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English Materials and Their Relevance to the Needs of Pharmacy Students (A Case Study at a School of Pharmacy in Bandung – Indonesia)

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Abstract

This research was aimed at analyzing the students' needs profile of non-regular class of *D-III* degree of a school of pharmacy in Bandung and investigating the relevance of the syllabus and materials provided by the lecturer to the students' needs of non-regular *D-III* degree of the school of pharmacy. This research employed a qualitative case study. The data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis, and were categorized into students' necessities, lacks, and wants. The students' needs profile became the basis of the criteria in analyzing and determining whether the syllabus and the materials are relevant or not to the students' needs. The results also showed that the syllabus was relevant to the students' needs but the materials, generally, were not relevant to the students' needs, which suggests for the lecturer to select English materials that meet the students' needs.

Keywords: students' needs, English materials, relevance

Introduction

One of the main contributions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP to the world of English Language Teaching (ELT), according to Harding (2007), has been the development of ELT through needs analysis. Paltridge and Starfield (2013, p. 6) state that ESP has been a practitioners' movement, devoted to establishing, through careful research, the needs and relevant discourse features for a targeted group of students. Additionally, Belcher (2009a, p. 3 as cited in Paltridge and Starfield, 2013) points out that ESP specialists accept the responsibility for finding out what their learners will likely need (and want) to be able to read, write, speak and comprehend as listeners to achieve their goals. Accordingly, Basturkmen (2006) says that curriculum developers use findings from students' needs analyses to help them in selecting and specifying the content of the syllabus.

Content or teaching-learning materials that are taught to the students, as proposed by Harding (2007), should be based not only on the syllabus designer's ideas and on perception but also should fit in with the needs of the students. Therefore, it is highly suggested by National Council of Teachers of English (1996) that the materials should be selected wisely. According to Rubdy (in Tomlinson, 2003), it is stated that the selection of materials involves matching the given materials against the context in which they are going to be used and the needs and interests of the teachers and learners who work within it, to find the best possible fit between them.

The needs in area of specialization are worth considering since the language we speak and write varies from one context to another (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Further, if a group of learners' English language needs can be accurately specified, it will be easy to determine the content of a language program that will meet these needs.

Considering the importance of students' needs, needs analysis becomes a significant consideration as the primary basis for designing instructional materials. In practice, there are some cases where content of the materials applied in English program are only gained from the lecturer's perceptions. The lecturer does not pay attention to learners' interests and ignores the students as a source of

essential information (Sysoyev, 2008). As a result, the teaching practice is not relevant to the students' needs that cause the failure of the course.

Those two main elements in the process of designing a language program should be organized in a syllabus. The syllabus should be ready to be used by the teachers and students before they meet in the class for the first time. It is in line with a theory from Dubin and Olshtain (1987, p. 4) who state that a syllabus must be in place and ready to be used before learners and teachers meet together on the first day of the program.

Previous Studies

The significance of analyzing the students' needs in ESP has been reflected in many studies reported in ESP literature. Richards and Gravatt (1998) revealed a university needs analysis result about students' concern on their ability to participate in seminars and discussions in a university setting. Crosling and Ward (2001) describe a study to identify the oral communication demands that business graduates at an Australian university meet on entering the work place by using a needs analysis. Bosher and Smalkoski (2002) describe a study to determine why ESL students enrolled on a nursing degree program in a US college were not succeeding academically by using a needs analysis. Sullivan and Girginer (2002) reported a course developed to teach English to pilots and navigators in Turkey by using a needs analysis. Bruce (2002) reports a course designed to focus on the specific needs of a group of law students in a university in Hong Kong by using a needs analysis.

In the Indonesian context, some previous researchers have discussed conducting needs analysis to gain information about the students' needs especially for ESP. Marjito (2006) analyzed the relevance of English materials to the students' needs of Islamic Educational Studies department. Qualitative case study was chosen as the research method and three instruments: questionnaire, interview, and document analysis were used. Firstly, the study revealed that the materials were not relevant to the stated objective of the teaching subject in the syllabus as well as in ESP context (too much focus on grammar rather than to the

specific needs of students). Secondly, the materials were relevant to the objective of syllabus and ESP theory.

Another researcher, Hadijah (2010), analyzed the relevance of English materials to the students' needs of Accounting Study Program in learning English. The study used qualitative case study and three instruments: questionnaire, interview, and document analysis. The study revealed that the respondents seemed to have different needs to learn four language skills and considered speaking as their first priority. The study also revealed that the students suggested that the English syllabus needed to be revised to create conducive teaching learning process and needed to be improved every year by involving more lecturers in their institution.

Additionally, Sari (2012) analyzed the students' needs for ESP class in a State Polytechnic in Lampung. The study used qualitative case study as research methodology and used three instruments: questionnaire, interview, and document analysis. The study revealed that students considered listening and speaking as difficult parts. From the findings, it would be beneficial to adjust the materials difficulties to the students' needs profile. The study also revealed the students' preferences in learning English skills that were 62.5% for reading, 16.7% for writing, 12.5% for listening, and 8.33% for speaking.

In relation to the aforementioned studies, the researcher was keen on conducting this study because at a non-regular class of a pharmacy study program of a school of pharmacy in Bandung the provided materials have not been analyzed whether or not they are relevant to the students' needs. So far, lecturer and school's perspective only decide the provided materials. At that school, English is taught for two semesters. One of the study programs, the Pharmacy study program, sets its own policy to have English for first and second semester students. English is a compulsory subject for both regular and non-regular *Diploma (D-III)* degrees.

With regard to this study, it attempted to focus on analyzing the relevance of English materials provided by the lecturer to the needs of the students. The result of this study is expected to give contribution in selecting appropriate teaching-

learning materials for the students, as well as to design appropriate syllabus by considering the students' needs.

Purpose of the Study

In relation to the background of the study, the purpose of the study was formulated as follows: 1) to analyze the needs of the students at the school in learning English and 2) to analyze the relevance of the syllabus and materials provided by the lecturer to the students' needs at the school.

Research Questions

The present study attempted to address the following questions:

1. What are the needs of the students at the school in learning English?
2. Are the syllabus and materials relevant to the needs of the students at the school?

Literature Review

Theory of ESP

Hutchinson and Waters (1987 cited in Miyake and Tremarco, 2005) consider ESP as an approach rather than a product that means that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. Strevens (1988 cited in Dudley-Evans and John, 1998) defines that ESP consists of English language teaching which is designed to meet specified needs of the learner. Meanwhile, Robinson (1991 cited in Dudley-Evans and John, 1998) defines that ESP is normally goal-directed which is developed from a needs analysis which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English.

Strevens in Dudley-Evans and John (1998, p.5) defines ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics. Strevens' definition makes a distinction between absolute and variable characteristics as follows:

Absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English language teaching which is

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 13);
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of the discourse;
- in contrast with 'General English' The variable characteristics are that ESP
- may be restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Basturkmen (2003), in response to the two ESP characteristics above, stated that there is a good deal of similarity between the two definitions above. The similarity is twofold: ESP courses are devised based on the specific work-related or academic needs of the learners and the courses offer descriptions of language use in the disciplines or occupations they serve.

Approaches to ESP Course Design

Different from models of general course design, models of ESP course design have different types and terms. Richard (2001, p. 252) mentions that the ESP course design should provide exposure to the specialized genres and registers of learners' field of study. Thus, the task of ESP course developer is to identify the needs of the learner and design a course around them (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 18).

In relation to its characteristics, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) make three divisions of models of ESP course design, which are *language-centered, skill-centered,* and *learning-centered*.

Syllabus

Experts bear various explanations about syllabi. According to Posner (1992, p. 5), the word syllabus is considered as "a plan for entire course". Furthermore, he stated that the plan of the syllabus normally includes several aspects such as the goals for the course, topics to be discussed in every meeting, resources or materials to be used in the course, assignments to be given to students, and evaluations strategies recommended.

Another definition comes from Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 80). They define a syllabus as a statement of what is to be learnt. It reflects language and linguistic performance. This is a rather traditional interpretation, focusing as it does on outcomes rather than process.

The third definition is from Dubin and Olshtain (1987). A syllabus, according to Dubin and Olshtain (1987, p.27-28), is regarded as "the vehicle through which policy-makers convey information to teachers, textbook writers, examination committees, and learners concerning the program."

The classification of syllabi has been discussed by Krahnke (1987), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Nunan (1989) and Harmer (2007). Below is the compilation and combination of the classification of types of syllabus from those experts.

1) Topic syllabus

   Topical syllabus is one that the content of language teaching is a collection of the topics of the language being taught. Examples of topics include any related topics to the field of study.

2) Structural/formal syllabus

   Structural/notional syllabus is one that the content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, typically grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples of structures include linguistic features.

3) Functional/notional syllabus

It is one that the content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used or the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include informing, agreeing, requesting, etc. Meanwhile, examples of structures include age, time, comparison, and so on.

4) Situational syllabus

It is one that the content of the language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. Examples of situations include at a drug store, at an office, at a bank and so on.

5) Skill-based syllabus

It is one that the content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Examples of skills include listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills.

6) Task-based syllabus

It is one that the content of the language teaching is a collection of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. Examples of tasks include applying for a job, talking with costumers, getting information over the telephone, and so on.

7) Content-based syllabus

It is one that the content of the language teaching is a collection of contents or information by using the language that the students are also learning. Examples of content-based syllabi are pharmacy classes taught in the language the students need or want to learn in order to make the field of study more comprehensible.

ESP Materials Development

Materials development is one of the parts in designing a course. According to Graves (2000, p. 39), materials development is "a matter of articulating what you will explicitly teach or explicitly focus on in the course and knowing why you have made those choices".

In 1993, Print proposes two approaches of materials selection: *subject-knowledge* and *process* approaches, which are described in a continuum (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Content selection continuum (adopted from Print, 1993, p. 143)

Subject-knowledge approach, according to Print (1993), emphasizes the process of learning on facts, principles, and definitions, generalizations, and so on found in the subjects. This claim that "content have its own intrinsic value based upon knowledge as determined by academic discipline" (Print, 1993, p. 143).

Meanwhile, *process* approach sees that "process really is the content and that knowledge is simply a fabric to place over the framework of skills (process)" (Print, 1993, p. 144). This approach claims that what should be obtained by students is the means to obtain and process knowledge which is regarded as skills; both conceptual and nature. Print gives an example related to process approach. Skills of research such as collecting data, analysis, synthesis, generalizing, and so on are the example of the integration of skills to the problem-solving process. This approach argues that "content in the form of past knowledge is moribund" (Print, ibid.). Furthermore, Print argues that such knowledge is out-of-date even before it is distributed in a form of a book.

