germ was held with the Israelis when they were arrested*
➢ *New York Trade Center and eight charts of the Pentagon building which were attacked on September 11th*
➢ *The charts (which were) found with the Israelis*
➢ *The documents and the deadly germ (which were) found with them are sufficient to place them in the dock as terrorist Number One*
➢ *Fingers are immediately pointed at Arabs and Islam, as if those who accuse us were already mobilized to do so*

In the first, third, and fourth sentences above, the writer has deliberately used clues that put the Israeli detainees at guilt about similar September 11th related crimes in theme position. In the last example, the writer puts the word "fingers" in the initial position to serve as the theme delaying the appearance of the words "Arabs" and "Islam" to a later position. In the second example, *New York Trade Center* and *eight charts of the Pentagon building* have been thematized to sympathize with the people about the event, and at the same time, clearing the Moslems or the Arabs of the accusations.

Nominalization

In some structures, verbs and adjectives can be identified syntactically as nouns. This process of making nouns from verbs and adjectives is called *nominalization*. Thompson (1996) defined it as "the use of a nominal form to express a process meaning" (p. 167). By this definition, one of the striking features of nominalization is that it allows for the elision of both actor and goal of the process. In other words, nominalization is a strategy that the writer cuts off the process from here and now, and much of the information is intently omitted for producing a certain effect desired by discourse producers. The absence of verb makes no point of curiosity for the reader

about the actors. Nominalization serves as a tool for both thematization and "meaning-condensation" (Thompson, 1996, p. 171).

The tendency to use nominal groups rather than verbal processes has a number of major effects on text. It is a means whereby all references to people can be omitted. As such, nominalization is one of the crucial linguistic resources utilized in written media discourse. But, it can be exploited or abused, i.e. there is no obvious answer to the questions like "who is to blame?" A sort of suspense is created in the readers' mind as to the agent of the action.

Upon analyzing the American sample of the data for the present study, the following cases of nominalization were discerned:

➢ *their departures were spaced within an hour and 40 minutes*
➢ *The collapse of the towers caused another World Trade Center building to fall*
➢ *hope existed that*
➢ *before finally settling down in Washington at 7 p.m.*

The Syrian text being analyzed revealed the following cases of nominalization:

➢ *the news of arresting*
➢ *the deliberate ignorance*
➢ *the accusation of others*
➢ *This is not in defense of others*
➢ *logical analysis of realities*
➢ *experience has been different*
➢ *Mossad may have a hand in planning the destructive attacks*
➢ *[S]aid he did not rule out an Israeli role in the US bombings*
➢ *We as Arabs, Muslims, Christians, are not terrorists accusations against us*

Predicated Theme

According to Halliday, predicated themes group more than one element of the message into a single clause constituent which then can function as themes "(Halliday, 1996, p.128). They were traditionally called *cleft sentences*, which serve the function of focusing the readers' attention on the theme introduced by the structure by singling out an element. The American text yielded no cases of predicated

themes, while the Syrian data revealed the following use of predicated theme:

➢ *It is Zionism and Zionist organizations in the western world who are making false.*

To put the finishing notes to the discussion, we observed how the lexical and structural/thematic devices were used in the data for the study from both American and Syrian contexts to put the blame of the event on the other side in explicit and implicit ways. In doing so, it seemed that the Syrian writers used more explicit reference to the other side as the people at fault for the event. The American data, on the other hand, revealed more implicit indirect reference to the instigators of the event through means like exhophoric reference, nominalization and thematization. Both texts equally used textual devices available for media discourse writers to put across their deep intended meanings about the event.

