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Table of Contents:

1. Tariq Elyas and Michelle Picard	4-5
<i>Foreword</i>	
2. John N. Cabansag	6-29
<i>Competencies Teachers in English of Northern Isabela and Selected Variables</i>	
3. Junko Horie	30-49
<i>The New English Program for Elementary School Students in Japan</i>	
4. Elmer Delima	50-69
<i>A Reticent Student in the Classroom: A Consequence of the Art of Questioning</i>	
5. Marjan Ghourchian	70-84
<i>Speech Acts in Drama Translation</i>	



Foreword

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TESOL Diversity and Depth

The presentations at the Asian EFL Journal International Conference 2011 once again illustrated the huge diversity of topics affecting the teaching of English. The variety of the conference and the field as a whole is reflected in this special conference edition of the Asian EFL Journal. The four papers span teacher competency, program evaluation, the effect of teacher questioning on student behaviour and insights from the field of translation providing useful inputs to all TESOL academics and teachers. They also make use of a variety of methods including quantitative statistical analysis, thematic qualitative analysis and translation techniques. In the first paper, “Competencies of teachers in English in Northern Isabela and Selected Variables” by John N. Cabansag the relationship of teaching competencies with other variables (educational qualifications, demographic variables and problems of secondary school teachers) is explored in the context of Northern Isabela in the Philippines. The author utilizes the descriptive – correlation method of research in his study. The results demonstrate that despite expectations to the contrary, demographic variables such as age and gender, civil status and number of children have no relation to English teacher competencies. Likewise, qualifications and years of service do not affect competency in the classroom and although teachers may experience difficulties due to a lack of resources and institutional/government support, this does not affect the quality of their teaching. Instead, the author suggests that individual factors related to the personality and resilience of the teacher affect their competency and suggest that in-service training and collegial support should be provided for English teachers to optimize their effectiveness as teachers; and team teaching shall be encouraged and instituted involving all English educators to share experiences in the teaching of the subject.

“The case of The New English Program for Elementary School Students in Japan” by Junko Horie investigates the new implemented educational policy in Japan to include English courses for students from Grade 5. He utilized semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders and questionnaires to find out the limitations of such policy within the Japanese context. The author concludes that central coordination, more effective training and provision of resources along with better lesson planning are key elements for the success of the new English policy in Japan.

Elmer Delima’s paper, “A Reticent Student in the Classroom: A Consequence of the Art of Questioning”, addresses the importance of teacher’s behaviours, particularly

when formulating questions and their effect on students' behaviour. Delima debunks assumptions on the reticence of Asian students and instead highlights family factors such as the presence of the mother and the treatment of the child within the family as reasons for reticence and provides advice to teachers to encourage participation from reticent students. The final paper, "Speech Acts in Drama Translation", Marjan Ghourchian analyses a sample of five English plays and five Persian plays and their translations and evaluates the language forms used in the various documents. Although the plays in both languages use direct forms predominantly, indirect forms cause the most problems in translation. Ghourchian describes the predominant forms in each of the plays and provides translators (and English teachers) with advice on how to handle these various language features.

The detailed data and in-depth analysis in these papers have the potential to inform language policy, curriculum design and pedagogy. We hope that Asian EFL Journal Readers will enjoy this issue.

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Competencies of Teachers in English of Northern Isabela and Selected Variables

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Biodata

John N. Cabansag is a graduate of AB English (Cum Laude), and holds an LLB, MA in English and Ph.D. in Institutional Development and Management. He has taught English courses for sixteen years. He is the former Chairperson, Languages Department and Director for Academics and at present is the University Director, Office of Student Services, Isabela State University, Echague, Isabela, Philippines.

Abstract

The study determined the relationship of teaching competencies among educational qualifications, demographic variables and problems of secondary school teachers of English in Northern Isabela. It utilized the descriptive – correlational method of research. The subjects comprised 34 English teachers, 13 immediate supervisors (principals, head teachers and Chairmen of English Program) and 506 secondary school students.

The analysis of the data generated the following results: (1) English teacher-respondents' instructional competencies have no relation with their socio demographic characteristics such as age, gender, civil status and number of children; (2) the degree earned, specialization, years of teaching experience in English, training, conferences and seminar-workshops, and in-service training attended by the English teacher-respondents have no association to their instructional competencies; (3) the problems the respondents encountered in teaching English are not associated to their instructional competencies.

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made with the end of strengthening the approaches which enhance the teachers' instructional competencies: (1) A periodic teachers' demonstration should be encouraged as part of the evaluation to maintain teaching effectiveness; (2) English teachers should be actively involved in the planning, organizing and implementing the teachers' instructional competency program; (3) career development program should be instituted for English teachers to optimize their effectiveness as teachers; and (4) team teaching should be encouraged and instituted involving all English educators to share experiences in the teaching of the subject.

Key words: Qualifications, Instructional Competencies, Personal and Social Competencies and Resource

Introduction

The success of the teaching of English in schools at all levels depends on a number of factors. One of these is the English teacher himself/herself. It was widely contended in the past that anybody who could read and write and process the rudiments of teaching skills, could teach English (Gray, 1997). This contention is based on the assumption that English is easy to teach and to learn which is far from the truth.

It is contended in this study that English teachers' instructional competencies have a relationship with their pre-service and in-service training and the resources available to them. Instructional competencies, however, may interact with the teachers' socio-demographic characteristics such as age, sex, civil status, number of children, number of subjects taught, number of years teaching English, and problems encountered in the teaching-learning process. The familiar adage that says 'experience is the best teacher' suggests that teachers who have been in the profession for a long time have acquired the teaching skills that competent teachers possess. However, the teaching-learning atmosphere the teachers bring to class depends on their personal qualities molded by their socio-demographic characteristics and the problems they have experienced.

Literature Review

The characteristics described above have become important in the Philippines where quality of English Instruction is increasingly emphasized. The former Philippines DECS Sec. Armand V. Fabella (1995) recommended operational targets at a tertiary level for improved quality education focusing on teacher training institutions, a revised pre-service curriculum, upgrading faculty, enhancing quality of student input and reviewing of teachers' examination results concerning entry and specialization examinations.

Of these factors described above, the teacher is the single most important factor in

education, (EDCOM 1991). His/her far-reaching influence as an agent of constructive change in society is beyond question. To raise the status and self-esteem of teachers, EDCOM recommended the following: (1) professionalize teachers and teaching, (2) create well-defined career paths for promotion and career planning for teachers and administrators, (3) strengthen pre-service education, (4) improve and expand in-service training programs for both public and private school teachers, (5) improve teachers' welfare and benefits, and, (6) encourage teacher organizations. Teacher training institutions were designated as the guardians of teachers' welfare and conditions of employment, and as a means to encourage professional growth.

The clamor for relevant education is popular as ever according to Romero (1995). He states that relevant education aims to make the learners cope with newer context and newer realities that beset a fluid society. The situation inevitably calls upon the educators to fulfill a critical role to respond, and to a certain extent, predict the demands of the changing and complex global community.

Romero emphasizes that educators and curriculum planners bear a great responsibility in helping generate a critical mass of citizens capable of recognizing the global age and its impact on their future lives, together with an understanding of their role as citizens in a complex and independent world.

The emphasis on relevant teacher training in the Philippines is mirrored in the international literature. For example, Navid (1993) in her study on the status of the teaching of English as a second language in secondary schools in Pakistan finds that poor teacher preparation and training are the most serious issues affecting the quality of English teaching in that country. This is primarily due to the fact that the training for English teachers consists of only a two year Bachelor of Arts in Education with only one subject of English in each year. Navid's respondents perceive this training as too limited to make into effective teachers on this field. Her respondents also report a lack of audio visual aids, facilities and even equipment as basic as sufficient chairs and blackboards. Lyu (2006), on the other end of the technological scale, recommends the use of simulation as an efficient and effective technique which can maximize the opportunities of creating real communication in English as a foreign language and

suggests that teacher training needs to take consideration of this type of technology.

Other literature has focused more on training teachers to develop effective task types and teaching strategies. For example, Bunagan (1997) identifies that practice in the language through developmental listening and speaking exercises, giving task incentives and providing a variety of exercises in conversational English could remedy the problems in oral communication among students. She recommends that a remedial communicative competence program should be instituted to develop the standard level of proficiency in oral communication in her context.

The role of the English teacher in enhancing attitudes towards language learning is also important in the literature. For example, Pubio (cited in Calagan, 2001) finds that there is a need for teachers to strictly observe and implement communication arts program activities and suggested that further study be conducted on ways and means to improve attitudes of students in learning English subjects.

Thinking skills and the need to train teachers in how to develop these are another important issue in the literature. For example, Phillipson (2005) investigates the use of English as a medium of instruction and finds that the close relationship between writing skills and thinking outcomes suggested that strategies need to be implemented as it will provide baseline data on the competencies of English teachers that can be used as a basis for effective classroom instruction.

Despite the extensive literature on various important elements in teacher training and the increased emphasis on this in the Philippines context, to date, no study to date has explored the relationship between teachers' competencies and various personal and training factors. This is particularly important in the Philippines context to ensure that the training initiatives achieve their goal.

The Present Study

In response to the research gap identified in the literature, the present research investigated the relationship between competencies and selected variables that describe the teachers in English of Northern Isabela. Specifically, the study sought to

answer the following questions:

1. What are the socio-demographic characteristics and educational qualifications of teachers teaching English in the secondary schools?
2. What are the instructional competency levels of the teachers teaching English?
3. What are the problems encountered by the teachers in teaching English?
4. Is there a significant relationship between teachers' instructional competencies and their (a) demographic characteristics, (b) educational qualifications, and (c) problems encountered in teaching English?

Methodology

Participants

There were 34 English teacher-respondents, 13 school principals, and 506 students randomly selected among 10,148 students in English courses from the 13 secondary schools in Northern Isabela. Among these schools, six (6) were private, seven (7) were government schools and one (1) was a laboratory school in a state university.

Instruments

Three (3) sets of questionnaires were utilized which were tailored according to the respondents as follows: (1) for the English teachers; (2) for the immediate supervisor; and, (3) for the students in English class. These questionnaires contained descriptions of instructional competencies: (a) instructional skills; (b) guidance skills; (c) classroom management skills; (d) evaluation skills; and, (e) personal and social competencies which were rated in Likert style corresponding to the degree of their perceived instructional competencies. The questionnaire for English-teacher respondents had an additional part that included the identification of problems encountered in teaching the course; the problems were rated in terms of the degree of seriousness.

Procedure

Unscheduled school visits were undertaken based on the travel plan of the researcher with the school administrators concerned. The questionnaires were provided directly

to the superiors of the English teachers, the respondents themselves and students in English classes through their respective advisers.

Data Analysis

Frequency counts, percentages, and weighted mean were used to describe the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics, educational qualifications, and problems in teaching English. The Chi-square was used to determine the relationship of teachers' instructional competencies in teaching English and (a) demographic characteristics, (b) educational qualifications, and (c) problems encountered in teaching English.

Results

The respondents' socio-demographic characteristics and educational qualifications are shown in Table 1. The respondents are mostly females (73.52%), age range of 31 to 40 years old (35.30%), married (82.35%), have earned bachelor's degree (76.47%), many of the English teachers are non-English Majors (55.80%), with teaching experience from six (6) to ten (10) years, and mostly have attended trainings (61.80%).

Table 1: Respondents' Socio – Demographic Characteristics and Educational Qualifications

PROFILE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
Sex		
Female	25	73.52
Male	9	26.48
Age		
61 and above	2	5.88
51 – 60 years	4	11.76
41 – 50 years	11	32.36
31 – 40 years	12	35.30
21 – 30 years	5	14.70
Civil Status		
Married	28	82.35

Single	5	14.71
Widow	1	2.94

Degree Earned

B.S. Degree	26	76.47
Master's Degree	7	20.59
Ph.D. Degree Candidate	1	2.94

English Major	11	32.40
English Minor	4	11.80
Non-English 19		Major 55.80

Years of Teaching Experience

5 years and below	10	29.40
6 – 10 years	12	35.28
11 – 15 years	-	-
16 – 20 years	6	17.68
21 – 25 years	3	8.82
26 – 30 years	2	5.88
31 years and above	1	2.94

Trainings Attended

With Training	21	61.80
Without Training	13	38.20

The distribution of the English teachers' evaluation of their instructional competency as shown in Table 2 reveal that they are "very competent" in instructional (67.65%) and evaluation skills (50%) as well as in personal and social competency (61.76%), whereas, the teachers assessed themselves as "competent" enough in guidance skills (64.71%). However, they are divided in their assessment between "very competent" and "competent" of their classroom management skills.