In 1995, Brown proposes three strategies in doing materials selection. Those are *adapting, adopting,* or *developing*. In line with Brown (1995), Maley (1995b,

in Tomlinson, 2003, p. 281) and Harmer (2007, p.183) suggested the following options in adapting materials:

1) *Omission*: omitting a part(s) of particular materials, which is considered as inappropriate, unpleasant, fruitless, etc., for the students.
2) *Addition*: adding other materials to the available one either in the form of texts or exercise material.
3) *Reduction*: reducing materials.
4) *Extension*: extending the materials in order to give it an additional dimension.
5) *Rewriting/modification*: rewriting materials, especially exercise material, to make it more appropriate to their students, etc.
6) *Replacement*: materials that are considered unsuitable may be replaced by more material that is suitable.
7) *Re-ordering*: teachers may decide that the order in which the textbooks are presented is not suitable for their students.

ESP Materials Selection

Richards (2001), NCTE (1996), and Kitao (1997) have discussed the theory of criteria for selecting materials. The compilation of theory of criteria for selecting materials from those three experts should be relevant to the following things:

1) Connection to educational objectives
   It should be relevant to the educational objectives. In this study, English materials should connect to English educational objectives for pharmacy students.
2) Subject-matter knowledge
   It should be relevant to the knowledge of English and Pharmacy. Therefore, it should accommodate both English and Pharmacudical knowledge as the subject matter.

3) Students' proficiency levels

It should be relevant to the English proficiency levels of pharmacy students of non-regular *D-III* degree.

4) Students' needs

It should consider and be relevant to the needs of pharmacy students of non-regular *D-III* degree.

5) Current views on second language learning and teaching

It should consider and be relevant to current views on ELT especially in EFL views. It is because English in Indonesia is regarded as foreign language not as a second language.

6) Conventional wisdom

It should be relevant to conventional wisdom (rules) starting from Indonesian national curriculum and local curriculum (school's curriculum).

7) Convenience

It should accommodate convenience for the lecturer and students of pharmacy students of non-regular *D-III* degree.

Needs Analysis

Needs analyses are believed to be the most notable characteristic of ESP such as suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1987); Dubin and Olshtain (1987); Brown (1995); Dudley-Evans and John (1998); Nichols et. al., (2006); Harmer (2007); McGrath (2008); and Nation and Macalister (2010). Without needs analyses, an ESP program will only offer general English with the indeterminate flag of ESP (Alwasilah, 2001, p. 57). The importance of needs analyses are not only supported by theories, studies also prove so. Richards and Gravatt (1998) revealed a university needs analysis result about students' concern on their ability to participate in seminars and discussions in a university setting. Crosling and Ward (2001) describe a study to identify the oral communication demands that business graduates at an Australian university meet on entering the work place by using a needs analysis. Bosher and Smalkoski (2002) describe a study to determine why

ESL students enrolled on a nursing degree program in a US college were not succeeding academically by using a needs analysis. Sullivan and Girginer (2002) reported a course developed to teach English to pilots and navigators in Turkey by using a needs analysis. Bruce (2002) reports a course designed to focus on the specific needs of a group of law students in a university in Hong Kong by using a needs analysis.

Identifying Target Needs

In identifying target needs, Hutchinson and Waters (1987); Dubin and Olshtain (1987); Brown (1995); Miyake and Tremarco (2005); Harmer (2007); McGrath (2008); and Nation and Macalister (2010) propose to identify the target situation in terms of necessities, lack, and wants.

1) Necessities

   In terms of necessity, the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what the learner has to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. For example, a pharmacist might need to understand terms of health or pharmacy.

2) Lack

   It means the gap between the target proficiency with the students' existing proficiency. Therefore, teachers should decide which of the necessities the learners need instruction in doing something will depend on how well they can do it already.

3) Wants

   After identifying the lack, then we can identify wants. The term wants here refers to the wants of the students.

Methodology

Research Design

Qualitative case study was an ideal guiding framework to be employed in this study as it fits its characteristics which deal with 'a single or small-scale case' that is studied in detail (Connole, 1993 as cited in Emilia 2000; Gillham, 2000a; Stake, 1995 in Bassey, 1999; Silverman, 2005, p. 126; Lier, 2005; Dyson & Genishi, 2005 in Richards, 2011; Yin, 2011).

Hence, the result of qualitative case study cannot be generalized (Woods, 2006; Frankel and Wallen, 2007; O'Donoghue, 2007; Alwasilah, 2009), for other cases within the same topic or site of study. The case that was studied was the relevance of English materials to the needs of *D-III* degree Pharmacy students of non-regular class at a school of pharmacy in Bandung.

This study employed a descriptive method in describing the data because it can give a depth description from the subject's view toward phenomenon (Creswell, 1994). The descriptions were utilized to define the needs of the students that in turn becomes the basis in describing the analyzed syllabus and to define the relevance of the selected English materials and the needs of the students.

Site and Participants

The study was conducted at a non-regular *D-III* degree of pharmacy study program class of a school of pharmacy in Bandung – Indonesia. Nine students and an English lecturer were purposively chosen for this study.

Instruments

Three instruments were employed in this study. Those are questionnaires, interviews, and documents analysis.

Research Procedure

Details about the procedure of data collection are described in the following table:

Table 1.1 Data collection procedure

Instrument	**Data Source**	**Sample Size**
Questionnaire	2nd semester non-regular *D-III* degree students of pharmacy study program	9
Interview	2nd semester non-regular *D-III* degree students of pharmacy study program	3
	English lecturer	1
Document Analysis	ESP syllabus for pharmacy study program	1
	ESP materials for pharmacy study program	4 (*1 reading, 1 writing, 1 listening, 1 speaking*)

Findings and Discussion

In line with the purpose of this study, the findings of this study were to find out the students' needs profile in learning English and to analyze the relevance of the materials and the syllabus of English to the students' needs profile in learning English.

Students' Needs Profile

In relation to the students' needs as the answer to the first research question of this study, it was found that the findings from the interviews confirmed the findings from the questionnaires. Starting from students' personal information, the findings from both questionnaires and interview with the students and the lecturer revealed that the students' English proficiency is elementary. The lecturer said, "… the average of their (the students') proficiency is very low." Additionally, one of the students (Std. 1) responded, "I think my English proficiency is elementary." This

finding is important because by acknowledging the students' English proficiency the lecturer will have the basis to select the materials to match it to the students' personal information. It is in line with Brown (1995), Richards (2001), and Nation and Macalister (2010) who state that personal information of the students is a part of needs analysis that is important to be taken into account.

In terms of the students' lack, the findings from both the questionnaires and the interview revealed the same results. For listening skill, the students lack of grasping English pronunciation (7 students) and lack of English exposure (2 students). It can be seen from the interview transcription with one of the interviewees (Std.1) who said, "… it's difficult to understand what he/she pronounces about (in English). It's because of I'm rare to listen to English conversation." For reading skill, the students lack of pronouncing the words when they read English texts (6 students) and also lack of understanding the meaning of the words (3 students). It can be seen from the interview transcription with one of the interviewees (Std.2) who said, "… it's because the pronunciation for every word is different one another and also I don't know the meaning of the words." For speaking skill, the students lack of pronunciation (6 students) and lack of vocabulary (3 students). From the interview transcription, the first interviewee (Std.1) said, "… the limitation of my vocabulary, I want to say something but I don't know it in English." For writing skill, the students lack of grammar (4 students) and lack of vocabulary (5 students). The second interviewee (Std.2) said, "I don't know the grammar." Meanwhile the first interviewee (Std.1) said, "… vocabulary limitation."

Considering the results of the needs analysis on students' lack, as stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987); Dubin and Olshtain (1987); Brown (1995); Miyake and Tremarco (2005); Harmer (2007); McGrath (2008); and Nation and Macalister (2010), is important since it can acknowledge the gap between the target proficiency with the students' existing proficiency. Therefore, it will provide a framework that helps teachers to accomplish whatever combination of teaching activities and it helps the students to learn as efficiently and effectively as possible in the given situation (Brown, 1995, p. 19). Therefore, it will motivate

learners through providing achievable challenges and interesting contents (Richard, 2001).

In terms of the students' wants, the findings from both the questionnaires and the interview revealed the results that mainly confirmed each other. For students' wants of English skills, the findings from the interview showed that speaking was considered as the most important skill, listening in the second preference, the third was reading, and the last was writing. It was also supported by findings from interview with the lecturer who said, "… I'm saying the most necessary for them is speaking, because they work basically in pharmacy, so they need to communicate with people every day orally, so that is the most necessary for them."

For the students' wants in learning listening skills, from the interview, it was found that the students want to learn the listening micro-skills such as understanding the sentences of what someone else is talking about. Second, they want to understand words, topic, and the emotional reaction of someone who is talking with others.

For the students' wants in learning reading skills, from the interview data, it was found that the students want to learn the reading micro-skills such as the ability to identify main idea of a text, to understand the meaning of words, to be able to do scanning and skimming. These findings confirm findings from the questionnaire data.

For the students' wants in learning speaking skills, from the interview data, it was found that the students want to learn pronunciation, accuracy, fluency, and understanding the discourse. These findings confirm findings from the questionnaire data.

For the students' wants in learning writing skills, from the interview data, it was found that the students want to learn technical/vocational writing which is in the pharmaceutical field, academic writing, and personal writing. These findings confirm findings from the questionnaire data.

For the students wants in choosing topics for learning English, from the interview data, it was found that the students prefer topics such as pharmacy,

medicines, vaccines, illnesses, and receipt. These findings confirm findings from the questionnaire data.

The students' wants are important to be considered in the process of designing or redesigning a language course. It is in line with Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 57) who state that:

> Learners' wants in learning process cannot be ignored. Students' wants can give motivation in learning process. Some students are motivated to learn particular materials because they learn what they want to. Meanwhile, some students are not motivated because they learn what they do not want to learn. That is why the element of students' wants is one of the important elements to be considered in doing needs analysis.

Information of the students' wants can be considered as one of the basis for determining the objectives of the curriculum, selecting materials, and organizing materials (Taba, 1962 cited in Dubin and Olshtain, 1987, p. 2).

In relation to the findings and discussions of the second research question of this study, from the document analysis, it was found that the syllabus was relevant to the students' needs in which the type of syllabus was a combination of skills-based, topic-based, and structural/formal syllabus. It is in line with findings from the interview results with the lecturer who said that the type of the syllabus used for *English 1* was mainly a skills-based syllabus. The process of integrating more than one syllabus is intended to meet various needs of the students. In line with Far (2008) who states that, "no single type of syllabus is appropriate for all teaching settings." Therefore, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 51) state that "it is wise to take an eclectic approach, taking what is useful from each theory and trusting also in the evidence of your own experience as a teacher."