CONCLUSION

Through a contrastive critical discourse analysis of two written media discourse pieces on the event of September 11th 2001, an attempt was made to illustrate how written media discourse producers in two ideologically different contexts deployed the lexical devices of repetition and synonymy to bring out the dramatic effect on the readers' mind about the depth and agents of the events. This was verified by actual examples from the data of the study. Later, the syntactic features of passivisation, nominalization and predicated themes were studied as thematization techniques to foreground some agents or actors involved in the event and background some others, as required by the ruling ideology of their social context of living. Although in the data from New York Times, the writer does not explicitly refer to the agents in the event, his attitudes can be easily understood through exophoric reference accompanied by the prevailing public opinion following the event which later served as a justification for the so called

"war on terrorism." Moreover, the attempt of the discourse producers in the two contexts to thematize or dethematize the clauses was explicated with examples. It was found that the Syrian context discourse producers used the mentioned techniques to highlight the role of US and Israeli government in the event of September 11th 2001. We illustrated how the choice of active structure can focus the attention of the reader on the actor, present a particular picture of an individual or group and emphasize the actions in which one side of the conflict does something to another. Such actions may clearly have political or ideological functions as indeed they had in the examples analyzed here. As a result, there are differences in these two printed media's treatment of the same event which could be called bias in media discourse.

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Appendix A

By SERGE SCHMEMANN
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1) Hijackers rammed jetliners into each of New York's World Trade Center, toppling both in a hellish storm of ash, glass, smoke and leaping victims, while a third jetliner crashed into the Pentagon in Virginia. There was no official count, but President Bush said thousands had perished, and in the immediate aftermath the calamity was already being ranked the worst and most audacious terror attack in American history.

2) The attacks seemed carefully coordinated. The hijacked planes were all en route to California, and therefore gorged with fuel, and their departures were spaced within an hour and 40 minutes. The first, American Airlines Flight 11, a Boeing out of Boston for Los Angeles, crashed into the north tower at 8:48 a.m .N 767..

3) Eighteen minutes later, United Airlines Flight 175, also headed from Boston to Los Angeles, plowed into the south tower. Then an American Airlines Boeing 757 Flight 77, left Washington's Dulles International Airport bound for Los Angeles but instead hit the western part of the Pentagon, the military headquarters where 24,000 people work, at 9:40 a.m. Finally, United Airlines Flight 93, a Boeing 757 flying from Newark to San Francisco, crashed near Pittsburgh, raising the possibility that its hijackers had failed in whatever their mission was. There were indications that the hijackers on at least two of the planes were armed with knives. Attorney General John Ashcroft told reporters in the evening that the suspects on Flight 11 were armed that way. And Barbara Olson, television commentator who was traveling on American Flight 77, managed to reach her husband, Solicitor General Theodore Olson, by cell phone and to tell him that the hijackers were armed with knives and a box cutter.

4) In all, 266 people perished in the four planes and several score more were known dead elsewhere. Numerous firefighters, police officers and other rescue workers who responded to the initial disaster in Lower Manhattan were killed or injured when the buildings collapsed. Hundreds were treated for cuts, broken bones, burns, and smoke inhalation. But the real carnage was concealed for now by the twisted, smoking, ash-choked burns and smoke inhalation carcasses of the twin towers, in which thousands of people used to work on a weekday. The collapse of the towers caused another World Trade Center building to fall 10 hours later, and several other buildings in the area were damaged or aflame.,

"5) I have a sense it's a horrendous number of lives lost," said Mayor Rudolph W Giuliani. "Right now we have to focus on saving as many lives as possible .The mayor warned that "the numbers are going to be very, very high. He added that the medical examiner's office will be ready "to deal with thousands and thousands of bodies if they have to, for hours after the attacks, rescuers were stymied by other buildings that threatened to topple. But by 11 p.m., rescuers had been able to begin serious efforts to locate and remove survivors. Mr. Giuliani said two Port Authority police officers had been pulled from the ruins, and he said hope existed that more people could be saved Earlier, police officer volunteers using dogs had found four bodies in the smoldering, stories-high pile of rubble where the towers had once stood and had taken them to a makeshift morgue in the lobby of an office building at Vesey and West Streets.

6) Within an hour of the attacks, the United States was on a war footing. The military was put on the highest state of alert, National Guard units were called out in Washington and New York and two aircraft carriers were dispatched to New secretive route and making only brief stopovers at Air Force bases in Louisiana and Nebraska before finally settling down in Washington at 7 p.m.