Table 2: Instructional Competence of High School English Teachers

Instructional Competency	Very Competent		Competent		Incompetent	
	3.51-4.0		2.51-3.50		1.51-2.50	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
A. Instructional Skills	23	67.65	11	32.35	-	-
B. Guidance Skills	11	32.35	22	64.71	1	2.94
C. Classroom Management Skills	16	47.1	16	47.1	2	5.8
D. Evaluation Skills	17	50	14	41.18	3	8.82
E. Personal and Social Competency	21	61.76	13	38.24	-	-

Along with the esteemed level of competence the teachers claim, they also recognize the presence of problems in their teaching of the English subject. Table 3 shows that the most serious problem the teachers encountered is the lack of textbooks (23.52%). However, among half of the teacher respondents considered the inadequacy of training as somewhat serious and the other 50% claimed that the problem is not serious.

Table 3: Degree of Problems Encountered by Teachers in Teaching English

Problems	Degree of Problem		
	Serious (%)	Somewhat Serious (%)	Not Serious (%)
1. Lack of textbooks	23.52	32.35	44.12
2. Inadequate knowledge, skills and orientation as English teacher	5.88	26.47	67.65
3. Lack of assistance from the English teacher coordinator in the district	8.80	32.40	58.80
4. Inadequate knowledge of asking critical questions	-	23.53	58.80
5. Inability to use innovative strategies in	2.94	26.47	70.59

teaching			
6. Students lack initial background in the subject matter	11.76	38.24	50.00
7. Inability to sustain interest of the students	-	32.35	67.65
8. Inadequate training	-	50.00	50.00

The result of chi-square test revealed that there is no relationship between teachers' instructional competencies and their socio-demographic characteristics and educational qualifications (Table 4) and their problems (Table 5).

Table 4. Chi-Square Test of Independence on the Teachers' Instructional Competencies and Their Socio- Demographic Characteristics and Educational Qualifications

Selected Variables	Chi- square Computed	Tabular Value (Critical Value 0.05)
Socio-Demographic:		
Age	0.3323NS	3.84
Gender	0.28079NS	3.84
Civil Status	0.3323NS	3.84
Number of Children	0.1417NS	3.84
Educational Qualifications:		
Degree Earned	1.826NS	3.84
Specialization	0.1181NS	3.84
Number of Years Teaching English	0.0112NS	3.84
Number of Teaching Load	0.0945NS	3.84
In- service Training	0NS	3.84

Table 5: Chi-Square Test of Independence between English Teachers' Instructional Competencies and Problems

PROBLEMS	Instructional Competencies		TOTAL
	BELOW MEAN	ABOVE MEAN	
❖ Above 1.72	(9.5) 9	(9.5) 9	18
❖ Below 1.72	(7.5) 8	(7.5) 8	16
TOTAL	17	16	34

Critical Value at 0 .05: 3.84

Chi-square computed value: 0

Not significant at all levels

Discussion

A greater percentage of the English teacher-respondents are at the middle age groups who are new in the profession with teaching experience of five to ten years. On account of their specialization, more than half of the English teacher-respondents were non-English majors. While a majority of them attended training and seminar-workshops on Basic Education Curriculum Enhancement Program in English, they felt the need for more chances to attend other training and seminars. Notwithstanding educational qualifications, the respondents were assessed as either competent or very competent in Instructional Skills, Guidance Skills, Classroom Management Skills, Evaluation Skills and Social Competencies by their supervisors, their students and by themselves. The assessment of their competency level, however, is apart from their pressing problems in teaching such as a lack of textbooks, students' inadequate knowledge, skills and orientation as an English teacher, lack of assistance from the district English Coordinator, inadequate knowledge of how to ask critical questions, and an inability to use innovations or strategies in teaching. This suggests that assessment of competency is based on personal standards that enable teachers to

recognize problems and deal with these problems as called for by their capacity as teachers. However, the Chi-square test revealed that there is no significant relationship between the teachers' competencies and the selected variables. The results of this study collaborates previous research such as the study of Guillermo (1982), who concluded that teachers performance is not affected by age; a teacher, regardless of age can teach effectively as long as she is equipped with the proper preparation. Similarly, Camurungan (1987) in her study "competencies of the elementary and secondary schools administrators in public and private schools in Metro Manila" found out that age is not significantly related in competency. She noted that although administrators who get older become more mature in their judgment, there are younger ones who could give better decisions than the older ones.

Gender likewise showed no significant relationship with instructional competencies. This finding also supports Guillermo (1982) who found that teacher effectiveness is not affected by either sex or grade placement of teachers.

The degree earned by the respondents has no relation with their instructional competencies. This supports Ravelo (1982) who found that the preparation of prospective teachers during college years and under academic conditions is necessarily limited in scope and theoretical in nature. He further averred that the practical experiences gained in working with youngsters during student teaching are scarcely adequate for the responsibilities that lie ahead, and seldom are they presented with down-to-earth problems for which immediate solutions are demanded.

The English teachers were found to be "competent" in teaching English regardless of their field of specialization. Delfin (1991) explained that "teacher competence" is a characteristic of the teacher independent of the situation in which the teacher is practicing. Competence is what the teacher brings to the situation and what the teacher takes along when she leaves. The effect of the teaching task, and on how effective it is, manifests the students' competence.

The respondents' instructional competencies were not associated with the number of years in teaching English. This is interesting since it contradicts some of the literature. For example, De Pano and Tria (1992-1993) explained that experience

is conventionally regarded as an asset, presumably positively related to teaching success. Utakrit (1988) asserted that working experience or length of service influence the performance of an employee but, Fuller and De Pano (1992), noted that there are three stages of concern in the working experience of teachers. Beginning teachers are highly concerned with how others see the performance of their role as teachers. However, as experience is gained, teacher's self-concern decreases as task-concern increases. This is supported by Pobocan (1995) who found that length of teaching experience is a significant factor in favor of those with the most years of teaching and performance rating is a significant factor in favor of those with outstanding ratings.

The size of teaching load of the English teachers had no relationship to their teaching competency. This supports the studies of Neil and Joyce (1978) that saw the development of professional competence in teaching as an increased ability to play various assigned roles more effectively. This point of view suggests that a large part of this competence consists of mastering a repertoire of approaches to teaching that can be used to carry out these roles.

In-service training of the respondents did not significantly affect the respondents' instructional competencies in this research. Competence may be attained through professional training and experience. However, it is recognized that the competence of a person is influenced by other related factors, among them are intelligence, mental abilities, aptitude and interests. The term refers to any particular knowledge, skills or attitudes or any set or combination specified. The knowledge specified may involve subject-matter knowledge, general knowledge, and knowledge of literature, linguistics or one of the other disciplines. Skills specified may also relate to content, writing, and speaking skills. Attitude specified may pertain to the self, to students, to colleagues, and to the profession. For example, Ballena (1992) explained that seminar-workshops had no significant effect on the knowledge competencies among those teachers who belonged under the 20-30 years of age category, but had a significant effect on the knowledge competencies of those teachers whose age ranged between 31 and 40 years old. She added that there was no significant effect on knowledge competencies of teachers whose teaching experience is 1-15 years and

above. Therefore, the lack of a significant correlation in this study may be due to the personal factors mentioned.

The English teacher-respondents revealed that the problems they encountered them had an insignificant bearing on their teaching performance. It is concluded that the classroom problems e.g. lack of textbooks, lack of assistance from English Coordinator in the District and the like did not bother the respondents much as they seemed to be resourceful as indicated by their work attitude, interest, commitment and dedication to service; coupled with the quality of pre-service trainings with broad general education and experiences that made them effective teachers.

Conclusions

The findings can be summarized as follows:

1. The socio-demographic profile (age, gender, civil status, and number of children) of the English teacher-respondents had no relation to their instructional competencies.
2. The degree earned, specialization, years of teaching experience (English), trainings and seminars attended by the English teacher-respondents had no association with their instructional competencies.
3. The in-service training had no bearing to the instructional competencies of English teacher-respondents.
4. The problems that were encountered in teaching English by the subjects were not associated to their instructional competencies.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are envisioned to enhance the teachers' instructional competencies:

1. A periodic teachers' demonstration shall be encouraged as part of the evaluation to maintain teaching effectiveness;
2. English teachers should be actively involved in the planning, organizing and

- implementing the teachers' instructional competency program;
3. Career development program should be instituted for English teachers to optimize their effectiveness as teachers; and
 4. Team teaching should be encouraged and instituted involving all English educators to share experiences in the teaching of the subject.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Questionnaire on the Competencies of Teachers in English of Northern Isabela and Selected Variables

(For English Teachers)

INSTRUCTIONS: Please supply the information asked for each item. Place a check (✓) mark which indicates your correct or favorable response in the case of checklist items. All your answer will be kept confidential.

SOCIO- DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Sex: _____ Male _____ Female

Age: _____ 21- 30 years old

_____ 31- 40 years old

_____ 41- 50 years old

_____ 51- 60 years old

_____ 61 and above

Civil Status:

_____ Single _____ Widow

_____ Married _____ Widower

If married, how many children do you have?

_____ One _____ Five

_____ Two _____ Others, specify

_____ Three

_____ Four

School presently teaching. _____

I. QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Degree earned:

a. Bachelor of Science in Secondary Education

_____ Major in English

_____ Minor in English

Others, please specify _____

a.1 If English major, specify the number of units earned in English.

_____ Units

b. M.A./ M.A.T./ M.S.

b.1 Others. (Please specify)

_____.

2. Training/ seminar- workshops attended.

TITLE	SPONSORING AGENCY	CATEGORY LOCAL/ NATIONAL/ INTERNATIONAL

3. Number of years in teaching. _____ Years

4. Number of years in teaching English subjects.
_____ Years

5. Year level taught.

_____ 1st year _____ 4th year
 _____ 2nd year _____ All level
 _____ 3rd year

6. Are you teaching other subjects?

_____ No _____ Yes

If yes, what are they? _____

7. How many subjects are you handling?

_____ One _____ Four
 _____ Two _____ Five
 _____ Three _____ Others, specify

(For ET Chairman/ Head Teacher/ Principal/ Supervisor)

INSTRUCTIONS: Please supply the information asked for each item. Place a check (✓) mark which indicates your correct or favorable response in the case of checklist items. All your answers will be kept confidential.

Name _____ of _____ Respondent (Optional): _____

Sex: _____ Male _____ Female

Civil Status: _____ Single _____ Married _____ Widow/er

Highest _____ Educational _____ Attainment:

Position/ Designation: _____

Years _____ of _____ Teaching _____ Experience: _____

Years _____ in _____ Supervisory _____ Work: _____

Name _____ of _____ English _____ Teacher _____ (Evaluated _____)

II. INSTRUCTIONAL COMPETENCIES OF RESPONDENTS
(Check one under appropriate column)

- LEGEND: 4 - Very Competent (VC)
 3 - Competent (C)
 2 - Incompetent (INC)
 1 - Needs Improvement (NI)

CRITERIA	(VC)	(C)	(INC)	(NI)
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A. INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS

1. Demonstrates mastery of the lesson. _____
2. Develops the lesson logically. _____
3. Ability to relate previous lessons to present. _____
4. Provides opportunities for free expression of ideas _____
5. Identifies specific needs, interests, and capacities of each students _____
6. Ability to ask relevant questions of various levels _____
7. Communicates in a manner _____

understood by the students. _____

8. Observes correct grammar both in speaking and in writing. _____
9. Uses motivational techniques that elicit students' interests. _____
10. Ability to asks questions skillfully to develop critical thinking and creativity. _____
11. Integrates desirable values in the lesson. _____
12. Evolves and tries out strategies that meet peculiar needs and problem of students. _____
13. Provides varied learning experiences for student development, interpretation and work skills. _____

B. GUIDANCE SKILLS

1. Shows interests in student's problems, and needs, and makes provisions for these. _____
2. Gives a variety of activities adapted to the needs and interests of students. _____
3. Stimulates and compliments the students to elicit their positive participation. _____
4. Maximizes the involvement of the students in the

learning process. _____

5. Utilizes the learning process effectively to develop self- discipline in students. _____
6. Keeps records of observations about each student. _____

C. MANAGEMENT SKILLS

1. Provides opportunities for student participation in decision making. _____
2. Utilizes instructional time Productively. _____
3. Provides learning activities for maximum student involvement and development. _____
4. Maximizes the use of available resources for developing various skills. _____
5. Accepts suggestions from students in structuring the classroom. _____
6. Directs and controls students' activities to attain objectives of the lesson. _____

D. EVALUATING SKILLS

1. Makes a continuing assessment of individual students' performance. _____
2. Selects, develops and uses varied evaluative devices

to assess individual students' progress. _____

3. Administer tests effectively, takes time to correct student's works, and returns these promptly. _____

4. Assists individual students in recording, analyzing and interpreting test results and other evaluative measures. _____

5. Uses results of tests and other evaluative measures as bases for improving instruction. _____

E. PERSONAL AND SOCIAL COMPETENCIES

1. Observes the provisions of the Revised Service Manual, the Teachers Code of Ethics, and other pertinent schools rules and regulations. _____

2. Exemplifies honesty and integrity. _____

Exemplifies a high sense of cordial relationship with:

3. Peers _____

4. School administrators _____

5. Supervisor/ principal _____

6. Parents _____

7. Community people _____

8. Local Officials _____

9. Civic organizations _____

PART II. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED. What instructional problems do you encounter as a English Teacher? (Check one to indicate the degree of seriousness of the problem.