In terms of the number of language skills composition in the syllabus, it can be seen that speaking is the most highlighted skill to be taught with 10 (ten) topics for the whole semester. In the second place, listening skill is arranged with 6 (six) topics for the whole semester. At the third and fourth place, reading and writing are arranged with 4 (four) topics for each skill. These findings on the language skills composition are relevant to the needs of the students. It can be seen from the

other findings from the questionnaire and interview results with the students in which the preference of the students' needs in learning English based on language skills (from the most important to not important) are speaking, listening, writing, and the last is reading. It is good because one of the ESP characteristics, according to Strevens in Evan & Dudley (1998) is designed to meet specific needs of the learners.

Meanwhile, in terms of choice of topics in the syllabus, it can be said that the choice of topics generally is not relevant to the students' needs. Only one topic is relevant: "*at the chemist*". From the interview and questionnaire results, it can be seen that the students preferred to choose topics such as pharmacy, medicines, vaccines, illnesses, and receipts. According to Evans and John (1998), ESP is designed related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities.

The Relevance of English 1 Syllabus and Materials to the Students' Needs

The listening material was in the form of song lyrics with some blanks in some parts of it that should be filled out by the students during the listening session. The lecturer adapted both printed and audio materials in teaching listening. It is in line with the theory from Hutchinson and Waters, (1987, p. 108) and Richards (2001, p.251) who state that teacher can use *printed materials* (books, workbooks, worksheets, or readers), *non-printed materials* (cassette, audio, video, or computer-based materials), or comprise bot of those kinds of materials. However, it was not relevant to the syllabus and to the students' needs in terms of the choice of topic as gained from the questionnaires and interviews. Strevens (cited in Evans and John, 1998, p.3) stated that, in ESP context, the materials should be related in content, theme and topic to the students' needs. Krahnke (1987), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Richards (2001), and Harmer (2007) suggest teachers to select related topics to the students' needs in ESP context.

The reading material was in the form of texts adopted from the internet. It is theoretically relevant since Brown (1995) stated that teachers could adapt, adopt, or develop materials for the students. The topic of the texts was about antibiotics

which is relevant to the students' needs profile in which the students' background was pharmacy and they wanted to learn reading in the area of pharmacy. Although it was relevant to the students' needs, the reading materials given to the students were not relevant to the syllabus. In the syllabus, there was no topic about antibiotics listed on it. Posner (1992, p. 5) stated that the plan of the syllabus normally includes several aspects such as the goals for the course, topics to be discussed in every meeting, resources or materials to be used in the course, assignments to be given to students, and evaluations strategies recommended. Therefore, the topic listed on the syllabus should be relevant with the topic to be discussed in the class.

The speaking material was about describing someone's physical appearance. The speaking materials also teach vocabulary to the students. The vocabularies are some adjective words that are usually used in describing someone's physical appearance. By considering the students' needs profile gained from the questionnaires and interviews, such materials were not relevant to the students' needs in terms of the choice of topic and it was not relevant to the syllabus. Tomlinson (2003, p. 97) stated a suggestion for teachers that one of the processes in developing materials in ESP context is to find suitable ideas, contexts or texts with which to work.

The writing material was in the form of a task in which the students were asked to write several sentences in the form of descriptive text to describe someone. By considering the students' needs profile, such material was not relevant to the students' needs and to the syllabus. With regard to students' needs profile gained from the questionnaire and interview, students want to learn technical/vocational writing that is pharmacy field, academic writing, and personal writing. Richards (2001), NCTE (1996), and Kitao (1997) suggest teachers select materials that are relevant to the needs of the students.

Conclusion

Based on the findings and analysis described in the previous sections, the present study arrived at these conclusions. The first research question focused on finding

out the students' needs. The analysis revealed the students' needs: students' necessities, lack, and wants. In terms of students' necessities, it was found that the students should be able to communicate in English in general and in a specific field, which is pharmacy. In terms of students' lack, it was found that all the students had problems in all English language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Primarily, it was found that the students had problem in pronunciation, word recognition, and lack of exposure. In terms of students' wants, it was found that the students wanted to learn specific micro-skills in all English language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing in order to help them to be better in learning English.

The second research question focused on finding out the relevance of the syllabus and the materials with the students' needs. In general, the syllabus provided by the lecturer was relevant to the students' needs since the syllabus was designed mainly under the skills-based approach but then from the analysis, it was found that the syllabus was designed in a combination model of skills-based and topical-based types. In terms of the materials selection, the lecturer provided the materials by adoption, adaptation, and development. The materials provided by the lecturer, generally, were not relevant to the students' needs because the materials were not related to, or it can even be said that the materials were far from the students' field of study. It was found that the listening material was adopted from song lyrics that was not relevant to the students' needs. The reading material was adopted from the internet, which was relevant to the students' needs. The lecturer developed the speaking material but they were not relevant to the students' needs. The writing material was a task-based model but it was not relevant to the students' needs.

Suggestions

With regard to the results of this study, it is recommended that the syllabus and the materials used and provided by the lecturer to be revised and adjusted to the students' needs as presented and discussed in Section III of this study.

Finally, for the researchers who are willing to conduct similar studies, it is suggested to involve users or industries that will use or hire the students when

they graduate from the schools to gain more students' necessities as one of the elements of the students' needs.

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Bi-directional Transfer of Narrative Skills: Analysis of the "Frog Story" of Chinese EFL Learners[1]

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Abstract

Language transfer in second language acquisition has traditionally been regarded uni-directional, that is, influence from L1 to L2. However, in recent years more and more research has suggested that cross-linguistic influence can occur bi-directionally and that there is an intricate relationship between the L2 user's language systems. Most of these studies have mainly focused on the linguistic competence of the L2 user. An interesting but rarely explored area is the L2 user's narrative competence, which extends beyond language ability. The present study attempted to address the issue of bi-directionality of language transfer in narrative competence among foreign language learners. Using the "frog story" picture book as a prompt, the present study examined oral narratives of Chinese EFL learners and compared them to those of English and Chinese native speakers. The subjects' narrative renditions were compared in terms of the use of narrative structure, evaluative devices, and referential strategies. The results evidenced bi-directional transfer in the EFL learners' narrative skills. Moreover, the EFL learners appeared to differentiate their two narrative repertoires to some extent, particularly in the use of referential strategies. The results of the study provided insights into the characterization of the multi-competence (i.e., two languages in one mind) of the foreign language learner.

Key Words: oral narrative, narrative skills, bi-directional transfer

Introduction

Language transfer in second language acquisition (SLA) has traditionally been regarded as a uni-directional influence of native language (L1) knowledge on the acquisition and use of a second language (L2) (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 1992; Odlin, 1989). A wealth of studies has shown that language learners' L2 competence and performance are indeed influenced by their mother tongues (e.g., Aoyama, Flege, Guron, Akahane-Yamada, & Yamada, 2004; Jarvis, 2002; Jiang, 2004; Jin, 1994; Liu, Bates, & Li, 1992; Pavlenko & Driagina, 2007). In recent years, however, more and more research has shown that language transfer can work bi-directionally, not only

from L1 to L2 but also from L2 to L1, and that L2 users or learners have a unique configuration of their L1 and L2, which is distinct from that of monolinguals. Cook (1991) has referred to the unique compound state of mind of the L2 user[2] as *multi-competence*, and asserted that L2 users have different minds from monolinguals and should be treated in their own right. He further contended that the focus of second language acquisition research should be discovering the unique characteristics of L2 users, rather than focusing on their deficiencies compared with native speakers (Cook, 2003).

The concept of multi-competence has inspired many SLA researchers to explore the linguistic representations of L2 users and discover the differences between L2 users and native speakers. Research has probed L2 users' multi-competence at various linguistic levels, ranging from phonology, lexico-semantics, morpho-syntax, pragmatics, to writing discourse (e.g., Brown & Gullberg, 2013; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2012; Malt, Pavlenko, & Ameel, 2015; Mennen, 2004; Pavlenko & Jarvis, 2002; Su, 2010). These studies have shown that there is complex interaction between the L2 user's two language systems, and that the L2 users' knowledge and use of either of their languages is distinguishable from that of monolinguals. For instance, Su (2010) examined Chinese EFL learners' requesting behaviors in their two languages and compared them to those of native speakers. She found that Chinese EFL learners used more direct strategies (e.g., *Turn down the music!*) than English native speakers when making requests in English, but at the same time, they adopted more conventionally indirect strategies (e.g., *Could you turn down the music?*) than Chinese native speakers in making Chinese requests. Moreover, Su found that the learners separated their two pragmatic repertoires in terms of strategy use; they adopted conventionally indirect strategies significantly more often in English than in Chinese. Brown and Gullberg (2013) investigated the expressions of motion events (e.g., *roll down*) among Japanese EFL learners. They found the Japanese learners adopted the similar constructions in describing motion in their two languages, evidencing convergence of their two languages. The findings of these

[2] According to Cook (1991), the term *L2 users* refer to people who know and use a second language at any level, including L2 learners.

and other multi-competence studies together have suggested that there is an intricate relationship between the L2 user's language systems, and that the pattern of interaction between the L2 user's two languages may vary across different levels of linguistic representation.

Among the research that has probed the multi-competence of L2 users, relatively few studies have looked into L2 users' narrative competence. Narrative is a culture-sensitive discourse genre which differs across languages and cultures (Hymes, 1974). Producing appropriate narrative discourse requires not only linguistic knowledge but also knowledge about the socio-cultural norms and preferred discourse style in the target language and culture. Thus, narrative provides a good test case to examine the interface between two languages and cultures within a bilingual narrator's single mind. Su and Chou (2016) is one of the few attempts that explored transfer in narrative competence from a multi-competence perspective. They explored the issue of cultural transfer in narrative styles by examining Chinese EFL learners' written personal experience narratives in their L1 and L2. Transfer from both directions was observed in their study. L1 influence on L2 narration was evident in that the Chinese EFL learners provided a prologue and a coda significantly more often than the English native controls. Moreover, the advanced learners produced significantly more reported speech than the English native controls in their English narratives. Influence from L2 to L1 was less noticeable and observed mainly among the advanced learners. Su and Chou found that the advanced learners seemed to have picked up the American style of evaluation and produced significantly more evaluative remarks than the Chinese native controls in their Chinese narratives. More interestingly, the advanced learners appeared to have merged the narrative styles of their two languages; they followed the L1-specific narrative structure and use of evaluative devices and the L2 style of giving evaluative comments in their writing of personal narratives in their two languages.