7) The White House, the Pentagon and the Capitol were evacuated, except for the Situation Room in the White House where Vice President Cheney remained in charge.

Appendix B

(1) An Israeli government spokesman reported a few days ago the news of arresting a number of Israelis by the US intelligence bodies in Florida. This might seem strange but what is more significant is the deliberate ignorance by the Israeli government of the reason for the arrests. The Israelis did not even mention the reason or the case for which their subjects were detained. The point is that a big quantity of the Anthrax germ was held with the Israelis when they were arrested. Moreover, the detainees had 15 charts of the New York Trade Center and eight charts of the Pentagon building which were attacked on September 11th. This is in addition to other six charts of the White House, which was among the would-be targets of the September 11th attacks. According to discreet US reports, the charts found with the Israelis had accurately drawn the Pentagon building and the World Trade Center and defined their geometric projections, as well as, precisely depicted the many floors. Further, some data included in the charts define the itineraries of civil passenger planes and their destinations!!! The question is: Why does the American Administration accuse others of the September 11th attacks even there is no evidence that proves the accusation of others? This is not in defense of others, but a logical analysis of realities. The Israeli government may find pretexts to get its subjects out of the circle of suspicion despite the fact that the documents and the deadly germ found with them are sufficient to place them in the dock as terrorist Number One, who have the ability to carry out attacks such as those of New York and Washington. It would be easy to accuse others since the Zionists have a tremendous influence in the US decision-making circles, but the Americans shouldn't have taken the easy way to launch war against a poor nation under the pretext of terrorism at a time when the Israelis have been practising the ugliest acts of terrorism against the defenseless Palestinian people. Uncle Sam shouldn't have connived with the Israeli terrorist acts, particularly that they have documents relevant to the attacks. We just ask Uncle Sam to face reality not to fight windmills in Afghanistan or elsewhere!"
- *Syria Times,* Syrian newspaper, November 14, 2001, by M. Agha

(2) Everyone is assuming that Islamic terrorists are to blame for the Boca Raton Anthrax incident. We believe that the terrorists are actually Zionists . . . The envelope sent to the Boca Raton news service with the "Star of David" charm appears to also come [from] Zionists. They, the Zionists, want to silence us because they do not like what we write. Everyone is assuming that the dangers we face is from Islamic terrorists, but our experience has been different. We fear Zionist terrorists more."
- *Syria Times online*, Syrian newspaper, October 16, 2001, reprinting an article under the headline, "Anthrax Terrorists May be Zionists," by Hector Carreon, head of the Nation of Aztlan, a fringe California-based Hispanic nationalist organization that has published several anti-Semitic articles in the past year in its online publication, La Voz de Aztlan.

(3) Ex-chief of the Egyptian Intelligence Service Amin Hweidi said the Israeli Mossad may have a hand in planning the destructive attacks in New York and Washington. . . Hweidi said he did not rule out an Israeli role in the US bombings whether by the Mossad or other Israeli intelligence services because Israel is the only beneficiary of all what has taken place."
- *Syrian Times online*, Syrian newspaper, September 27, 2001

(4) "Why not suspect Mossad of having sought to shake the United States and the world, upon directives from (Israeli Prime Minister) Ariel Sharon who wants to divert attention away from his aggressive plot, and link the attacks to the Arabs, the Muslims, and Osama bin Laden. If Osama bin Laden really had at his disposal such fantastic capabilities, sophisticated electronic talents and a meticulous organisation, as they (the Americans) claim, he would

have directed all that against Israel for the simple reason that it is closer."

- *Ath-Thawra*, Syrian government newspaper, September 19, 2001 (AFP, September 19, 2001)

(5)   It is Zionism and Zionist organisations in the western world who are making false Who committed the attacks? Terrorists. Then fingers are immediately pointed at Arabs and Islam, as if those who accuse us were already mobilized to do so. We as Arabs, Muslims, Christians, are not terrorists accusations against us."

- *Ath-Thawra*, Syrian government newspaper, September 13, 2001 (AFP, September 13, 2001)