LEGEND: 3 - Serious (S)
 2 - Somewhat Serious (SS)
 1 - Not Serious (NS)

PROBLEMS	(S)	(SS)	(NS)
	3	2	1
1. Lack of Textbooks.	_____	_____	_____
2. Inadequate knowledge, skills, and orientation as English teacher.	_____	_____	_____
3. Lack of assistance from English Coordinator in the District.	_____	_____	_____
4. Inadequate knowledge in asking critical questions.	_____	_____	_____
5. Inability to use innovations/ strategies in teaching.	_____	_____	_____
6. Students lack initial background in the subject matter.	_____	_____	_____
7. Inability to sustain interest of the students.	_____	_____	_____
8. Inadequate trainings utilizes to the maximum of interaction between teacher- students, students- teacher, and instructional materials.	_____	_____	_____
9. Others. (Please specify)	_____		

Appendix B. Questionnaire on the Competencies of Teachers in English of Northern Isabela and Selected Variables

(For Students In English Classes)

Name _____ of _____ English _____ Teacher:

Subject: _____ Year/ Section: _____

School: _____

TO THE STUDENT:

Please answer the following questions honestly. Your responses will give your teacher some information on how you feel about the subject, the English teacher and the procedures used.

- LEGEND:** 4 - Very Competent (VC)
 3 - Competent (C)
 2 - Incompetent (INC)
 1 - Needs Improvement (NI)

Please a check (√) mark which indicates your correct or favorable response in the case of checklist items. All your answer will be kept confidential.

CRITERIA	(VC) 4	(C) 3	(INC) 2	(NI) 1
A. What is your opinion concerning your English Teacher				
1. Ability to explain the lesson?	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Ability to make classroom interesting?	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Ability to plan and organize work	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Knowledge and understanding of subject-matter?	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Understanding of students?	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Ability to discipline class?	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Ability to relate class- work to actual situation?	_____	_____	_____	_____

8. Ability to express himself/herself? _____
9. Ability to motivate students? _____
10. Ability to use teaching aids? _____
11. Ability to answer students' questions? _____
12. Ability to construct and administer tests? _____
13. Skills in asking questions? _____
14. Sense of fairness in grading? _____
15. Enthusiasm in teaching? _____
16. Sense of humor? _____
17. Ability to use a variety of methods? _____
18. Tact in dealing with answers of students? _____
19. Show interests in students' problems and needs, and provide solutions for these? _____
20. Ability to involve students in the learning process? _____
21. Utilize instructional time productively? _____

Others, (Please specify)

B. Does the teacher do something that you do not like? If so, what is it? What are they?

C. Name one or two things that you especially like about your English teacher.



The New English Program for Elementary School Students in Japan

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Biodata

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Abstract

From April of 2011 the Ministry of Education (Monbu-kagaku-sho) in Japan required all students from grade 5 (age 11-12) to take English. However, students take only 26 hours of English class per year, and while the program includes speaking and listening skills, they are not required to study writing or reading. To investigate the effects of this new curriculum, this study interviewed 30 teachers working at elementary schools, five native language teachers, one Japanese language assistant, four university professors, two translators, and three directors of Japanese cram schools. In addition a questionnaire about the program was given to 915 elementary school students. The research finds several limitations in this new policy.

Keywords: Japanese elementary education, English teaching Japan, New English program Japan

Introduction

The new English Program for elementary school students

In April 2011 the Monbu-Kagaku-sho (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology (MEXT)) made it compulsory for all students from grade 5 and 6 (age 10-12) to take English classes. In these two years the students learn about 250 words and 50 expressions according to MEXT examples, during 35 lessons (one lesson is 45 minutes) each year (about once a week). They learn these items via listening and speaking only, with no requirement to study grammar and vocabulary for

writing and reading (the alphabet is only used as a supplementary lesson). MEXT sets the objectives (see below with examples from MEXT website) after consulting with six Japanese professors, one Japanese teacher, two Japanese of the board of education and one foreign teacher in Japan. The aim is:

To form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing the understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences, fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages.

[Examples of Communication Situations]

- (a) Situations where fixed expressions are often used
 - Greeting ▪ Self-introduction ▪ Shopping
 - Having meals ▪ Asking and giving directions etc.
- (b) Situations are likely to occur in pupils' lives
 - Home life ▪ Learning and activities at school
 - Local events ▪ Childhood play etc.

[Examples of Functions of Communication]

- (a) Improving the relationship with a communication partner
- (b) Expressing emotions
- (c) Communicating facts
- (d) Expressing opinions and intentions

- (e) Stimulating a communication partner

For 11 year olds:

Lesson	Example of expression	The content of this lesson
1	Hello.	Greetings
2	I'm happy.	Gesture
3	How many?	Number from 1 to 20
4	I like apples.	Introduce their self.
5	I don't like blue.	Shopping
6	What do you want?	Pronunciation
7	What's this?	Expression of what's this
8	I study Japanese.	Subject, days
9	What would you like?	Polite way

For 12 year olds:

Lesson	Example of expression	The content of this lesson
1	That's right.	Alphabet
2	Aa Bb Cc	Capital and small letter

3	When is your birthday?	Ask and answer day and month
4	I can swim.	How to use CAN
5	Turn right.	Guide
6	I want to go to Italy.	Talk about a countries they want to go
7	What time do you get up?	Their time schedule
8	Please, help me.	Make and play Original drama
9	I want to be a teacher	Talk about their dream

(MEXT, 2011)

There is an instruction document that explains the points of lessons for teachers and a CD of the listening lesson to assist pronunciation.

Education system in Japan

Japanese compulsory education is from age 6 to 15, including elementary school from age 6 to 12 and junior high school from age 13 to 15. After graduating junior high school, they take an entrance examination and go to high school (age 16 to 18), and according to MEXT's data (2008) 97.8% continue to high school. University is from age 19 to 22 and 55.3% of high school students continue to university (or 77.7% when including community college and vocational school). More than 2.8 million students were enrolled in 726 universities in Japan every year.

Prior to this new program English education started at junior high school and at junior high school the emphasis is on reading and writing, because the main purpose of studying English is to pass an entrance examination into high school. At the vast majority of high schools the English entrance examination university has only reading, writing: although in some cases a short listening test may be included.

The yearly structure of Japanese Education is summarized as below.

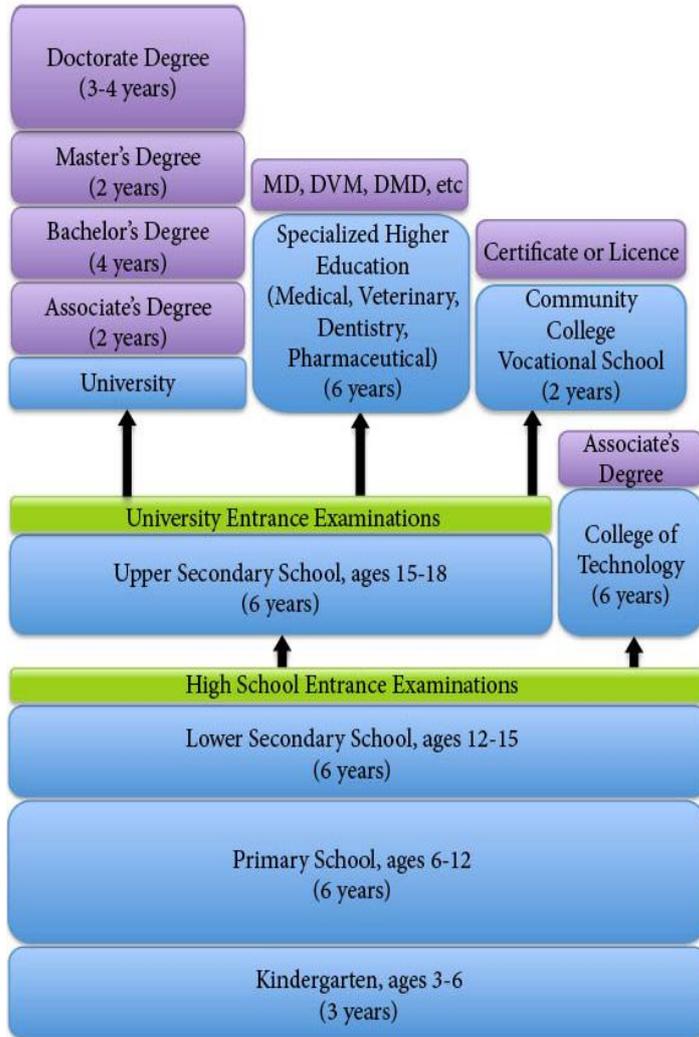


Figure 1: Taken from the Center on International Education Benchmarking (2012)

Review of Related Literature

The Yomiuri Newspaper asked for opinions on the new program. One parent stated:

I'm in favor of the plan so much. I think it is started even from grade 1 students. It is better to accustom yourself to English than to "learn" it. Now English is a common language. It would be more important to study English more and more. (Masayoshi Kobayashi, Yomiuri Newspaper 17 July, 2011).

According to the MEXT website more than 70% of their parents agreed with starting the English program from elementary school and more than 90% of parents

wanted their children to study English from a young age. (MEXT, March 2005). Supporting this, the Asahi Shimbun Extra Research and Analysis (Aera), a popular national weekly magazine, found that in 2004, 73% of parents wanted their child to start studying English before the age of 3 years old (Aera, 2004).

However, The Japan Times labeled the new curriculum as “too little too late.”

This conversion from traditional methods to a more active and communicative approach is decades behind the rest of the world. As China, Vietnam and South Korea have moved ahead, Japan’s English education policies have languished.

It may be a case of too little too late. Japan’s position in the future internationalized world will be determined by the nation’s English ability (“English taught in English,” 2009).

The MEXT slogan Japanese with English abilities implies communicative ability, but the Juken Eigo (English for entrance exams) mindset is prevalent. Kikuchi notes that: “In spite of a curricular emphasis on communicative English since 1989, the entrance tests continue to set the standards for English study in Japan. It is no secret that university entrance exams typically test translation, reading comprehension and grammar with many questions and answers written in Japanese” (Kikuchi, 2006) Butler and Iino note that some private universities are trying newer types of entrance tests, where speaking and listening are important, but most students currently need not display much communicative ability on the high-stakes public university entrance exams. As a result, high school instruction still largely focuses on reading and writing (Butler & Iino, 2005, p. 29).

The proposed new course of study for senior high school English emphasizes nurturing communicative ability in English amongst students through the integration of 4 skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing). More attention will be given to speaking and listening, marking a notable shift from the traditional grammar-translation approach (MEXT, 2008a). This new curriculum challenge seems to comply with the current trend in the field of teaching English as a foreign language

toward using tasks requiring an integrated skills approach (Rogers, 2004; Stewart, 2009; Willis & Willis, 2009).

Statement the problems and the Method

There are five major issues related to the implementation of the new program:

1. There was no announcement of the detail for this program from MEXT.
2. There are only 35 lessons in a year.
3. The students are not required to study reading and writing.
4. English education in Japan focuses on an entrance exam.
5. Students are not necessarily motivated to study these lessons.

To further explore these issues, data was collected from 4 main sources: MEXT,

Primary School Teachers, English Specialists and Primary School Students.