Su and Chou's (2016) study suggested that EFL learners' narrative competence is susceptible to bi-directional cross-linguistic influence and that the advanced learner's narrative repertoires of their two languages may form an interconnected system instead of independent systems, thus lending support to the multi-competence view of second language acquisition. Although Su and Chou's

study contributed to our understanding of the multi-competence of foreign language learners with respect to narrative competence, their study is not without limitation. Since the study was intended to explore the issue of bi-directional cultural transfer in narrative styles, the authors' analysis primarily focused on the use of narrative structure and evaluative language in the participants' written personal stories, which present only partial components of narrative skills. The issue of how foreign language learners employ linguistic devices to achieve discourse cohesion was not addressed. The present study was undertaken to further explore bi-directional transfer in narrative skills by adopting a picture story task. Using the wordless picture book "*Frog, where are you?*" (Mayer, 1969) as a prompt, the present study investigated Chinese EFL leaners' use of narrative structure, evaluative language, and cohesive devices in their oral renditions of the story in their L1 and L2, and compared that to the narratives of English and Chinese native controls. In regard to cohesive devices, we particularly looked at referential strategies that the participants adopted to refer to the protagonist of the story to achieve discourse cohesion. The goal of this study is to shed more light on the characterization of the multi-competent mind of the foreign language learner.

Literature Review

People learn to tell stories, fictional or personal, from an early age. Although narrative is one of the basic discourse forms found in all cultures, research has shown that languages vary in the way people tell stories. A narrative construction contains three interrelated narrative components, namely, structure, evaluation, and cohesion (Pavlenko, 2006). Cross-linguistic comparisons in narratives and studies on L2 narratives have mainly centered on these three components.

Narrative Structure

When telling stories, narrators need to integrate the information and organize the content into a culturally defined sequence to facilitate listeners' comprehension of the story's content. Researchers have attempted to construct the general principles or rules that characterize structurally well-formed stories. Among them, Labov and Waletzky (1967) proposed a narrative model that has been widely adopted in

narrative research. According to Labov and Waletzky, the basic structure of stories comprises the following components: *abstract* (summarizes the whole story at the beginning of a narrative), *orientation* (identifies the characters, place, and time of the story), *complicating action* (indicates what happened), *resolution* (how the problem gets resolved), *evaluation* (provides the narrator's interpretations of the characters and the event), and *coda* (indicates the end of the story). Cross-cultural investigations on narratives have shown that narratives produced by different language groups have a similar global structure, but the ways in which cultures use these components may differ. For instance, Asian narrators are more reserved than American narrators in giving evaluative comments, but they are more inclined to provide a moral coda than their American counterparts (Han, Leichtman, & Wang, 1998; Mullen & Yi, 1995; Wang & Leichtman, 2000; Wang, Leichtman, & Davies, 2000).

Previous research on L2 narration has indicated that L2 learners tend to carry their L1 narrative styles into L2 narration (Kang, 2003, 2006; Lee, 2003; McClure, Mir, & Cadierno, 1993; Söter, 1988; Su & Chou, 2016). Lee (2003), for instance, examined the written narratives of Chinese adult learners of English from Hong Kong and compared them to those of English native speakers. The participants were asked to write a story in English based on a series of pictures. Lee found that Chinese learners produced more coda clauses with reference to moral messages than English native speakers did by telling readers what they should or should not do. A similar finding was also reported in Su and Chou's (2016) study of Chinese EFL learners' written personal experience narratives. Su and Chou found the Chinese EFL learners tended to conclude their stories by sharing what they learned from the incident they had experienced, or providing extended reflections upon the stories. Kang (2003) compared the oral narratives produced by Korean learners of English and English native speakers. The subjects were asked to tell a story based on Mayer's picture book *Frog, where are you?* Kang found that Korean students produced significantly less evaluative clauses than English native speakers. She suggested that Korean narrators, influenced by Korean cultural tradition, were more conservative in making explicit evaluative comments than American narrators (cf. Han et al., 1998; Mullen & Yi, 1995).

Evaluative Language

In addition to the basic narrative structural components, evaluative language is also an integral part of narrative construction (Labov, 1972). According to Labov, a narrative includes not only narrative clauses that describe what happened but also evaluative clauses that convey the narrator's attitude toward the events and let the listener know why the narrative is told. In a fictional narrative such as a story based on a series of pictures, evaluative language refers to the linguistic expressions which convey information about the narrator's interpretations of the protagonists' motives and reactions to events, as well as inferences about story character's mental states such as emotions, thoughts, and intentions.

There is little agreement in the narrative literature regarding the types of evaluative expressions to be analyzed. Different researchers (Bamberg & Damrad-Frye, 1991; Labov & Waletzky, 1967; Peterson & McCabe, 1983; Shiro, 2003) have proposed somewhat different classifications of evaluative devices for narrative analysis. Although the categorization systems vary, in general the evaluative devices commonly analyzed in previous narrative studies include expressions of emotion (e.g., The boy was *worried*), cognition (representing thought or beliefs, e.g., He *wondered*…), physical state (referring to the character's internal state, e.g., He was *tired*), reported speech (e.g., He said to the dog, "*Shhh, be quiet.*"), hedge (a strategy to indicate the narrator's uncertainty, e.g., He *seemed to* be lost), repetitions for effect (e.g., He looked *again and again*), and intensifier (emphasizing a particular aspect of the event or character, e.g., He was *very* angry).

Cross-cultural investigations on narratives have indicated that the use of evaluative expressions varies across languages and cultures. For instance, Asian narrators are more conservative than American narrators when using evaluative language, especially references to emotional states (Bamberg & Damrad-Frye, 1991; Han et al., 1998; Kang, 2003). Studies examining the use of evaluative devices in L2 narratives are scanty. Kang (2003) reported that Korean students' English narratives included fewer hedges and fewer references to character delineations than English native speakers'. Su and Chou (2016) found that advanced Chinese EFL learners, influenced by their L1 narrative style, produced significantly more reported speech than English native speakers in their English

written personal narratives. The authors observed that, like the L1 Chinese native controls, more Chinese EFL learners than English native speakers included secondary characters such as family members, friends, and others, in their stories, and that the Chinese learners often made references to the interactions with the other characters in their stories. The ability of constructing reported speech in English was also found to be related to learners' proficiency level.

Referential Cohesion

To develop a cohesive story in which information is properly related, narrators use a variety of linguistic devices, such as referential devices, temporal markers, and causal connectives to tie a span of sentences together to form a whole. In contrast to the use of narrative structure and evaluative language, which is culturally determined, cohesive devices have more to do with the linguistic structure of the narrator's language. Among these cohesive devices, referential devices are the most commonly used among languages as referential coherence is considered to be the primary mechanism of coherence in discourse in most languages (Chafe, 1979). In order to convey information explicitly to the listener, a narrator needs to use a variety of referential forms to mark the information status of an entity in discourse. The selection of referring expressions is based on the level of shared knowledge the speaker has with his or her listeners. When a referent is new to the listener, the speaker marks this newness, for instance, through the form of indefinite nominals in English (Chafe, 1976), or through bare nominals in post-verbal position or nominlas with numeral classifiers in Chinese (Li & Thompson, 1981). For subsequent mentions of a repeated referent, it is conveyed in "a weaker and more attenuated manner than new information" (Chafe, 1976), such as pronominals or zero anaphora.

Although markings of information status of an entity are available in all languages, the way referential markings are employed varies across languages. Transfer of referring expressions is observed in L2 learners whose two languages belong to different typological parameters (Chen & Lei, 2013; Jin, 1994; Kang, 2004; Paradis & Navarro, 2003; Serratrice, Sorace, & Paoli, 2004). Serratrice et al. (2004), for instance, investigated cross-linguistic influence in the distribution of overt and null subjects in the Italian discourse of a young English-Italian

bilingual child. Their study showed that overall the bilingual child was sensitive to the appropriate use of overt and null subjects in Italian; however, the child tended to use a number of pragmatically infelicitous overt pronominal subjects in Italian contexts where null subjects would have been appropriate. The authors attributed the linguistic performance of the bilingual child in the L2 to influence from L1 English because English requires overt subjects, whereas Italian is a pro-drop language where the subject of a sentence is omitted if the subject is co-referential with a topic antecedent. Kang (2004) also provided evidence of cross-linguistic influence in the use of referential strategies by comparing the referring expressions produced by Korean adult learners of English and by English native speakers. Korean referential systems rely heavily on nominals even when characters have been mentioned previously and remain in the central plot. Kang found that in contrast to English native speakers who preferred to use pronominals to refer to the story characters after their first mention, Korean learners preferred to use full noun phrases, which showed signs of L1 transfer.

The present study investigated Chinese EFL learners' use of referential strategies as part of their narrative skills in their two languages, and so a comparison of referential devices of Chinese and English is in order. English and Chinese differ in the availability and distribution of referential forms and also vary in the particular optional and obligatory markings they provide for information status. The referential markings are rather systematic in English. English speakers make extensive use of indefinite and definite articles (i.e., *a/an* and *the*) in noun phrases to mark the distinction between new and given information. On the other hand, Chinese does not have words that correspond to the indefinite and definite articles in English, and so the new-given distinction in Chinese is not simply defined by the use of either article. Noun phrases with numerals and classifiers are used to present new information, while demonstrative nominals, pronominals, and zero anaphora are used to denote given information (Li & Thompson, 1981).

In addition to the differences in referential markings, Chinese differs from English in that English is a subject-prominent language, and Chinese is a topic-prominent language. In topic-prominent languages, the concept of topic is crucial and subjects are not obligatory elements of the sentence (Li & Thompson, 1981).

One feature of topic-prominent language is the use of null subjects. When a noun phrase in the position of subject could be inferred from what has already been said, speakers of English usually use a pronoun to replace this noun phrase; however, speakers of Chinese often leave the noun phrase completely unspecified. The omission of a noun phrase is referred to as zero anaphora.

Research Questions

The present study attempted to explore bi-directional transfer in the narrative competence of Chinese EFL learners. The following questions were addressed:

(1) To what extent do Chinese EFL learners exhibit forward transfer (i.e., transfer from L1 to L2) in their narrative styles in terms of the use of narrative structure and evaluative devices, and in utilizing referential strategies in their English narratives?

(2) To what extent do Chinese EFL learners display backward transfer (i.e., transfer from L2 to L1) in their narrative styles in terms of the use of narrative structure and evaluative devices, and in utilizing referential strategies in their Chinese narratives?

(3) Do Chinese EFL learners separate or merge the narrative skills of their two languages when telling the story in their L1 and L2?

Method

Participants

The L2 learner subjects in the present study were two groups of Chinese EFL learners varying in their English proficiency levels. L2 learners with different proficiency levels were included in order to see if the relationship between L2 learners' two narrative systems varies as a function of language proficiency. English and Chinese native speakers were also recruited to provide base-line data, against which L2 learners' narratives were compared to identify transfer from both directions. In total there were four groups of participants, with 15 people in each group. All subjects aged between 20-30 years old.