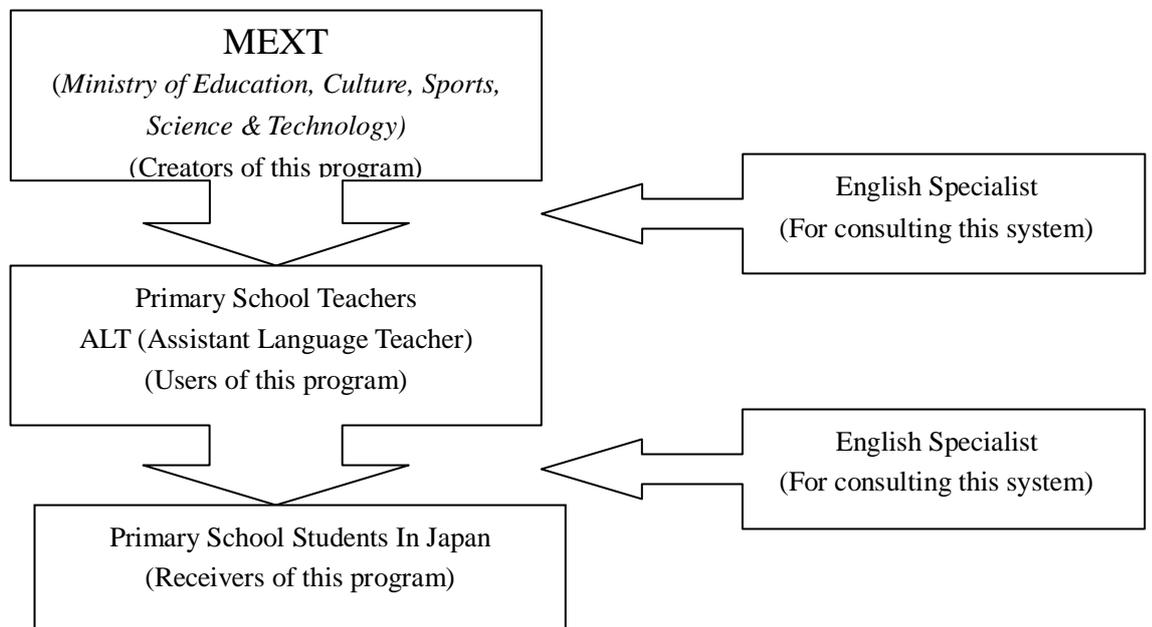


Figure 2: Data Sources

MEXT for problem No. 1

MEXT, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology, developed this program. Thus the point of this interview was to ask about the curriculum in this program. I contacted MEXT by e-mail.

Teachers at primary school for problem No. 1, 2, 3, 5

I then interviewed English teachers at elementary schools to understand their position and ask if this system was going well or not and how they prepared for the lesson from the examples provided by MEXT. The teacher respondents were from Tokyo, Tochigi and Niigata prefectures. Tokyo is the capital city in Japan. Tochigi is about 100km from Tokyo, and Niigata is about 350 km from Tokyo. I conducted interviews using Skype. The interview questions are given below:

1. Do you think students should also study reading and writing?
2. Do you think the 35 lessons are sufficient?
3. How do you prepare for these lessons?

Interview list:

- 30 Japanese elementary teachers (In Tokyo/ Tochigi / Niigata prefecture)
- 5 Native language teachers
- 1 Japanese language assistant at elementary school

Note about confidentiality:

Participation in this section was entirely voluntary and contact information (e-mail addresses and phone numbers) were kept in a secure location. While some of the correspondents were happy to have their names published, the majority asked that it

be kept confidential. Hence access to the data is limited to the researcher. The data were viewed only for research purposes by the researcher.

Specialists of teaching English for problem No. 2, 3, 4

To learn more about this new program, I interviewed English specialists using the three questions below by e-mail at first and discussed in more detail via Skype.

1. Do you think students should also study reading and writing?
2. Do you think 35 lessons (per year) are sufficient?
3. Do you have any other comments on English language teaching for 11- 12 year olds in Japan.

Interview list:

- 2 Native language teachers
- 3 Japanese cram school owner in Japan and Thailand
- 2 Translators
- 3 Persons doing research in English education
- 5 University professors and lectures

Primary school students for problem No.5

To get their opinions of these lessons, I gave questionnaires to Tochigi and Niigata and Toyko prefecture students who were taking this program. For this part of the research I asked 915 students' to answer two simple questions. The questionnaire consisted of: "Do you like English activities or not" and the reason. This questionnaire was distributed to grade 7 students as well. These were students who took the lessons when they were elementary students the previous year. Almost all

Japanese primary schools have computer systems and they answered my questionnaire electronically. After the data was collected, access to the data was limited to the researcher. The data were viewed only for research purposes by the researcher.

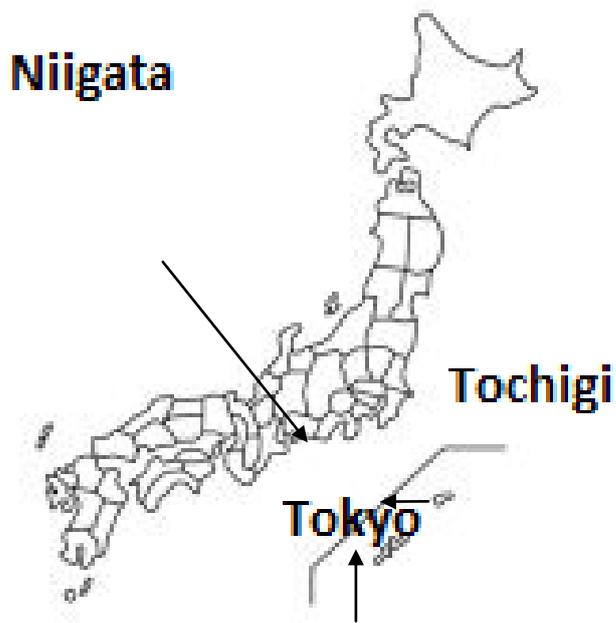


Figure 3: Map showing location of respondents

Limitations

While this paper included a large amount of data, including questionnaires and interviews, it is mostly an exploratory piece that surveys various opinions on the new curriculum.

It thus serves more as a starting point for further studies rather than a full evaluation of the program.

Results

From MEXT

According to the reply from MEXT “There is no set curriculum for this new program. These are only some examples (given on the MEXT website: see introduction of this paper) for desirable communication activity. It is not necessary to teach all of the expressions. Each school can make its own plan in accordance with government policy.” (Personal communication June 10 2011)

From Teachers at primary school

Ms. Matubara who is a teacher at Okubo elementary school in Tokyo expressed her satisfaction with the focus on listening and speaking in the curriculum. She stated “students do not need to learn the reading and writing now. Listening and speaking are more important to be familiar with English” (Personal communication 2 July 2011). In fact all of the 30 Japanese teachers at Sano, Tenmyo, Johoku, Inubushi, Inubushi-Higashi, Tonara, Ishibashi, Hikoma, Tokyo Gakugeidai Fuzoku, Koganei and Okubo primary school who I questioned suggested that students do not need to study reading and writing at this [young]age.

Ms. Arakawa explained that “in this program, it is important to learn English from listening as MEXT said. I agree with the method this program is different from Junior high school English”. Mr. Fujiwara said, “I think that students don’t need to learn reading and writing at primary school. One day, they are requiring learning that, however it is difficult for this age students to understand grammar rule. It becomes

possible to make students hate English if they study grammar”.

However, Mr. Graham Leva a native English teacher at an elementary school in Japan (teaching English for one year) strongly recommended that students also study reading and writing, since based on his experience all skills are important. He noted as follows:

I absolutely do think that the students should study reading and writing in addition to listening and speaking. There is, in my opinion, a very strong connection between what a student sees, and the words that they speak. One large hole that was left out of English curriculum in Japan when I taught there from 2008-2009 was phonics in the classroom. Because of the prevalence of katakana pronunciation guides in the students' and teachers' English books; they never successfully learned how to distinguish between English sounding words, and true English pronunciation. I think sounding out words based on how they're written in English would help a lot. (Personal communication June 27 2011)

Not all teachers are positive about the introduction of English at the elementary school level. For example, Mr. Miyazawa's (a teacher at an elementary school in Tochigi) stated:

I don't know how the lesson will work honestly. I'm not good at English at all. So I'm negative about starting an English education at elementary school. Before starting the program, I am suspicious of the system, which is good for students, or not. We already have started the program. We cannot back and remake it even I don't know that it would be good or not for students. Of course it is great for everyone to be able to speak English, but we do not need to take trouble from elementary school. I think that only the person who is interested in English in the future should study English for their hobby. (Personal communication 25 June, 2011)

Other teachers also reflected ambivalent attitudes about the program. For example, Ms. Arakawa (a teacher at an elementary school in Tochigi) stated the following:

Each teacher has big different levels of enthusiasm for this new English program. And it seems hard to know the result from students. Some of teacher are leaving everything to ALT (Assistant Language Teacher) but some of teacher are teaching everything and ALT is in the class as a support. I'm accustomed the teaching but still confusing at a school. Now, this program depends on the motivation of the teacher. Not every teacher has no experience to teach English and took speaking and listening class before. It makes the levels of enthusiasm bigger. (Personal communication 2 July, 2011)

Ms. Yukari's (a teacher at an elementary school in Tokyo) highlighted the issue of staffing for the program:

There was not English lesson before in elementary school. Not only teacher who is good at teaching English. Now we are taking many kinds of training. This new program's goal is to get communication skill from sounds but it is hard to get the skill for speaking right pronunciation for us. So we need a Japanese expert in addition to foreigner teacher for each school. (Personal communication 2 July, 2011)

From English specialists

Ms. Fjita an assistant for Mr. Graham Leva and Mr. Nick McGlynnand at an elementary school focused on the issue of teaching all four skills. She also showed the researcher an example of the elementary school's lesson without reading and writing.

I definitely think they should learn both reading and writing, or rather, they should learn the connection between letters and sounds - phonics. Here are some examples from lessons at an actual elementary school, which show that "just listening to English" doesn't work. Pupils are told to repeat the words they have just heard on the CD that says, "Green, Yellow, Blue, Purple!" To my surprise, what they repeat are; "Weee, Yerow, Buhroo, Poopoo!" or, not written exactly, like those. The problem is the teachers present never realize that those pupils are not catching words rightly nor correct them in the right way. (Personal communication June 28, 2011)

Mr. Kudo a lecturer at Dokkyo University in Japan recommended that the time allocated for studying English should be increased. He stated:

I think 35 classes are not enough at all. Many students have to spare their time for doing homework and cram school at their home. For that limitation, the lesson should be twice a week at least because of the

children. (Personal communication 30 August, 2011)

Dr. Robert Kirkpatrick who had 10 years experience of teaching English in Japanese universities echoed some of the teachers in highlighting the importance of reading and writing for communication as below:

By not insisting on elementary schools including reading and writing MEXT is no doubt trying to place emphasis on speaking and listening. This is in some ways commendable. I was an invigilator on the national university entrance exam (Center Shiken) for many years and it was only from 2005 that they had an actual listening component. Until then the exam was heavily biased towards reading and grammar- and this gave rise to many negative wash back effects with regard to communication. All of this resulted in Japanese English learners being generally poor at spoken communication - and led to a windfall for conversation schools across the country. So MEXT is to be commended for their current emphasis on speaking and listening. The thing is, though, they have, in my opinion, gone too far. Writing and reading are helpful even if one only wants to speak, and a curriculum giving roughly equal weight to each skill would be ideal. The small number of hours is also problematic and it is doubtful that much, if any progress will be made. I would suggest increasing classes to one each day. (Personal communication July 3, 2011)

Ms. Goto a translator doing research about Japanese English education for more than 40 years highlighted issues related to the pedagogy and teacher training:

I'd like to comment on other four problems we have now in the English program

- 1) Teachers should show students on the first stage how to use their lips, teeth, tongues, and inside muscles of their mouth to make right sounds.
- 2) Students had already learned Roma-ji (i.e, a method of writing Japanese in Roman characters, that is alphabets) before they started English lesson. This naturally causes complex problems, among students as well as teachers themselves. Even teachers have never recognized the fact that Romaji has nothing to do with English. This produces very peculiar difficulties for Japanese English education.
- 3) Most Japanese teachers are not specialists in English and have never been to or in English-speaking countries except for sightseeing tours or honeymoon tour. We have never had English native friends. There is

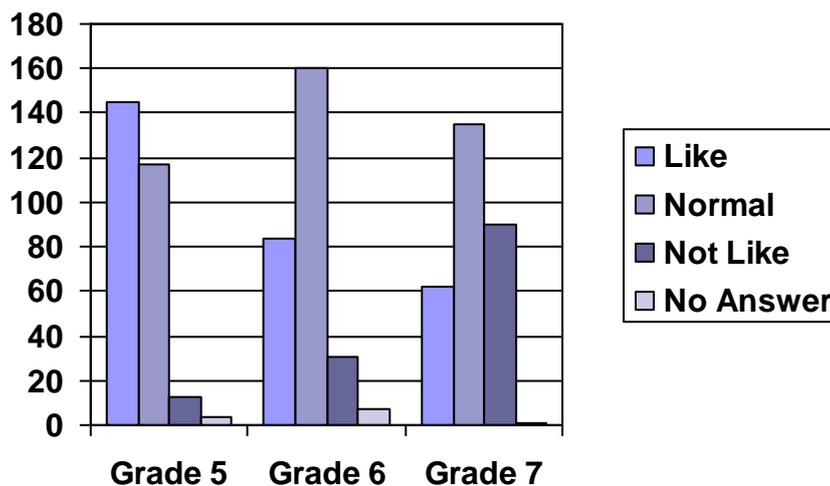
very little communication between ALT and Japanese teachers. We are unwilling to talk with them, therefore few of us have had any discussion on lesson plans with ALTs.

4) ALTs are not required to have any special qualifications in English teaching, so that many have no necessary knowledge or skills at all, particularly so in rural area.

Considering these problems, we, Japanese teachers who are forced to teach English, urgently need proper training system so that we can understand what and how to teach before the classes begin. (Personal communication 1 July, 2011)

From students

Figure 4 shows the quantitative results of the questionnaire consisting of only two questions: “Do you like English activities or not” and the reason. The questionnaire was administered to 915 students from grade 5 to 7 who were from Sano elementary school, Inubushi elementary school, Tonara elementary school, and Jyohoku elementary school in Sano city in Tochigi prefecture. The grade 7 students were students who participated in English lessons when they were elementary students in 2011.



	Like	Normal	Not Like	No Answer
Grade 5	145	117	13	4

Grade 6	84	159	32	7
Grade 7	62	136	96	1
Total	299	277	45	12

Figure 4: Student Questionnaire results

I also interviewed a Tottori prefectural officer about the manifesto and authorities after the election. According to the officer:

Hirai prefectural governor promised to make good English system for elementary school as one of a manifesto at the election (in 2008) and he started the “Enjoy English project in Tottori” from 2009. We made 27 model schools and 139 model teachers for teaching English. And also we readied 38 native English teachers if the school needs them. (Personal communication July 12, 2011)

Improvement of this program

The data in this research indicates three major areas for improvement:

- 1) It is hard for elementary school students to identify words and learn them without reading and writing.
- 2) There is not enough time in the schedule to achieve the program’s goals.
- 3) There is a lack of English teachers who are trained to teach English.

The first issue highlighted in the data is that all four skills are important in order for students to develop their vocabulary in English. It is hard for elementary students to understand the word’s correct meaning only from listening to English from a native speaker. In Japan, students learn capital letters as Roma-ji when they are in Grade 3 or 4. Therefore, Grade 5 and 6 students can write capital letter perfectly.

Although some respondents such as Ms. Mtsubara, a primary school teacher, agreed with the MEXT policy of not requiring primary school teachers to teach reading and writing because they believed it would result in them not liking to study English (Personal communication 2 July 2011). However, according to Mr. Nakamura who is also elementary school teacher, in his class some students asked the ALT the spelling of the words which they learnt in the class (Personal communication 2 July, 2011). However, these results are not directly confirmed by the open-ended responses in the student questionnaire. The main reasons provided by the students for why they did not like English were as follows: “I can’t understand what the teacher is saying”, “I can’t speak English well” and “it is too shameful to speak English in front of classmates” From the responses, it cannot be confirmed that not studying reading and writing is the main reason why students do not like studying English.

Most elementary school teachers interviewed believed that only speaking and listening are communication skills. However reading and writing are also important communication skills. Reading and writing can help to improve listening and speaking skills. To keep listening English without identifying the words the sounds represent can hamper progress in understanding English sometimes. The four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) are connected to each other.

The second issue identified in the data is that insufficient time is provided for English lessons in the elementary curriculum. When they instituted the new English

program, MEXT did not change the time allocated to English in primary schools. Many schools are confused about their curriculum now. MEXT needs to provide guidance centrally about the curriculum and the appropriate amount of time to allocate to English in order to facilitate learning.

There are several models of implementing English curricula at an elementary level in Asia. For example, in South Korea, English was implemented as a subject in 1997. The classes are from grade 3 (9 years old) and they learn 500 words in elementary school. China also implemented English as subject in 2001. As in South Korea, it is taught from grade 3 and students learn 600 words in elementary school. This is about double the number of words taught to Japanese elementary school students.

Both these countries students have more than twice the number of classes per year than Japanese students and get higher TOEFL score every year. South Korea and China are good examples where the program helps the students enhance their English results at higher levels.

The third problem highlighted in the data is the lack of teachers who are trained how to teach English. Most local elementary teachers have never taught English, and they only started training to teach English with the implementation of the program. According to a survey by the Bennese Corporation which is the one of biggest company of focusing on correspondence education and publishing, the teachers are still experiencing a heavy burden. 62.1% of teachers in Japan do not have any confidence in their English teaching English (Bennese

Corporation, 10 May 2011). They need a time for training before starting this program. Alternatively, every school should find and hire English teacher who has experience or training in teaching English.

Another issue is the over-reliance on Assistant Language Teachers who do not need a special license or any qualifications. The only requirement for ALTs is that they are native English speaker who are from an English speaking country. This results in a devaluing of local teachers and an overemphasis on unqualified native speakers who do not have the skills to facilitate effective language learning.

Conclusion

According to the questionnaire, many students enjoyed the activities in their English classes. In Grade 5, 145 students answered that they liked to learn English (more than half of the students). In Grade 6, 84 students still answered that they liked the English activities. The reason which the students answered included statements like “playing game is fun”, “I like singing a song” and “I am happy when I talked in English”. From these results and reasons, it appears that the program has been successful to some extent.

However, not all respondents were satisfied. For example, an 11 year old student was cited as follows:

The lesson is just simple greeting and singing a song mainly. Almost all students don't have any motivation for the lesson. Some of my friends who are learning English are saying “Too easy” “boring”. Some of my friends who are not learning English are saying “I can't understand.” “Not fun” The time is really of no significance. I want a lesson which is fun and motivating (Yomiuri Newspaper, 17 July, 2011)

This is confirmed by my study. According to the results from the

questionnaire, as the students gets older, many students start to dislike English lessons. Only 13 students answered that they disliked the English activities in Grade 5. However there were 32 students in Grade 6 (about 3 times those in Grade 5) who disliked the activities and 96 students in grade 7 (about 8 times the students in Grade 5) disliked the activities. From this tendency, it seems that the longer students study English the more they dislike it.

In conclusion, to provide an effective English program at elementary schools in Japan, changes need to be made in the allocation, curriculum, teacher training and staffing in order to motivate students and solve the problems mentioned above.

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A Reticent Student in the Classroom: A Consequence of the Art of Questioning

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Abstract

This psycholinguistic study assessed the level of reticence in English (L2) among Filipino college students enrolled in Isabela State University, Echague, Isabela, Philippines. It also sought to determine the relationship of reticence and the respondents' profiles, their perceptions on the different categories of questions, teachers' art of questioning, teacher's art of handling students' questions and students' responses. The descriptive-correlational type of research was used in this study. Reticence level on the six dimensions (anxiety, delivery, memory, knowledge, organization and delivery) was measured using the Reticence Scale by Keaten et al., (1997). The respondents' perception on the teachers' use of the categories of questions and the art of questioning were based on the Strategies for Teaching (Boiser, 2000). The results revealed that the respondents were "mildly irreticent" (mean range: 8.88- 10.63) in the six dimensions of reticence scale. The respondents preferred low-level questions (questions that require simple recall) and valuing questions (questions based on students' experiences) than the other categories of questions (convergent, divergent and high- level questions).

Key Words: reticence, reticent student, art of questioning, strategies of teaching

Introduction

Reticence is a behavior that occurs when people avoid communication with the belief that it is better to remain silent than to risk appearing foolish (Keaten & Kelly 2000). People who are considered as reticent often experience a "fear of the unknown" and become too nervous to utter a word, fearing that what they say is incorrect.

Research has shown that shy students participate less frequently in class, are

less likely to volunteer contributions, and give shorter and less elaborate answers to questions (Crozier 2003). Though the students may have the ability and desire to participate in the discussion, they are too conscious of verbalizing what they think. Students who are considered as reticent are branded as less intelligent (Paulhus & Morgan 1997), hence reticence affects their academic performance (Rosenthal et al 2000).

Evans (1993) argued that reticence is possibly linked to the characteristics of the shy person's home. The shyness among Filipino students could be attributed to a strict Filipino culture of not allowing younger members of the family to participate in adult discussion. Some recent research as cited by Kelly, et al. (2002), in fact, has begun to demonstrate a connection between family communication patterns and communication (Elwood & Schrader 1998), shyness (Huang 1999) and unwillingness to communicate (Avtgis 1999). In this research, children are apprehensive to communicate because communication is unrewarding or painful due to a lack of parental supportiveness toward their communication efforts. This was validated by some studies (Beatty et al; Daly & Friedrich) that looked at the role of parental reinforcement of children's communication behaviors and has found a significant impact of parents support to overcome shyness. Beatty et al. also offered findings related to modeling theory as a reason for communication apprehension, in which children model or imitate the behavior of their apprehensive parents or peers (Hutchinson & Neuliep, 1993).

The teacher's style and technique of asking questions has an impact on the development of reticent behavior. Questioning is the easiest and most immediate way for a teacher to monitor the extent of comprehension in a classroom (Boiser 2000). Boiser further revealed that children were more fluent when the teacher adopted a more conversational style, allowing the child to introduce his or her own observations. Unfortunately, most teachers ask for more 'what', 'who', 'when' and 'where' questions than 'how' or 'why' questions; the ratio is about 3 to 1. Wait time or the allowance given by a teacher in silence before calling on a student also increases participation and substance of answers (Rowe 1986).

Glaser (1981) on the other hand assumed that a reticent child was criticized for his or her early language performance. As a result, the child learned to expect negative reactions and subsequently learned to avoid them by keeping quiet. This gives the view that when teachers react negatively to the responses of students especially during the early part of the semester, that certain student would be reticent or may develop communication apprehension in the process.

Ethnic affiliation and familiarity also affect reticence. A number of studies have compared the communicative behavior of Japanese with those of other cultures. Ishii says that Japanese are relatively quiet and reserved. Japanese speak less compared with Americans (Gaetz et al 1990), and show less self-disclosure as cited by Barnlund. Niikura (1999) reported that the assertiveness of Japanese was the lowest when compared with Malaysians, Filipinos, and Americans.

Other factors which could result in a quiet child have been identified by Holbrook (1987), but much of the research on reticence was conducted either among students who speak English as a first language or among Chinese students in Asia, while not much had been done to determine the reasons of reticence among Filipino students especially on the impact of the teacher's art of questioning and the use of the different categories of questions to the reticent behavior of students in using English, hence this study.

Methodology

The study used the descriptive- correlational type of research. The respondents of the study were 368 Filipino college students selected randomly and proportionately allocated from the eight colleges of the Isabela State University, Echague Campus, Isabela, Philippines. Questionnaires were used to gather the data on the profile of the respondents, reticence level of respondents, perception of the respondents on their teacher's use of the categories of questions; and their perception on their teacher's art of questioning.

Reticence Scale

Data for the level of reticence were collected using the Reticence Scale developed by

Keaten et al (1997). The scale consists of six dimensions: (1) feelings of anxiety; (2) knowledge of communication topics; (3) timing skills; (4) organization of thoughts; (5) delivery skills; and (6) memory skills. The scale focused on how individuals assess their feelings and skills regarding communication in social settings. Specifically, the scale consisted of 24 statements, four statements for each dimension. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement to the statements using a 6-point Likert- type scale. Scores for each of the six dimensions range from 1 to 21 where a low score indicates less anxiety, fewer problems with knowledge, organization, etc. The score for each of the dimensions was computed as follows (Keaten et al 1992):

$$\text{Anxiety} = 11+Q1+Q13-Q7-Q19$$

$$\text{Knowledge} = 11+Q8+Q20-Q2-Q14$$

$$\text{Timing} = 11+Q3+Q15-Q9-Q21$$

$$\text{Organization} = 11+Q10+Q22-Q4-Q16$$

$$\text{Delivery} = 11+Q5+Q17-Q11-Q23$$

$$\text{Memory} = 11+Q12+Q24-Q6-Q8$$

The following score, ranges and qualitative description were used to evaluate the level of reticence:

17.68 – 21.00	6	Very Reticent
14.34 – 17.67	5	Reticent
11.01 – 14.33	4	Mildly Reticent
7.68 - 11.00	3	Mildly Irreticent
4.34 – 7.67	2	Irreticent
1.00 – 4.33	1	Very Irreticent

Student's Perception on the Categories of Question and Teacher's Art of Questioning

Questions for both the student's perception on the categories of question and the teacher's art of questioning were based from the "Strategies for Teaching" by Boiser (2000). Five (5) questions from each type or category of question were adopted, such

as: low-level questions, high- level questions, convergent questions, divergent questions and valuing questions.