English native speakers were Americans who had been working in Taiwan for one to two years by the time of the study; they spoke little Chinese and were not familiar with any other foreign languages. Chinese-speaking participants were

recruited from Taiwan. Since English is a mandatory subject in the primary and secondary education in Taiwan[3], and so it is nearly impossible to find Chinese native speakers who do not know English at all to serve as controls. To minimize the influence of English on Chinese, we attempted to recruit Chinese speakers who had limited English proficiency to serve as native controls. A mock TOEFL test (paper version) was administered to all Chinese-speaking participants, and they were divided into three groups according to their scores on the proficiency test: Chinese native controls (average 370), intermediate EFL learners (average 480), and advanced EFL learners (average 600). None of the EFL learners had stayed at an English-speaking country for more than 6 months by the time of the study.

Instrument and Procedure

The wordless picture book "*Frog, where are you?*" by Mayer (1969) was used as a prompt to elicit oral narratives from the participants. The book contains 24 pictures, depicting the adventure of a boy accompanied by his dog in search of his missing pet frog. This picture book has been used widely in narrative research (e.g., Berman & Slobin, 1994).

Subjects were tested individually in a quiet room. They were first asked to look through the whole picture book to get a sense of what the story is about. After that, they were asked to tell the story to the researcher with the picture book available to them. All the narratives produced by the subjects were audio-recorded.

English and Chinese native controls told the story in their respective native language. The two groups of EFL learners narrated the story in their two languages on different days with three weeks apart; this was to avoid a carryover effect. The order of English and Chinese storytelling was counterbalanced within each learner group; half of the EFL learners in each group told the story in English first and Chinese second, and vice versa for the other half of the learners. This procedure was intended to eliminate the language order effect.

[3] In the past, English education in Taiwan began at junior high school. In 2001 English education started to be implemented in the fifth-grade of elementary school and from the third-grade by 2005.

Data Analysis

All the narratives were transcribed. The subjects' narrative production was analyzed in terms of length, narrative structure, evaluative devices, and referential strategies. The length of a narrative was measured in terms of the number of clauses, which is defined as a unit containing a single verbal element and its corresponding unified predicate (Berman & Slobin, 1994). Based on Labov's narrative model and the sequence of the events depicted in the frog story, the narrative structure was analyzed in terms of the following components: **orientation** (i.e., giving information about the place, time and character); **initiating events** (i.e., indicating why and how the adventure in search for the missing frog gets started), **elaboration** (i.e., indicating what happened during the adventure), **resolution** (i.e., indicating how the search ended), **evaluation** (i.e., narrator's interpretations and judgments of the story characters' mental states, emotions, actions, etc.), and **coda** (i.e., indicating the end of the story). Each clause in the narrative was coded as fulfilling one of the above narrative functions.

As for the analysis of evaluative language, we adopted an adapted version of coding scheme based on Peterson and McCabe's (1983) and Shiro's (2003) classifications. The evaluative devices used by the participants were categorized into eight categories: (1) **emotion**, expressing affect, emotion (e.g., The boy was *surprised*); (2) **cognition**, representing thought, beliefs (e.g., He *wondered* where the frog was); (3) **perception**, referring to anything that is perceived through the senses (e.g., He *heard* sounds coming from the other side of the log); (4) **physical state**, referring to a character's internal state, which is physical rather than emotional (e.g., The boy was *tired*); (5) **intention**, referring to a character's intention of carrying out some action (e.g., He *decided* to look for the frog in the forest); (6) **reported speech**, referring to the character's words, including direct speech (e.g., He said to the dog, "*Be quiet.*"), and indirect speech (e.g., The boy told the dog *to be quiet*); (7) **hedge**, indicating the narrator's uncertainty, which makes the narrator's utterances less assertive (e.g., He thought that *maybe* the frog was inside the hole), and (8) **intensifier**, strengthening a particular aspect of the event or character (e.g., The boy is *very* happy to see his lost frog).

In regard to the analysis of referential strategies, the present study examined

only the referent forms referring to the protagonist (i.e., the boy) as he appeared throughout the whole story. Our analysis concentrated on the referent forms the participants used to refer to the protagonist after his first mention, that is, the referential strategies the participants employed to maintain reference. The referring expressions used by the native controls and EFL learners were categorized into one of the four referent forms: (1) **zero anaphora** (e.g., Soon he became tired…and *Ø* went to sleep), (2) **pronouns** (e.g., The boy woke up and *he* looked all over his room), (3) **full noun phrases** (e.g., *The boy* looked everywhere…), and (4) **names** (e.g., When *Steven* was sleeping, Robbie escaped).

The researcher and a trained assistant coded the data independently. To calculate inter-rater reliability, 50% of the data were randomly selected and compared. The inter-rater agreement for narrative structural components, evaluative devices, and referential expressions was 93%, 90%, and 95%, respectively.

For data analysis, we examined whether the EFL learners differed from the native controls in their emphasis on certain structural components and in their preference of certain types of evaluative devices and referential forms. We calculated the proportion of each narrative structural component and frequency of each type of evaluative device and referential strategy in the participants' narratives, and compared the frequency usage of each of these narrative features of EFL learners' narratives to that of the native controls'. The proportion of each structural component was derived by dividing the number of clauses devoted to one certain component by the total number of clauses in a narrative. In regards to evaluative devices, we measured the relative frequency of each type of evaluative device by dividing the number of one certain kind of evaluative device by the total number of evaluative devices in each rendition. As for referential strategies, we calculated the relative frequency of each type of referential strategy by dividing the number of one certain kind of referent form by the total number of the referent forms in the participants' narratives. Independent-samples *t*-tests and one-way ANOVAs were conducted to test if there were significant group differences between the native control groups and among the EFL learners and the native controls, respectively. Finally, a series of paired-samples *t*-tests was administered within each EFL learner group to compare learners' use of each of the three

narrative features in their two languages to see if learners differentiated or merged the narrative repertories of their two languages. The significant *p* value was set at .05.

Results and Discussion

Comparing the Frog Stories of English and Chinese Native Speakers Narrative Length and Structure.

Regarding the length of narratives, English native speakers produced significantly more clauses than their Chinese counterparts ($t(28)=2.69$, $p=.01$); on average, English native speakers (ENSs) produced 78.93 clauses, and Chinese native speakers (CNSs) 57.93 clauses. In terms of the narrative structure, there was no significant difference in the proportion of each structural component between the control groups in their narratives except for the "evaluation" category ($t(28)=1.57$, $p=.05$). ENSs' narratives contained a larger proportion of evaluative clauses than CNSs' (23.99% vs. 18.88%). The English native speakers were more expressive than the Chinese native speakers in their interpretations and judgments of the story characters' mental states, motives, and actions. This finding is in accord with previous research which reported that Asian narrators are more reserved than American narrators in providing evaluative remarks (Han et al., 1998; Kang, 2003; Mullen & Yi, 1995). Some examples of the evaluations in ENSs' narratives are given below.

(1) "It looks like this little boy found a frog outside, and he is very happy about his new discovery. Um… the dog looks skeptical, though."
(2) "Um… Steven started to worry because for many months, he has been worried that Robbie was unhappy at him and maybe this is why he had left."
(3) "This dog is pretty useless. All he does is cause trouble and bark at things."

It is also noted that contrary to the previous studies which showed that Asian narrators tend to include a coda, especially a moral coda, in the narratives (Ho, 2001; Lee, 2003; Su & Chou, 2016; Wang & Leichtman, 2000), the present study

found few Chinese native controls included a coda in their stories. This may have to do with the type of narrative task adopted in the present study. The prompt to elicit narratives in the study was a picture story which depicts a boy's adventure to relocate his missing frog. A story like this may not induce narrators' reflection on moral or social values like personal experience narratives do.

Evaluative devices.

Table 1 presents the mean frequencies of the eight types of evaluative devices in the English and Chinese narratives produced by the native controls. As seen in the table, the English and Chinese native controls differed in the frequencies of cognition expressions, reported speech, hedges, and intensifiers. ENSs produced significantly more expressions referring to cognition, and used more hedges and intensifiers than CNSs, while CNSs used significantly more reported speech than their English counterparts. However, in contrast to the previous findings that Asian narrators were more constrained than American narrators in giving references to characters' emotional states (Han et al, 1998; Kang, 2003; Mullen & Yi, 1995), no difference was found in the frequency count of the "emotion" category between the Chinese and English native speakers.

Table 1

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Evaluative Devices by L1 Control Groups

	ENSs (n=15)	CNSs (n=15)	*t*-test	
	%	%	*t*	*p*
Emotion	17.60	16.07	0.39	*ns*
Cognition	9.0	3.20	2.72	.012
Perception	25.80	32.27	-1.38	*ns*
Physical state	2.47	0.53	2.23	*ns*
Intention	7.93	6.73	0.42	*ns*
Reported speech	14.73	36.67	-3.50	.002
Hedge	12.13	1.80	3.93	.001
Intensifier	10.47	2.73	2.76	.010

Compared to CNSs, English native controls used more expressions of cognition such as "he *wondered*", "he *realized*" to describe the characters' thoughts and doubts. ENSs used hedges such as "*looked like*", "*maybe*", "*probably*" more often than Chinese native controls to make their utterances less assertive. They also used intensifiers such as "*very*", "*so*" '*really*" more frequently

than their Chinese counterparts to draw the listener's attention to a specific aspect of the event or character. Chinese native speakers, on the other hand, provided more reported speech than English native speakers when telling stories. A further analysis of the data showed that CNSs used significantly more direct speech than ENSs (28.9% vs. 10.9%, $t(28)=-3.14$, $p=.004$). Most of the direct speech statements in the CNSs' narratives were "*Frog, where are you?*", but it is interesting to note that some of them were the characters' inner speech; the narrators sounded out the inner thought of the characters by use of direct speech report to create an entertaining effect for the listener. Below are some samples of the characters' inner speech in CNSs' narratives.

(4) 這時候，麋鹿抬頭一看：「嗯？怎麼會有一個小男孩在我頭上？」

Zhè shíhòu, mílù táitóu yī kàn: 'Ń? Zěnme huì yǒu yīgè xiǎonánhái zài wǒ tóushàng?'

"At this moment, the elk looked up (and thought), 'Ń?, how come there is a boy on my head?'"

(5) 這時候，小男孩聽到，「嗯？奇怪，怎麼會有青蛙聲，在那邊唱歌？」

Zhè shíhòu, xiǎonánhái tīngdào, 'Ń? Qíguài, zěnme huì yǒu qīngwā shēng, zài nà biān chànggē?'

"At this moment, the boy heard (and thought), 'Ń? weird, how come there is sound of frogs, singing over there?'"

Referential strategies.