Twenty (20) statements were adopted concerning student’s perception on the teacher’s art of questioning, such as: techniques of questioning, handling responses, and handling students’ questions. Respondents were asked to check [√] the box corresponding to the degree to which each statement applies to their perception based on a six- point Likert scale. The following scale, range and qualitative description were used.

Scale	Range	Qualitative Description
6	5.50 – 6.00	Strongly Agree
5	4.50 – 5.49	Agree
4	3.50 – 4.49	Mildly Agree
3	2.50 – 3.45	Mildly Disagree
2	1.50 - 2.49	Disagree
1	1.00 - 1.49	Strongly Disagree

Statistical Analysis

All data were processed through the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

1. The frequency counts and percentage were employed to describe the profile of the respondents
2. Weighted mean was used to determine the respondents’ level of reticence and their perception on their teacher’s art of questioning.
3. Pearson r was used to analyze the relationship between the respondents’ age and reticence and relationship between the respondents’ age and the categories of questions used by the teacher in the classroom and the teachers’ art of questioning,
4. The Chi-square test was used to analyze the relationship between the respondents’ gender, ethnic or tribal affiliation, dialect spoken at home,

high school graduated from, highest educational attainment of parents, the respondents' level of reticence, and the categories of questions used by the teacher in the classroom and the teachers' art of questioning.

Results

As shown in Table 1, the majority of the respondents (45.38%) were 18- 20 years old, 42.93% were 15-17; and the remaining 11.69% were 21- 26 years old. Two hundred and forty four (66.30%) of the respondents are Ilocanoes, 59 or 16.03% are Tagalog, 25 or 6.79% are Yogads, 10 or 2.18% Igorots/ Kankanaeys, 8 respondents each are Ibanags, Ifugaos and Itawes, and 7 belong to other ethnic affiliations such as Palanense, Pangasinense, Batangueno, Bisaya, Kapampangan and Bicolano. Although Ilocano and Tagalog are not considered as ethnic minorities since they predominate in coastal parts of northern Luzon and central Luzon, they were included as a category in the ethnic affiliation because these groups of people share a common racial and linguistic heritage (Encarta Encyclopedia online, 2010).

Table 1: Profile of the Respondents as to Gender, Age, Ethnic/ Tribal Affiliation and Dialect Spoken at Home

Profile of Respondents	Frequency (n=368)	Percent (100)
Gender		
Male	170	46.20
Female	198	53.8
Age		
15- 20	325	88.31
21-26	43	11.69
Ethnic/ Tribal Affiliation		
Ilocano	244	66.30
Tagalog	59	16.03
Yogad	25	6.79
Ibanag	8	2.18
Igorot/ Kankanaey	10	2.72
Ifugao	8	2.18

Itawes	7	1.90
Others (Palanan, Pangasinense, Batangueño, Bisaya, Kapampangan, Bicolano)	7	1.90
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Dialect Spoken		
Ilocano	268	72.83
Tagalog	60	16.31
Yogad	18	4.89
Ibanag	4	1.09
Igorot/ Kankanaey	2	0.54
Ifugao	2	0.54
Itawes	7	1.90
Others (Palanan, Pangasinense, Batangueño, Bisaya, Kapampangan, Bicolano)	7	1.90
Type of High School Graduated From		
Public	292	79.35
Private	76	20.65
Highest Educational Attainment		
Mother		
Elementary Level	24	6.52
Elementary Graduate	31	8.42
High School Level	70	19.02
High School Graduate	101	27.45
College Level	83	22.55
College Graduate	59	16.03
Father		
Elementary Level	26	7.07
Elementary Graduate	30	8.15
High School Level	65	17.66
High School Graduate	112	30.43
College Level	76	20.65
College Graduate	59	16.03
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The majority of the respondents (268 or 72.83%) revealed that they used Ilocano as their conversational medium while the remaining 100 or 27.17% were distributed among the other local dialects in the region such as Yogad, Ibanag, Itawes, Gaddang, Igorot/ Ifugao and Tagalog. The table further reveals that ethnic or tribal affiliation is not a determinant of the dialect spoken at home. For example, while there were 25 respondents who reported that they are Yogads, only 18 respondents admitted to use the Yogad dialect at home, the same case was revealed among the eight Ibanag

respondents, where only four use Ibanag as a dialect at home. This reveals that the process of acculturation or moving from one cultural identity to another (Kang, 2006) is evident among the ethnic groups in Northern Luzon, Philippines.

The majority (292 or 79.55%) of the respondents were graduates of public high school, while 76 or 20.65% were from private schools conforming to the statistics of the Department of Education (2003) that only 32% of all high school students are enrolled in private schools (Clark 2004).

The majority of the respondents' mothers were high school graduates (101 or 27.45%, 83 or were college undergraduates, 70 finished high school, 59 were college graduates, 31 were elementary graduates; and 24 did not finish elementary school. On the other hand, 112 of the respondents' fathers were high school graduates, 76 were college undergraduates, 65 were high school undergraduates, 59 were college graduates, 30 were elementary graduates and 26 did not finish their elementary education.

Although, only 16% of the respondents' parents finished college, UNICEF still lauded the high rate of acquiring basic education (84.92%) in the Philippines and the non –issue of gender gap in acquiring basic education compared to other developing countries. UNICEF (2001) reported that the Philippines is a leader in the Southeast Asia region with respect to gender equality and achievements in education.

Table 2: Respondents' Level of Reticence in Six Dimensions

Dimensions	Mean- computed	Qualitative Description
Anxiety	9.91	Mildly Irreticent
Knowledge	9.24	Mildly Irreticent
Timing	10.63	Mildly Irreticent
Organization	8.88	Mildly Irreticent
Delivery	10.42	Mildly Irreticent
Memory	9.99	Mildly Irreticent

As shown in Table 2, the respondents' level of verbal communicative competence ranges between 8.88– 10.63 described as “mildly irreticent” or mildly

competent” ranked as follows: timing (mean computed value 10.63), delivery (10.42), memory (9.99), anxiety (9.91), knowledge (9.24) and organization (8.88). The self-assessment score implies that the respondents were mildly competent even without intervention (art of questioning) from the teacher.

The “mildly competent” description on timing reveals that the student respondents “do not wait too long to say what they think” and “mildly disagree to feel restrained from participating in class” which conforms to the description of Kelly et al (1997). Though, Fischeti, Curran and Wessberg (1977) reported that timing may differ among individuals and that timing is not influenced by the respondents’ gender, as presented in Table 2. However, the respondents admit that they experience muddling and stumbling a little in their communication (delivery dimension). This validates a study of Krannich as cited by Sheets and Tillso (2004) which revealed that communication apprehension or speaking before a group of people still ranks as the number one fear among most people, including students and adults from many diverse backgrounds.

The “mild competent” level of the respondents in anxiety suggests that the language use in the classroom is within the respondents “comfort zone”. Anxiety can be a strong motivational variable in communication as revealed by Zhang as cited by Igot (2008); and could bring positive results especially when it is associated with the students’ comfort level and usage preferences when communicating (Kelly et al 2004). Evans (1993) however asserted that anxiety could also inhibit verbal communication.

The “mild competent” level of the respondents in knowledge and memory suggests that the respondents were mildly competent to speak and to discuss if being asked and could remember what they want to say when talking. These imply that the respondents place high value in their education as most Filipinos (world literacy rate is 96.3 percent, Microsoft Encarta, 2009). These findings also support the study of Jambunathan et al (2003) who reported that Asians place high value on cognitive skills, and are good in memorization (Cheng 2000). The “mild competent” level in organization dimension suggests that the respondents could organize their thoughts

when talking and that their thoughts are not jumbled (Kelly 1997).

Table 3: Relationship Between the Respondents' Gender, Age, Ethnic/ Tribal Affiliation, Dialect Spoken and their Reticence

Dimensions of Reticence	Gender		Age		Ethnic Affiliation		Dialect Spoken	
	x2-co mp	p-value	r-com p	p-value	x2-co mp	p-value	x2-co mp	p-value
Anxiety	20.05ns	0.27	0.07ns	0.16	225.46ns	0.14	145.84ns	0.99
Knowledge	17.54ns	0.29	0.04ns	0.45	168.51ns	0.72	136.16ns	0.95
Timing	15.69ns	0.54	0.03ns	0.58	117.45ns	1.00	101.11ns	1.00
Organization	11.68ns	0.82	0.03ns	0.61	180.39ns	0.88	242.83*	0.00
Delivery	10.81ns	0.82	0.04*	0.05	169.26ns	0.88	148.22ns	0.94
Memory	17.50ns	0.29	0.16*	0.00	138.87ns	0.99	187.39ns	0.11

* significant ns -not significant

As shown in Table 3, age is significantly related with “delivery” and “memory” with r- computed 0.04 and 0.16 with probability value equal to 0.05 and 0.00 respectively, while the profile on dialect spoken at home is significantly related with “organization”. These results suggest that the respondents who are mostly adolescents become more conscious with their speaking (delivery) and thoughts (memory). The finding supports the research of Wittchen et al (1998, 2000) that anxiety and apprehension often start in adolescence; as well as Broughton’s research as cited by Jambunathan et al (2003) which indicates that anxiety in communication is related to age.

On the other hand, the significant relationship between the dialect spoken and organization supports the findings of Fernando et al (1988) that native culture experience interferes with cultural patterns and meanings in the target culture. The

majority of the respondents in this research speak Ilocano and Tagalog (Filipino), thus when the target language (English) was used, organization was affected. Fernando also explained the differences of Filipino and English in terms of phonology, morphology and structure which are bases for the significant relationship between the dialect spoken and organization. The findings also supports the studies of Jambunathan & Burts (2003) who reported that ethnicity and the majority culture might be influential factors in socialization and competence.

Table 4: Relationship between the Respondents' Type of High School Graduated from, Highest Educational Attainment of Parents and their Reticence.

Dimensions of Reticence	Highest educational Attainment					
	Type of High School		Mother		Father	
	x2-comp	p- value	x2-comp	p- value	x2-comp	p- value
Anxiety	20.90ns	0.96	65.24ns	0.95	73.55ns	0.81
Knowledge	29.07ns	0.51	53.92ns	0.97	65.52ns	0.77
Timing	22.68ns	0.93	98.53ns	0.15	99.20ns	0.14
Organization	21.86ns	0.95	108.47*	0.04	100.54ns	0.12
Delivery	22.34ns	0.9	92.91ns	0.15	68.44ns	0.82
Memory	45.38*	0.04	82.17ns	0.27	83.04ns	0.25

* significant ns -not significant

As presented in Table 4, the type of high school the respondents graduated from is significantly related to the respondents' "memory" dimension (x2- computed= 45.38, p- value= 0.04), and the highest educational attainment of the respondents' mother has a significant relationship with "organization" (x2- computed=108.47, p-value= 0.04). The result indicates that the respondents' organizational skill is associated with their mother's educational attainment which suggests that a mother's role in one's life is indispensable. This may be explained in part by the role of a mother in homes as a nurturing and consistent figure in the family. This finding conforms to similar studies that revealed high levels of maternal deprivation is linked to learning disability (Hutchinson et al 1993); and parental attitudes (Jambunathan,

2003). A study by Stöckli (2002) indicated that shyness decreases as the parent's education increases which supports the result of this study.

Table 5: Respondents Perception of the Different Categories of Questions and their Teachers' Art of Questioning

Item	Mean- computed	Qualitative Description
Categories of Question		
low- level question	4.43	Moderately Agree
high- level question	4.42	Moderately Agree
convergent question	4.44	Moderately Agree
divergent question	4.47	Moderately Agree
valuing question	4.62	Agree
Art of Questioning		
Techniques of questioning	4.77	Agree
Handling responses	4.62	Agree
Handling Students' questions	4.56	Agree

Table 5 shows that the respondents “moderately agree” on the different categories of questions that their teacher utilizes to elicit responses from students in class, while they “agree” on the use of valuing question. The respondents also agreed on three categories of the art of questioning such as techniques of questioning, handling student's responses and handling student's questions. In some cases where Asian students are found in class to be quieter than expected in certain circumstances, Cheng cited by Xiao (2006) reported that the causes are situation-specific rather than culturally pre-set. Xiao however cautions that the possible causes [of quietness] might lie in the teaching methodologies used.

Table 6: Relationship between the Respondents' Gender, Age, Ethnic or Tribal Affiliation, Dialect Spoken and their Perception of the Categories of Questions and their Teachers' Art of Questioning

Item	Gender		Age		Ethnic Affiliation		Dialect Spoken	
	x2-co mp	p-value	r-com p	p-value	x2-co mp	p-value	x2-co mp	p-value
Category								
low- level question	31.49*	0.05	0.07n s	0.18	270.54 ns	0.09	287.46 *	0.00
high- level question	27.64n s	0.11	0.00n s	0.92	262.84 ns	0.15	189.74 ns	0.93
convergent question	23.12n s	0.28	0.07n s	0.21	208.70 ns	0.93	205.02 ns	0.76
divergent question	18.28n s	0.5	0.01n s	0.92	217.32 ns	0.68	169.00 ns	1.00
valuing question	38.31*	0.01	0.09n s	0.09	185.63 ns	1.00	163.84 ns	1.00
Art of Questioning								
Techniques of questioning	20.63n s	0.54	0.07n s	0.17	260.55 ns	0.55	225.32 ns	0.77
Handling responses	49.64*	0.01	0.01n s	0.79	315.04 ns	0.63	336.20 ns	0.06
Handling Students' questions	17.06n s	0.65	0.01n s	0.88	170.27 ns	1.00	137.80 ns	1.00

ns -not significant

Gender was found to have a significant relationship with low-level questions, valuing questions and teachers handling of students' responses, while dialect spoken has a significant relationship with the low- level questions.

These suggest that the students prefer questions that require simple memory and build their confidence (low-level questions) and questions that allow them to express their own beliefs, attitudes and ideas (valuing questions). The results of this study also support the findings of Evans (1993) and Crozier (1999) who demonstrated that reticence could be identified through children's spontaneous contributions and answers to teacher questions especially those questions which students could express

their own beliefs.

Carter et al (1984) and Stöckli (2002) however reported that shyness and anxiety in speaking are manifested primarily by boys. In a separate study by Zhang and Head (2009), their tests showed significant progress in the students' speaking when they get students to talk about "what" and "how" they wanted to learn which are characteristics of divergent questions (Boiser, 2003).

On handling responses, a similar study conducted by Lee and Ng (2009) showed that teacher strategy is a major determinant of student oral competence in classrooms. Studies of Bradley (1984); Maley (1984); Song (1995) and Liu, (1998) revealed that it is common to find literature reviews reporting that Asian students are passive learners and recipients of knowledge. Asian students are expected to show "total obedience or submission to their teachers," to be "passive receivers of knowledge," "they are not active in participating in tutorials and group discussions, Gender was found to have a significant relationship with low- level questions, valuing questions and teachers handling of students' responses, while dialect spoken has a significant relationship with the low- level questions.

These suggest that the students prefer questions that require simple memory and build their confidence (low-level questions) and questions that allows them to express their own beliefs, attitudes and ideas (valuing questions). The result of this study also supports the findings of Evans (1993) and Crozier (1999) who demonstrated that reticence could be identified through children's spontaneous contributions and answers to teacher questions especially those questions which students could express their own beliefs.

Snell (1999) also revealed in his research that Asian students needed to be prompted with eye contact and a repeated question, and when they did not understand something, they still did not interrupt the teacher with a question.

However, Littlewood (2001) conducted a large-scale survey of students' attitudes towards classroom English learning in eight East Asian countries and three European countries. He found that most students in all countries question the traditional authority-based, transmission mode of learning, and that all students wish

to participate actively in exploring knowledge and have positive attitudes towards working purposefully, in groups and towards common goals. His finding was used by Xiao (2006) to question some commonly held assumptions about the attitudes of Asian students. Cheng (2000) specifically mentioned Asian students as having cultural differences which inhibited their oral participation in class and their willingness and ability to ask questions.

Table 7: Relationship Between the Respondents' Type of High School Graduated From, Highest Educational Attainment of Parents and the Perceived Teachers' Art of Questioning

Item	Type of High School		Highest Educational Attainment			
			Mother		Father	
	x2-comp	p- value	x2-comp	p- value	x2-comp	p- value
Category						
low- level question	25.87ns	0.96	104.84ns	0.35	94.73ns	0.63
high- level question	34.77ns	0.70	90.38ns	0.74	88.47ns	0.79
convergent question	38.95ns	0.52	102.32ns	0.42	72.81ns	0.98
divergent question	23.75ns	0.97	99.08ns	0.37	122.25*	0.03
valuing question	41.31ns	0.41	101.15ns	0.45	99.99ns	0.48
Art of Questioning						
Techniques of questioning	71.19*	0.01	105.10ns	0.61	94.56ns	0.85
Handling responses	32.91ns	0.99	157.75ns	0.09	111.91ns	0.93
Handling Students' questions	26.82ns	0.95	130.86*	0.02	131.02*	0.02

* significant

ns -not significant

The type of high school where the respondents graduated from has a significant relationship with the teachers' techniques of questioning, while the mothers' educational attainment is significantly related to the teacher's art of

“handling students’ questions”. The father’s highest educational attainment was found to have a significant relationship with “divergent questions”.

The relationship of the type of high school graduated from and the techniques of questioning suggests that there is a similarity in the strategies on the art of questioning of their teachers in high school and in college which conforms to the study of Walberg and Weinstein (1984) who reported that student ability and motivation, quantity and quality of instruction, and the psychological environments of the home, classroom, peer group, and media to which the child is exposed have consistent and, in some cases, large effects on achievement.

This was further supported by Yeo et al, (2008) who reported that instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement depend on the teacher’s methodology, and that "effectiveness of learning depends on excellence of teacher in class" (Hofstede, 1986).

Conclusions

1. The respondents agreed that they were encouraged more to participate in class discussion if teachers ask low-level questions and valuing questions than the other categories of question. They revealed that they see no problems with their teachers’ techniques of questioning, handling students’ responses and questions.

2. The findings suggest that not allowing younger members of the family in adult discussion contributes to the shyness of Filipinos in communication.

3. The absence of the mother in a family contributes to reticence on the organization dimension. Some Filipino families either experienced a maternal or paternal absence because a parent or both parents need to work overseas (approximately 8 million Filipinos in 31 countries or 11% of Philippines population).

Recommendations

Based on the finding of this study, I have the following recommendations:

1. The teachers should have a regular training designed for strategies and

approaches in using the different categories of questions especially on asking low-level questions and valuing questions to students perceived by the teacher as reticent or shy. This will eliminate anxiety on the part of the reticent student thus boost his/ her confidence on future class discussions.

2. Further studies should be conducted to confirm the impact of Filipino traits and values on reticence or communication apprehension, and the impact of reticence on the absence of parents in Filipino families, and the differences on the level of reticence level among different ethnic groups.

3. Other studies should also be conducted on the impact of text messaging, networking sites such as Facebook and other emerging technologies that may affect communication in social situations.

4. A replication of the present study in other campuses of the university may be undertaken to confirm on the findings of the present study.

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Speech Acts in Drama Translation

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Abstract

One of the most important aspects of drama and definitely drama translation is that it should be performable. In order to preserve the performability, the communicative functions of linguistic forms should be recognized and conveyed by the translator. As noticed by some translation scholars (e.g. Snell-Hornby [1988], Hatim [1998]), speech acts have a vital role in this process. Translators may employ different strategies to overcome difficulties in translating speech acts. Knowledge of difficulties of drama translation, speech acts (especially their different linguistic forms in different languages, for example Persian and English) and the different strategies of translating speech acts can help translators fulfil their duty as communicators. Studying speech acts as the linguistic tools which can contribute to the production of better translations and recognition of the strategies used by translators in treating speech acts may pave the way for further research on this neglected genre and may contribute to producing more adequate translations. It can also help literary especially drama translation trainers to present more precise and acceptable syllabus in their classes. This research, which is based on both parallel and a comparative text study, presents a classification of the linguistic forms representing the most frequently-used speech acts in the Persian dramas by analyzing randomly-selected pages of authentic Persian dramas according to Farlouche's typology of speech acts which is a Persian categorization based on Searle's typology. The same process was carried out by Snell-Hornby (1988) on 700 elements of German and English. She describes it as assessing how the same kind of factual material is verbalized in different languages.

Key words: Speech acts, drama translation, linguistic forms, communicative functions, declaratives

Introduction

Drama is a literary genre which is as old as history. Its traces can be observed in all societies around the world e.g. religious dramas, national or tribal dances. Since humanities' interest of other societies was awakened, drama translation was developed along with other kinds of translation. Although, compared with other genres, this subsection of the new discipline of translation studies "is one of the most neglected areas in the bulk of genre-focused translation study" (Bassnett, 1980, p. 12), the translation of drama has passed different stages in its development and little by little has attracted scholars undertaking studies on its theoretical aspects. Aaltonen (2000), who calls this field of study a labyrinth, believes:

As theatre translation may use strategies which would not be acceptable in contemporary literary translation...the most common explanation for the decisions and choices made usually involve concepts such as speakability and playability (or performability) as well as the more generic "requirements of the stage" (p.41).

Performability is one of the most important aspects of drama and definitely drama translation. In order to preserve this aspect, the communicative functions of linguistic forms should be recognized and conveyed by the translator. As it has been proved by some scholars (e.g. Snell-Hornby [1988], Hatim [1998]), speech acts have a vital role in this process. Sartor (2001) maintains:

The linguistic event is in itself very important because it is the main form of interaction in drama. The exchange of dialogue not only refers deictically to the dramatic action but it directly creates it, and the mechanism of the action of the "pièce" is carried on above all by the intersubjective power of speech. The theory of speech acts, one of the most important acquisitions of the philosophy of language and of contemporary linguistics, deals with linguistic phenomena as elements of a form of behaviour controlled by rules (being less interested in their formal aspects), (Searle, John R., *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*, 1969, p. 36). Its aim consists in including linguistic events in the ambit of a theory of action. It is Searle's taxonomy which is, perhaps, the most useful as far as dramatic analysis is concerned.

As it is discussed in this article, dramatic discourse is a network of complementary and conflicting illocutions and perlocutions; the illocutions may be understood or misunderstood, and the perlocutions may or may not work.

Language may be used within certain conventions, and, more generally, within a set form of words, and thus get transformed into speech acts whose task is to bring about certain effects in the speaker.

To date, there has been no study on the speech acts in Persian dramas to classify the linguistic forms of the most frequently-used speech acts in this genre. In addition, there has not been any study on the strategies used by translators in order to translate speech acts from English into Persian. The strategies, which may result in performable dramas, can attract more audiences. In the present research, the aim is to investigate the complex relationship between communicative function and natural language forms in the English and Persian dramas, thus providing some insights for drama translation theory and practice and applicable guidelines for literary translation courses.

Theoretical discussions

One of the most important aspects of drama in general and drama translation in particular is that it should be performable. In order to preserve the quality of performability, the communicative function of linguistic forms should be duly recognized and conveyed by the translator. As noticed by some translation scholars (e.g. Snell-Hornby [1988], Hatim [1998]), speech acts have a vital role in this process. One particular approach to the functional classification of speech is based on speech acts presented by Austin (1962 as cited in Hatim 1998 & Searle 1975) and then further developed by Searle (1962 as cited in Hatim 1998 & Searle 1975), “Austin argued that the study of meaning should not concentrate on bald statements such as Snow is white, taken out of context, since language is typically used in speech for many other functions, for instance, when we speak we make suggestions, promises, invitations, requests, prohibitions and so on” (Hudson, 1980, p. 110). Put simply, speech acts are the acts we perform when for example we make a complaint or a request, apologize or pay someone a compliment. Speech acts are divided into explicit and implicit ones and also direct and indirect speech acts. As Sartor (2001) puts it, speech acts are important in drama translation because “in drama the dialogue is essential to the development of the

action – and speech acts are correspondingly much more coherent and far better-structured than in real life”.

According to Snell–Hornby (1988, p. 86):

Although ... it is commonly believed that a declarative sentence is automatically a statement, that an interrogative sentence is invariably a question, and that an imperative sentence must essentially be a directive, [in fact] the relation between grammatical form and communicative function is far more complex and for the translator this is a vital insight. A so-called rhetorical question, for example, is in fact an interrogative sentence with the force of an emphatic statement, while a leading question combines the function of a statement and a question, the focus shifting according to specific factors. Thus form and function exist in a dynamic tension with each other, and what is important for translation is the fact that tension varies from one culture, and hence language, to another.