Table 2

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Referential Strategies by L1 Control Groups

	ENSs (n = 15)	CNSs (n = 15)	t-test	
	%	%	*t*	*p*
Zero anaphora	14.23	40.17	-6.52	.000
Pronouns	46.84	14.82	4.38	.000
Noun phrases	27.36	41.99	-1.62	*ns*
Names	11.57	3.03	1.45	*ns*

Table 2 displays the mean percentages of the four referent forms used by English and Chinese native controls to refer to the protagonist of the story (i.e., the boy) after his first mention. As shown, CNSs used zero anaphora significantly more often than ENSs ($t(28)= -6.52$, $p=.000$). This is an anticipated result, as Chinese is a topic-prominent language which allows speakers to use zero pronouns to substitute the noun phrases that can be inferred from the discourse context. English, on the other hand, imposes more restrictions on the use of zero anaphora. The following are some examples of Chinese native speakers' use of zero anaphora. Zero anaphora is marked as "Ø" in the examples.

(6) 當小男孩和小狗起床時，**Ø** 發現青蛙不在罐子裡面，於是 **Ø** 開始翻箱倒櫃地找。

Dāng xiǎonánhái hé xiǎogǒu qǐchuáng shí, **Ø** fāxiàn qīngwā bùzài guànzi lǐmiàn, yúshì **Ø** kāishǐ fānxiāngdǎoguì de zhǎo

"When (the) little boy and the dog woke up, **Ø** found the frog was not in the jar, so **Ø** started to look for it everywhere."

(7) 可是男孩不放棄，**Ø** 繼續地找，**Ø** 爬上了大樹，**Ø** 對著洞口喊：「小青蛙，你在

哪裡？」

Kěshì nánhái bù fàngqì, **Ø** jìxùde zhǎo, **Ø** páshàngle dàshù, **Ø** duìzhe dòngkǒu hǎn: "Xiǎo qīngwā, nǐ zài nǎlǐ?"

"But (the) boy didn't give up, **Ø** continued to look, **Ø** climbed the big

tree, **Ø** yelled at the hole 'Frog, where are you?'"

Statistical analyses also revealed that ENSs used pronouns significantly more frequently than CNSs ($t(28)=4.38$, $p=.000$). As seen in Table 2, among all the referring expressions, pronouns were the most favored ones for ENSs when they referred to the protagonist, while CNSs employed noun phrases most frequently among all the referent types. Although the statistical analysis did not indicate significant difference between the two control groups on the use of noun phrases for reference maintenance, we can see that CNSs used noun phrases more frequently than their English counterparts (41.99% vs. 27.36%). A further analysis indicated that the two control groups exhibited certain tendency in their selection of noun phrase types. The noun phrases (NP) used by the participants can be divided into five types, namely, indefinite NPs (*a boy*), definite NPs (*the boy*), demonstratives (*this boy*), possessives (*his dog*), and bare nouns (*boy*). We found that definite NPs (98.61%) were the most favored noun phrase type for ENSs, while CNSs preferred bare nouns (94.74%) (see Table 3). English and Chinese native controls' differential preference for noun phrase types for reference maintenance can be attributed to the restrictions on the use of noun phrases in English and Chinese. In English, bare nonimals are prohibited in the subject position and English speakers rely on indefinite and definite nominals to distinguish new-given information. Chinese, on the other hand, does not have indefinite and definite articles, and Chinese speakers generally use bare nominals to both introduce and maintain references (Li & Thompson, 1991).

Table 3

Percentages (%) of Different Types of Noun Phrases (NPs) Referring to the Protagonist in L1 Control Groups

	ENSs (n = 15)	CNSs (n = 15)
Indefinite NPs	0.69	1.17
Definite NPs	98.61	0
Demonstratives	0	2.92
Possessives	0.69	1.17
Bare nouns	0	94.74

Note. Because Chinese is a language without indefinite articles, noun phrases with numerals and classifiers in Chinese narratives are classified into the category of indefinite NPs.

Comparing ENSs' and EFL Learners' English Frog Stories Narrative Length and Structure.

There was no significant difference in the length of the narratives among the English native controls and EFL learner groups (ENSs: 78.93 clauses; Intermediate EFL: 61.07 clauses; Advanced EFL: 68.93 clauses). The narratives of intermediate and advanced learners contained a similar proportion of each narrative component as ENSs' except for the "evaluation" category ($F(2, 42)=13.52$, $p=.000$). The post-hoc Tukey analysis indicated that the two learner groups produced significantly fewer evaluative clauses than ENSs (Inter EFL: 14.90% vs. ENSs: 23.99%, $p=.000$; Adv EFL: 15.14% vs. ENSs: 23.99%, $p=.000$). Like CNSs, both learner groups gave fewer explicit evaluative comments than ENSs when telling the story, which is an indication of L1 transfer.

Evaluative devices

The frequency distributions of the eight types of evaluative devices in the English narratives of ENSs and the two learner groups are reported in Table 4. As seen in the table, no significant differences were obtained among ENSs and the two learner groups in their frequency usages of evaluative devices, except for hedges. The post-hoc Tukey analysis indicated that the intermediate learners used significantly less hedges than ENSs, which could be a sign of L1 transfer as CNSs also employed significantly less hedges than ENSs (see Table 1). The advanced learners, however, appeared to have picked up the English usage of evaluative

language when telling fictional stories in English as they exhibited no differences from ENSs.

Table 4

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Evaluative Devices in English Narratives by ENSs and EFL learners

	ENSs (n = 15)	Inter EFL (n = 15)	Adv EFL (n = 15)	*ANOVA*	
	%	%	%	*F*	*p*
Emotion	17.60	23.07	21.67	0.76	*ns*
Cognition	9.0	3.87	6.67	2.72	*ns*
Perception	25.80	24.53	17.53	1.42	*ns*
Physical state	2.47	2.27	4.13	0.67	*ns*
Intention	7.93	17.80	21.60	2.94	*ns*
Reported speech	14.73	13.60	8.93	0.48	*ns*
Hedge	12.13[a]	1.73[b]	10.33[a]	7.12	.002
Intensifier	10.47	12.87	9.20	0.58	*ns*

Note: Numbers with different letters within the same category differ significantly (p≦.05)

by the post-hoc Tukey test.

Referential strategies.

As to the use of referential strategies, results of ANOVA analyses showed that neither of the learner groups diverged from ENSs in the use of the four referring expressions (see Table 5). It appeared that both learner groups have acquired the appropriate English usage of the referential strategies for reference maintenance.

Table 5

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Referential Strategies in English Narratives by ENSs and EFL learners

	ENSs (n = 15)	Inter EFL (n = 15)	Adv EFL (n = 15)	ANOVA	
	%	%	%	*F*	*p*
Zero anaphora	14.23	12.37	15.40	0.42	*ns*
Pronouns	46.84	41.02	36.94	1.06	*ns*
Noun phrases	27.36	31.63	38.54	0.71	*ns*
Names	11.57	14.98	9.11	0.33	*ns*

We also compared the learners' use of noun phrases to that of ENSs. The results showed that the EFL learners' selection of noun phrase types were similar to that of ENSs; they all preferred definite NPs when referring to the protagonist (Inter EFL: 97.53%; Adv EFL: 97.93%; ENSs: 98.61%). So far, the statistical results suggested that the Chinese EFL learners have acquired the referential strategy use in English. No significant influence from L1 Chinese was evident.

Comparing CNSs' and EFL Learners' Chinese Frog Stories Narrative Length and Structure.

There was no significant difference in the length of the Chinese narratives among the three groups of Chinese-speaking participants (CNSs: 57.93 clauses; Intermediate EFL: 69.20 clauses; Advanced EFL: 72.73 clauses). Moreover, both intermediate and advanced learners employed a similar narrative structure as CNSs, and no significant difference was observed in the proportion of each structural component among CNSs and two groups of EFL learners in their Chinese narratives.

Evaluative devices

With respect to evaluative language in the Chinese narratives, results showed that CNSs and the two learner groups differed significantly in their frequency of use of cognition expressions, reported speech, and hedges (see Table 6). Post-hoc Tukey analyses yielded that the advanced learners employed significantly more cognition expressions and hedges than CNSs, and that both intermediate and advanced learners produced significantly less reported speech than CNSs. The divergence of the learner groups' use of these evaluative devices from CNSs' was in the

direction of that of ENSs, which suggested possible L2 influence. Moreover, the advanced learners seemed to be more affected by L2 English than the intermediate learners in their use of evaluative language when telling the story in Chinese.

Table 6

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Evaluative Devices in Chinese Narratives by CNSs and EFL Learners

	CNSs (n = 15)	Inter EFL (n = 15)	Adv EFL (n = 15)	*ANOVA*	
	%	%	%	*F*	*p*
Emotion	16.07	21.53	23.0	1.95	*ns*
Cognition	3.20[a]	6.73[ab]	10.93[b]	3.72	.032
Perception	32.27	32.20	23.20	2.31	*ns*
Physical state	0.53	1.27	1.87	0.69	*ns*
Intention	6.73	8.73	11.87	1.05	*ns*
Reported speech	36.67[a]	16.60[b]	14.27[b]	5.49	.008
Hedge	1.80[a]	3.67[ab]	8.87[b]	3.89	.028
Intensifier	2.73	9.20	6.07	1.84	*ns*

Note: Numbers with different letters within the same category differ significantly (p≦.05)

by the post-hoc Tukey test.

Referential strategies.

Table 7

Mean Frequencies of Different Types of Referential Strategies in Chinese Narratives by CNSs and EFL Learners

	CNSs (n = 15)	Inter EFL (n = 15)	Adv EFL (n = 15)	ANOVA	
	%	%	%	*F*	*p*
Zero anaphora	40.17[a]	27.80[b]	28.32[b]	5.46	.008
Pronouns	14.82[a]	29.14[ab]	33.11[b]	3.63	.035
Noun phrases	41.99	34.32	37.49	0.44	*ns*
Names	3.03	8.72	1.08	1.85	*ns*

Note: Numbers with different letters within the same category differ significantly (p≦.05)

by the post-hoc Tukey test.

Table 7 displays the frequency distributions of the four referential forms for the protagonist in the Chinese narratives by CNSs and the two groups of EFL learners. As shown, the three groups of participants differed in their use of zero anaphora ($F(2, 42)=5.46$, $p=.008$) and pronouns ($F(2,42)=3.63$, $p=.035$). Results of Tukey post hoc analyses indicated that both learner groups employed significantly fewer zero anaphora than CNSs (Intermediate EFL: 27.80% vs. CNSs: 40.17%, $p=.015$; Advanced EFL: 28.32% vs. CNSs: 40.17%, $p=.021$), and that the advanced learners used significantly more pronouns than CNSs (Advanced EFL: 33.11% vs. CNSs: 14.82%, $p=.037$). These results suggested backward transfer from L2 to L1 as the divergence of the learners' frequency of use of these two referent forms from Chinese native controls' is in the direction of English usage. To illustrate, oral narratives from a Chinese native speaker and an advanced EFL learner are given below for comparison. Examples (8) and (9) are parts of the narrative which depicted the frog's escape from the glass jar and the boy's discovery of the frog's disappearance. As we can see, the advanced EFL learner used the pronoun, *ta ("he")*, most of the time to maintain the reference of the protagonist while the Chinese native control kept using bare nouns to refer to the boy. Referential expressions referring to the boy are boldfaced and underlined in the examples.