Presenting the concepts of illocutionary and perlocutionary forces and the distinction between them have proved very important in translations especially in the cases of indirect speech acts whose form and function are not the conventional ones. As Hatim states (1998, p. 180) translators have attempted to “re-perform locutionary and illocutionary acts in the hope that the end-product will have the same perlocutionary force in the target language (Blum-Kulka, 1981).” He (1998, p. 180) also emphasizes the necessity of knowledge of speech acts for a translator in these words: “Modern linguistics clearly provides powerful tools for the analysis and understanding of language and these tools ought to be part of the competence of every translator.” One of these tools is the knowledge of speech act theory. However it should be considered that “these tools frequently prove to be more useful as diagnostic techniques to find out what has gone wrong in a translation after the event rather than as systematic aids for use during the event” (Fawcett, 1998, p 124). Finally, relatively speaking, at the discourse level, communicative failure of a translation may be attributed to the failure in representing speech acts adequately (Hatim & Mason, 1990).

Translators may employ different strategies to overcome difficulties in translating speech acts. Knowledge of difficulties of drama translation, speech acts (especially their different linguistic forms in different languages, for example Persian and English)

and the different strategies of translating speech acts can help translators fulfil their duty as communicators. Studying speech acts as the linguistic tools which can contribute to production of better translations and recognition of the strategies used by translators in treating speech acts may pave the way for other improvements in this field and equip translators with some means for making better decisions.

Methodology

This empirical research was aimed at setting a general classification of the linguistic forms used in the most frequent speech acts in Persian dramas based on Farlouché's and Searle's typology of speech acts. The result of procedure 1, i.e. declaratives, were investigated in authentic English dramas to obtain its linguistic form in English. Subsequently, by comparing some pages of some English dramas, the ones which were studied with their Persian translations, the researcher tried to find the strategies used by Persian translators in translating the most-frequently used speech acts from English into Persian.

Subjects and Instrumentation

In this research some texts were used as instruments for collecting data on speech acts in Persian and English dramas and strategies for translating them. The texts which were randomly selected are as follows (20 pages of each one):

Persian dramas:

- 1- "Haft Ghabile Gomshod" by: Ghotbeddin Sadeghi
- 2- "Eshgh Aba" by: Davood Mirbagheri
- 3- "Rahi" by: Naghme Samini
- 4- "Khale Odise" by: Chista Yasrebi
- 5- "Eghlima" by: Azam Boroujerdi

English Dramas:

- 1- "Waiting for Godot" by: Samuel Beckett / Translated by: Mostafa Abedini Fard
- 2- "Death of a Salesman" by: Arthur Miller / Translated by: Ataollah Nourian

3-“The Glass Menagerie” by: Tennessee Williams / Translated by: Marjan Bakhtminoo

4-“The Hairy Ape” by: Eugene O'neil / Translated by: Behzad Ghaderi

5-“The Cocktail Party” by: T.S. Eliot/ Translated by: Sorayya Khansari

Procedure

The following steps were taken in the course of the present study. First, some pages of the above-mentioned authentic Persian dramas were analyzed (according to Searle’s typology of speech acts and its Persian typology by Farlouche) in order to identify the most-frequently used speech acts in Persian dramas and classify the linguistic forms used in the most-frequently used speech acts.

Second, some pages of the above-mentioned contemporary English dramas were analyzed in order to classify the linguistic forms used in the speech acts being the result of the first step in contemporary English dramas (again according to Searle’s and Farlouche's typology of speech acts).

Then, the results of steps 1 and 2 were compared. The same process was carried out by Snell-Hornby (1988) on 700 elements of German and English. She describes it as assessing how the same kind of factual material is verbalized in different languages.

Finally, after this parallel text study, a comparative text study was conducted on the English dramas, which were analyzed in step 2, and their translation by competent translators in order to identify which strategies were used by Persian translators in rendering the most frequently-used speech acts being the result of step 1 from English into Persian.

Data analysis

Before analyzing the data, which were arranged in some tables, two of which are presented as the samples here, it should be mentioned that in order to get more reliable results the researcher tried to randomly select equal number of pages from each drama.

The problem was that the number of words in one page of two dramas was not equal. Therefore, first the average number of words in randomly selected pages of a drama was calculated as the criterion for others, here Haft Ghabile Gomshode. The selected pages were the ones with the highest and the lowest number of words. Then the result was multiplied by 20 which equalled 2100. This means that every drama should have had 2100 words. For other dramas, first the average number of words was calculated – as above – then 2100 was divided by the result and the number of pages was obtained. Sometimes it measured 23 and sometimes 18. Other points worth mentioning are as follows:

-In all speech acts of the dramas studied in this research the felicity conditions have been fulfilled.

-There are a lot of speech acts which have the same meaning. Here they have been considered and counted as one speech act. For example,

امر کردن و دستور دادن

-Although every attempt was made to analyze the speech acts in a precise manner, it should be mentioned that the results are unavoidably subjective.

-There were some sentences in which the verb was not mentioned. Under such circumstances the verb was added and then its speech act was defined.

-In making distinction between two speech acts for one sentence the reaction (perlocutionary act) was taken as the criterion. It goes without saying that they are all context-dependent.

Table 1.1 "Haft Ghabile Gomshode" Drama 1

Declaratives ترغیبی 160	Representatives اظهاری 147	Expressives عاطفی 53	Commissives تعهدی 6
مستقیم - ضمنی	مستقیم - ضمنی	مستقیم - ضمنی	مستقیم - ضمنی
پرسیدن 89 اخطار دادن 21 پیشنهاد دادن 14 امر کردن 13 تهدید کردن 8 التماس کردن 5 خواهش کردن 5 نهی کردن 1 توصیه کردن 1 درود فرستادن 1	توضیح دادن 37 تاکید کردن 24 آگاهی دادن 17 اعلان کردن 15 تایید کردن 14 متذکر شدن 10 انکار کردن 7 ادعا کردن 6 اطمینان دادن 4 حدس زدن 4 اصرار کردن 2 تکذیب کردن 1 اعتراف کردن 1 گفتن 1 گواهی دادن 1 شرط بستن 1	اعتراض کردن 18 تعریف کردن 6 طعنه زدن 3 تحسین کردن 3 سرزنش کردن 2 مسخره کردن 2 تعجب کردن 1 دعا کردن 1 درود فرستادن 1 آرزو کردن 1 ♦	داوطلب شدن 3 وعده دادن 2
	غیر مستقیم - ضمنی سوال کردن طعنه زدن کردن 4 سوال اعتراض کردن 2 توضیح دادن طعنه زدن 3 توضیح دادن اعتراض کردن 3 توضیح دادن ستودن 1 امر کردن اعتراض کردن 2		
	غیر مستقیم - صریح سوال کردن تاکید کردن 1	بیش از يك کنش گفتاری سوال و اعتراض کردن 4 سوال و انکار کردن 3	
	حدس زدن 1		

Table 1.2 “Death of a Salesma” Table 2.2 “The Hairy Ape”

Representatives	Representatives
Direct –implicit Narrating 30 Explaining/elaborating 30 Informing 28 Insisting 25 Reminding 20 Emphasizing 14 admitting 13 Claiming 13 Denying 12 Saying 10 Confirming 10 Describing 9 Guessing 7 Believing 2 Announcing 2 Revealing 1	Direct –implicit Claiming 47 Describing 22 Explaining/elaborating 16 Narrating 11 Emphasizing 10 Informing 4 Reminding 4 Confirming 3 Saying 3 Swearing 2 Denying 2 Announcing 2 Betting 1
Indirect- implicit Asking → Emphasizing 3 Insisting → Denying 3	Indirect- implicit Asking → Emphasizing 8
Direct- Explicit Swearing 3 Promising 1 Saying 1	Direct- Explicit Guessing 2 Betting 1

Conclusions and Discussion

In this study the researcher tried to find answer to the following research questions:

1. What is the most frequently-used speech act in the contemporary Persian dramas?
 - Based on the data collected, it was concluded that the representatives were the most frequent speech acts in Persian dramas. All direct representatives are materialized as statements.

The most frequently-used speech act is explaining (توضیح دادن). The grammatical structure of this speech act is as follows: (subject) + (object) + verb

The sentences may also have different adverbs (adverbs of place, time, frequency etc.) in different parts of the sentence.

In short, the structures include all typical structures of statements in Persian.

There are different relations between addressees and speakers, sometimes the addressee is superior to the speaker and sometimes it is vice versa. Sometimes they have the same status.

This is also noteworthy that since it is a subjective research sometimes the speech act which is considered as "explaining" at a table may be a kind of informing, describing or etc. as well. However, they have a commonality: all of them emphasize giving information and are categorized under this section at the Farlouche's typology of representatives. Additionally, all of them have the same grammatical structure or linguistic form as above.

3. Are there any differences among linguistic forms of this (the answer to the first question) speech act in English and Persian drama texts?

Comparison of the English dramas showed that the most-frequently used speech act of Representatives in English dramas compared to Persian ones is "explaining" and again the linguistic form is also the typical form of statements in English: Subject +Verb+ Object + Adverb ...

Some examples of this speech act are as follows:

- Estragon: when you think of the beauty of the way and the goodness of the wayfarers. (Waiting for Godot, p. 28)
- I have had to put up a solitary battle all these years, but you are my right hand bower. (The Glass Menagerie, p. 35)

3. What strategies are used in translating this speech act in dramas from English into Persian?

- As inferred from the results of research questions 1 and 2, the translators did not use any special strategy in translating speech acts from English into Persian. The sentences were translated according to SL and only their linguistic forms were changed according to Persian order of sentence. Again the hypothesis was verified. Such as:

Wiley: I was thinking of the Chevy. حواسم پیش اون شورولت بود. (Death of a Salesman, p.1398)

Estragon: Taking off my boots. دارم بوتینمو در می آورم. (Waiting for Godot, p. 18)

According to the above mentioned results, the hypotheses of this research can be evaluated as follows:

1. There is no difference among linguistic forms of the most-frequently used speech act in English and Persian drama texts.

According to the findings, the hypothesis was verified suggesting that and there is no difference among the linguistic forms of representatives (specially explaining) in English and Persian dramas.

2. No special strategies are used in translating the speech act in dramas from English into Persian.

As it was also mentioned, there is no special strategy in translating speech acts in dramas from English into Persian and this hypothesis was also verified.

Discussion

Based on the analysis of the Persian and English texts some points are worth mentioning. It is clear that the direct speech acts outnumbered the indirect ones.

However, the indirect speech acts proved the most controversial ones:

- In different dramas, according to their theme and the status of addressees and speakers, the statistics are different. For example Rahil is more formal than

other Persian dramas in which Representatives are used more frequently than others. In the most informal drama (Eshghabad) Expressives are the most-frequently used speech acts. And in Eghlima which is neither so formal nor so informal the directives constitute the highest number of speech acts.

- As the tables of Persian dramas show the Expressives constitute the highest number of indirect speech acts and the interesting point is that most of them belong to the subgroup of negative evaluation such as gibing, mocking, complaining, objecting, (نفرین کردن - طعنه زدن - شکایت کردن - مسخره کردن اعتراض کردن). This can be considered as a cultural issue. It means that in the context of Iranian culture it is not polite to express our negative feelings directly.

Most of the objections (47 out of 65) were made by asking a question.

In directives the only indirect speech acts are begging and asking (التماس کردن) (و خواهش کردن) and in Commissives refusing (امتناع کردن) constitutes the highest number of indirect ones.

- Some speech acts are absent in the typology of Farlouche such as Representatives: judging, quoting, introducing, evaluating, (فرض کردن، نقل قول کردن، معرفی کردن، ارزیابی کردن، اعتراف کردن) Expressives: wishing, surprising, expressing happiness (شادمانی، آرزو کردن، اظهار تعجب نمودن،) (کردن)
- No declarations were present in these dramas because there was no formal situation.
- Comissives have the lowest frequency.
- There were some statements with 2 apparent speech acts (illocutionary acts) in which none of them could be preferred regarding the perlocutionary acts. Maybe they can be considered as symbols of language economy.
- The researcher tried to select the texts which fell within the range of informal to near formal. Analysis of more informal texts proved much difficult because

of use of some very informal expressions which sometimes proved really hard to understand.

- The number of implicit speech acts (as the tables show) were much more than the explicit ones.
- When the tables of English and Persian dramas were compared (indirect speech acts) one comes to the conclusion that the most common part among them is that in both languages one asks a question to emphasize something.

The findings of this research may help the drama translators to have a better view of translating English dramas into Persian. Now they can translate dramas without thinking of the differences prevailing among speech acts and if they produce inadequate translations they can search for the problem in parts other than speech acts. This research may also present some new insights into drama translation theory and may be considered as a starting point to carry out further research on this neglected area and other speech acts in Persian in order to present better drama translations hoping to attract more audiences. It can also provide insights to English teachers teaching English drama to Persian students.

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