Chinese native speaker:

(8) 到了晚上，**小男孩**和狗睡著了，青蛙從罐子裡面爬出來。到了白天，青蛙跑掉不見了。**小男孩**和狗發現青蛙不見了。**小男孩**和狗他們在房間一直找都找不到。

dàole wǎnshàng, **xiǎonánhái** hàn gǒu shuìzháole, qingwa cóng gùanzi lǐmiàn pá chulái. dàole báitian, qingwa pǎodiào bújìanle. **xiǎonánhái** hàn gǒu faxìan qingwa bújìanle. **xiǎonánhái** hàn gǒu tamén zài fángjian yizhí zhǎo dou zhǎobúdào.

"At night, **(the) little boy** and (the) dog fell asleep. (The) frog crawled out from (the) jar. In the morning, (the) frog disappeared. **(The) little boy** and (the) dog found (the) frog was gone. **(The) little boy** and (the) dog kept looking for (the frog) in (the) room but in vain."

Advanced EFL learner:

(9) 那在有一天晚上呢，**他**找到一隻青蛙。**他**把牠放在玻璃瓶裡面。然後**他**很開心

有一隻青蛙可以陪著**他**。然後當**他**睡覺的時候呢，那隻青蛙就從那個玻璃瓶

就是跑了出來。隔天早上醒來的時候呢，**小男孩**發現青蛙不見了。**他**非常地慌

張。**他**嘗試著努力找到牠。

nà zài yǒuyitian wǎnshàngne, **tā** zhǎodào yizhi qingwa. **tā** bǎ tā fàngzài bolípíng lǐmiàn. ránhòu **tā** hěn kaixin yǒu yizhi qingwa kěyǐ pěizhe **tā.** ránhòu dang **tā** shuìjìaode shíhòune, nàzhi qingwa jìu cóng nàge bolígùan jìushì pǎole chulái. gétian zǎoshàng xǐngláide shíhòune, **xiǎonánhái** faxìan qingwa bújìanle. **tā** feichángdi huangzhang. **tā** chángshìzhe nǔlì zhǎodào tā.

"One night, **he** found a frog. **He** put it in (a) glass jar. Then **he** was happy to have a frog accompanying **him**. Then when **he** fell asleep, that

frog ran out of that glass jar. When waking up the next morning, **(the) little boy** found (the) frog was gone. **He** was very nervous. **He** tried his best to find it."

Although there was no significant difference in the frequency usage of noun phrases among CNSs and the two groups of EFL learners (see Table 7), a closer scrutiny of the selection of the five noun phrase types by these three groups of participants indicated some group differences in the percentages of certain noun phrase types (see Table 8). As illustrated in the table, the advanced learners used demonstratives much more frequently than the intermediate learners and CNSs did (Adv EFL: 12.57%; Inter EFL: 2.90%; CNSs: 2.92%). Furthermore, they employed bare nouns less frequently than the intermediate learners and the Chinese controls (Adv EFL: 84.43%; Inter EFL: 97.10%; CNSs: 94.74%). Chinese is a language without definite articles, and demonstratives (i.e., noun phrases containing a demonstrative and a classifier and a noun) approximate the form of English definite nominals and are used to refer to given information in Chinese. On the other hand, bare nominals are not allowed in English but used quite often in Chinese for introducing and maintaining reference. The advanced learners' relatively higher frequency of use of demonstratives and lower frequency usage of bare nouns compared to Chinese native controls' in the Chinese narratives suggested a trace of L2 influence.

Table 8

Percentages (%) of Different Types of Noun Phrases (NPs) in Chinese Narratives by CNSs and EFL Learners

	CNSs (n = 15)	Inter EFL (n = 15)	Adv EFL (n = 15)
Indefinite NPs	1.17	0	1.80
Definite NPs	0	0	0
Demonstratives	2.92	2.90	12.57
Possessives	1.17	0	1.20
Bare nouns	94.74	97.10	84.43

Note. Because Chinese is a language without indefinite articles, noun phrases

with
numerals and classifiers in Chinese narratives are classified into the category of of indefinite NPs.

Within-group Comparisons of English and Chinese Oral Narratives

In addition to investigating bi-directional transfer in learners' narrative skills, we also wondered how L2 learners accommodate the two narrative systems in one mind; that is, whether Chinese EFL learners merged or separated their two narrative repertories. A series of paired-samples *t*-tests was conducted to address this issue.

Comparing English and Chinese Frog Stories of Intermediate EFL Learners

The intermediate learners produced a similar number of clauses in English and Chinese narratives (61.07 clauses vs. 69.20 clauses, respectively). No significant differences were found in their use of structural components and evaluative devices in the two languages.

In regard to referential strategies, paired-samples *t*-test analyses indicated that the intermediate EFL learners differentiated their L1 and L2 in the use of zero anaphora and pronouns (see Table 9). The mean percentage of zero anaphora was higher in the learners' Chinese narratives than in the English narratives (27.80% vs. 12.37%), and the reverse was true for pronouns (English narratives: 41.02% vs. Chinese narratives: 29.14%). The disparity in the frequency usage of these two kinds of pronominal forms reflects the differences in the syntactic structure of the learners' two languages.

Table 9

Intermediate Learners' Frequency Usage of Referential Strategies in their L1 and L2 Narratives

	English narratives	Chinese narratives	t-test	
	%	%	*t*	*p*
Zero anaphora	12.37	27.80	-4.28	.001
Pronouns	41.02	29.14	2.14	.05
Noun phrases	31.63	34.32	-0.57	*ns*
Names	14.98	8.72	1.96	*ns*

Examples (10) and (11) present the English and Chinese narratives of one intermediate EFL participant, respectively. The examples show that this intermediate EFL learner was able to make proper use of referential strategies in his English and Chinese narratives. When maintaining the reference to the protagonist, the learner employed mostly pronouns in the English narrative and zero anaphora in the Chinese one.

English narrative:

(10) Next day, John got up and **he** found the frog have gone. And **he** have his room upside down but **he** still cannot find where the frog is. **He** open the window and **Ø** look around the house. But **he** cannot find anything.

Chinese narrative:

(11) 隔天早上，貝貝睜開了眼睛，Ø滿心期待的望向裝著青蛙的瓶子，Ø赫然發

現青蛙不見了。不管他怎麼搜尋，不管Ø怎麼尋找，在鞋子裡、床底下，Ø卻始終沒有看到青蛙的蹤影。貝貝打開了窗戶，Ø四處觀望，卻還是徒勞無功。

gétian Beibei zhengkaile yǎnjing. Ø mǎnxin qídàide wàngxiàng zhuangzhe qingwade píngzi, Ø hèrán faxiàn qingwa bújìanle. bùguǎn

tā zěnme souxún, bùguǎn Ø zěnme xúnzhǎo, zài xíezilǐ chuáng dǐxìa, Ø qùe shǐzhong méiyǒu kàndào qingwade zongyǐng. beibei dǎkaile chuanghù, Ø sìchùguanwàng, qùeháishì túláowúgong.

"The next morning, **Beibei** opened his eyes, **Ø** expectedly looked at the glass jar in which (the) frog stayed but **Ø** found that (the) frog was gone. No matter where **he** searched and no matter how **Ø** searched, in (the) shoes, under (the) bed, **Ø** could not find (the) frog. **Beibei** opened the window, **Ø** looked around, but still in vain."

Comparing English and Chinese frog stories of advanced EFL learners

The advanced learners' English and Chinese narratives were of the similar length (68.93 clauses vs. 72.73 clauses, respectively). No significant differences were found in the proportion of each structural component in their two languages. As for the use of evaluative devices, the analyses showed that the advanced learners employed significantly more expressions referring to perception in Chinese than in English narratives (23.20% vs. 17. 53%), and they used more intention categories in English than in Chinese narratives (21.60% vs. 11.87%).

With respect to the use of referential forms, results showed that the advanced learners distinguished English and Chinese in the use of zero anaphora (t (14) =-5.94, p=.000). As shown in Table 10, they employed significantly more zero anaphora in their Chinese narratives than in English ones (28.32% vs. 15.40%), a tendency predicted by the structure of the two languages. Regarding the use of pronouns, it is interesting to note that there was no significant difference between the learners' two languages. The advanced learners adopted pronouns to a similar extent in telling stories in their two languages (English narratives: 36.54%; Chinese narratives: 33.11%). Compared to the frequency usage of this referent form by Chinese native controls (14.82%), the advanced learners' use of pronouns tended to move toward the direction of that of English native controls (46.84%). This observation suggested that the advanced learners' use of pronouns in Chinese narratives was affected by their L2 English.

Table 10

Advanced Learners' Frequency Usage of Referential Strategies in their L1 and L2 Narratives

	English narratives	Chinese narratives	t-test	
	%	%	*t*	*p*
Zero anaphora	15.40	28.32	-5.94	.000
Pronouns	36.94	33.11	0.87	*ns*
Noun phrases	38.54	37.49	0.18	*ns*
Names	9.11	1.08	2.12	*ns*

Conclusion

The present study attempted to explore transfer in narrative competence of foreign language learners from a multi-competence perspective. Using Chinese EFL learners as test subjects, we examined the learners' use of narrative structure, evaluative language, and referential strategies in their oral renditions of the frog story in their two languages. The results evidenced bi-directional transfer in the learners' narrative skills. Forward transfer from L1 to L2 was observed in Chinese EFL learners' use of the evaluation component in their English narratives. Like Chinese native controls, the learners were less expressive than English native controls in giving evaluative comments about the story characters and the events. L1 influence on L2 was also observed among the intermediate learners in their use of hedging devices. However, no evidence for forward transfer was found in the learners' referential strategy use in their English narratives. Regardless of proficiency levels, the Chinese EFL learners appeared to have acquired the English usage of referential forms for reference maintenance.

Backward transfer from L2 to L1 was also obtained. The intermediate learners employed significantly less reported speech than Chinese native controls in the Chinese narratives, and the advanced learners varied from Chinese native controls in the frequency of use of cognition expressions, hedges, and reported speech. L2 influence on L1 was most noticeable in the learners' use of referential strategies. Both intermediate and advanced learner groups diverged from Chinese native controls in the use of zero anaphora, and the advanced learners also used pronouns significantly more frequently than Chinese native speakers. Moreover,

the advanced learners adopted less bare nouns and more demonstratives than Chinese native controls when referring to the protagonist. Overall, the advanced learners appeared to have experienced more L2 transfer than the intermediate learners. This finding suggested that the pattern of bi-directional cross-linguistic influence may vary as a function of proficiency.

As to the issue of how the learners accommodated the narrative systems of their two languages, results showed that regardless of proficiency levels, learners separated their two narrative repertoires to some extent, especially in the use of referential strategies. Both intermediate and advanced learner groups employed zero anaphora for reference maintenance significantly more often in the Chinese narratives than in the English ones. The intermediate learners also used pronouns significantly more often in the English narratives than in the Chinese narratives. However, it is interesting to note that although the two groups of learners had differential usage of zero anaphora and pronouns in their two languages, their use of these referential forms in either language was distinguishable from that of native controls. This finding attested to the multi-competence view of second language learning that the L2 learner has a distinct state of mind, which is not equal to two monolingual states (Cook, 2003).

The findings of the present study provided more evidence in support of the multi-competence perspective of second/foreign language learning. The multi-competence perspective also has important implications for second/foreign language teaching. The goal of language teaching has long been to promote native-like target language proficiency in learners. L2 learners are judged on success according to how close they resemble monolingual native speakers. However, this monolingual perspective has discouraged many language learners as most of them failed to achieve native-like competence in a second language. If we consider multi-competence to be a valid and natural state of being, then both the approach and the teaching goals for second/foreign language teaching should be re-envisioned. Language teachers should recognize most L2 learners are different from monolingual native speakers in their knowledge of their L2 and L1, and thus, the goal of language teaching should not be producing imitation native speakers but multi-competent language users who can mediate between two languages, using both when appropriate. As Cook (2002) contended, L2 learners

should be convinced that they are successful multi-lingual speakers, not failed native speakers. Language teachers should help L2 learners to generate a vision of their ideal L2 self in an effort to empower them as lifelong multi-competent L2 users.

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A Quantiative Study on the Interpersonal Use of Modality in Court Arguments: An Apprasial Throey perspective[4]

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Abstract
Modal expressions can be used to construe interpersonal meanings which concern speakers' judgments of the effectiveness of their propositions, the required

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obligations for the listeners and the personal wishes in their proposals. The purpose of this study is to explore how judges and lawyers use modal expressions to construe interpersonal meanings, particularly evaluating human behaviors, in American court arguments from the perspective of the Appraisal Theory (AT) which is the theoretical foundation for this study. A small legal language corpus is compiled including 30 oral arguments from the Supreme Court of the United States, recorded between Feb. 24 and March 31, 2015. The research focus in this study is modality. Based on Halliday's modality theory (2004), all the modal expressions are coded and classified into different groups according to four criteria: speakers, orientations, types and values. The quantitative results for the two groups of speakers, judges and lawyers, are compared by using chi-square tests and Fisher's exact tests. They show that on the macro level, there is no significant difference between the two speaker groups ($p = .105 > .05$). However, the judges and the lawyers are found to differ significantly in their use of modal values ($p = .004 < .05$) and expressions of the five individual Judgment types, namely normality ($p = .027 < .05$), tenacity ($p = .000 < .05$), veracity ($p = .024 < .05$), capacity ($p = .005 < .05$) and propriety expressions ($p = .007 < .05$). This study tries to analyze the interpersonal meaning of modality from a new perspective, AT. It is expected to have pedagogical implication for court arguments and legal language teaching in China, and contribute to the understanding of legal language.
Keywords: Modal expressions, Appraisal Theory, Court arguments

Introduction

Interpersonal meaning studies include those concerning speakers' judgments of the effectiveness of their propositions, the required obligations for the listener and the personal intentions expressed in their proposals. The use of modality expressions is one way to achieve interpersonal meaning (Hu, Zhu, Zhang & Li 2008).

Modality has been a research topic for a long time in the field of linguistics. One of many theoretical frameworks used to interpret modality, which have been quite successful, is Halliday's explanation of modality. In his interpersonal functional model described in the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), he rates

modality as the main semantic carrier of interpersonal meaning (Halliday, 2000:355). Study shows that most of previous researchers of interpersonal meaning of modality were conducted from the perspective of SFL. However, Martin (2000) found the limitation of SFL when analyzing interpersonal meaning of modality and based on which developed the Appraisal Theory (AT). He indicated that " the research methodology of SFL made no reference to the interpretation of evaluative meaning—the speakers' feelings, estimations, and their judgments on the values of various phenomena or experiences."

AT studies modality at the word level from the perspective of evaluation (Fang, 2014: 303) and is regarded as a development of SFL (Wang, 2001: 13). There are three subsystems in AT: Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. When talking about Judgment, which is a subcategory of the Attitude system, Martin (2000) pointed out the corresponding relationship between types of Judgment and types of modality, which makes it possible to study interpersonal meaning of modality from the perspective of AT.

There are five types of Judgment and they are developed from Halliday's account of English modality (Martin 1995: 30). The corresponding relationship was specified as: "Normality corresponds to usuality, Capacity to potentiality, Tenacity to inclination, Veracity to probability, and Propriety to obligation (Martin and White 2005: 52)."

Since its introduction to China by Wang in 2001, many scholars have shown their interest in AT. According to the types of research, most of previous studies on AT can be "divided into two main categories: the theoretical study on AT and the application of AT in discourse analysis (Wei，Michael & Zhang 2015:236)." As to the theoretical study, on the one hand, many scholars pointed out the innovative aspects of AT (Wang 2001; Wang & Ma 2007; Fang 2014). On the other hand, they also found limitations of AT and provided suggestions for the improvement of AT (Li 2004; Li 2005; Liu & Han 2004; Liu & Zhang 2011). AT has been acknowledged as one effective method for discourse analysis (Xu, 2013:13). It has been employed in the analysis of literary works (Yu, 2010; Guan,2011), news discourse (Wang, 2004; Li & Zhang, 2010) and technical and academic writing (Tang, 2005; Xu, 2009). However, there has been less application of this theory in the field of legal language. Language is the carrier of

law, and most legal activities are conducted by means of language. In effect, language and law are inseparable. The close relationship between the law and language has aroused great interest in doing research in the field of legal language among scholars in law, linguistics and other social science fields (Hu 2011: 1).

With the purpose of analyzing modality expressions in legal English from the perspective of AT with a focus on Judgment, this research selects 30 court arguments from the official website of the US Supreme Court by using the random sampling method, based on which a simple oral argument corpus is established. This study aims to explore how judges and lawyers use modality expressions to express Judgment and thus construct interpersonal meaning. It mainly tries to answer the following two research questions.

(1)Is there a statistically significant difference between judges' and lawyers' usage of modality to express Judgments?

(2)Is there a statistically significant difference between judges' and lawyers' usage of modal values (high, medium or low)?

Method and Materials

Research Subject: Oral Argument Corpus

In order to study the characteristics of modal expression use by judges and lawyers, the author collected a small legal language corpus by selecting 30 oral arguments from the official website of the Supreme Court of the United States. The time period from which they were taken were February 24 – March 31, 2015, which were randomly selected. The 15 debate topics among the 30 oral arguments are independent of one another. Since the main focus of this study is modality, those modal expressions which occurred were coded and classified into different groups according to speaker, type, value and orientation, using the software Wordsmith Tools 6.0.

Classification of Modality Types and Values

Although there are various classifications of modality by different scholars, this study follows Halliday's classification (Halliday, 2004: 147-148) since the five categories of Judgment in Appraisal Theory were originally taken from Halliday's account of modality. He divided modality into two main categories: modalization and modulation. There is another type of modality, "ability/potentiality", on the

fringe of the modality system, which is usually realized by *can* or *be able to*. This study also makes use of a variable attached to the modal judgments, which is modal value, including high, medium or low (Halliday 2004: 620). Halliday illustrated some examples of different values across different types of modality. However, he gave no value for the ability type; accordingly, this study does not discuss the value of the ability type (whose counterpart is capacity type in the Judgment system).

Research Instruments and Coding

To facilitate data processing, Wordsmith Tools 6.0 was employed in this study. Based on Halliday's account of modality, a list of modal expressions was established. These expressions include modal operators such as *will* and *should*, modal adjuncts such as *probably* and expansions of predictors such as *be supposed to*.

Initially, the word list function in Wordsmith Tools was used to make a word list of all the words and frequencies in the 30 arguments. The second step was to make a concordance of all the modal expressions from the 15 case transcripts, based on the list of modal expressions, using the Concord program. All the modal expressions were ordered according to their case number.

With the help of Wordsmith Tools 6.0, all the modal expressions were coded. This involved going over the concordance and coding each modal expression manually. One modal expression might belong to more than one category. For example, the modal verb *must* can mean both probability and inclination. Thus the context has to be considered when coding modal expressions.

Following Halliday's modality theory, as indicated above, all modal expressions were tagged according to type, value, orientation and speaker. However, not all of the modal expressions are used to express Judgment (evaluation of behavior). For example,

(1) It would *possibly* be entitled to fees. (Argument 25)

(2) The probability that the potential injury *will* occur. (Argument 12)

In (1), *possibly* is not used to evaluate behavior. And in (2), *will* is not used to express inclination, but rather, the future tense. Those modal expressions which are not used to evaluate behavior were coded as Other and, as such, are beyond the scope of the study. During the coding, a number of tags were used, as shown

in Table 1.

Table 1. Tags used in the classification of modals

Judgment types	Capacity(C); Normality (N); Propriety (P); Tenacity (T); Veracity (V)
Modal values	High (H); Medium (M); Low (L)
Orientations	Positive (P); Negative (N)
Speakers	Judge (J); Lawyer (L)
Uncertainty	U: for modal expressions whose orientations cannot be determined
Other	O: for modal expressions which are not used to appraise behaviors

Statistical Tests

For the statistical analysis, this study employed the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) program to perform a series of Chi-square Tests for Independence. The purpose of the test is to see whether there is a relationship between two categorical variables (Field, 2013: 721). In this study, the role of arguments, the types of Judgments and the values of modality all belong to categorical variables. Thus, to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between judges and lawyers in terms of Judgment types and modal values, the Chi-square test is, beyond doubt, the best choice. When statistical significance occurs, the effect size will be calculated. An effect size is an objective and standardized measure of the magnitude of the observed effect (Field, 2013). If we get a high significance with a large effect size from chi-square tests, we can be confident that our result is both generalizable and qualitatively substantial.

Analysis and Results

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Judgment Types

Different Judgment types are used to evaluate different aspects of behavior. Judges and lawyers play different roles in court arguments, so they might have

different focuses on evaluating human behaviors. Figure 1 shows how often judges and lawyers made use of the five Judgment types in the data.

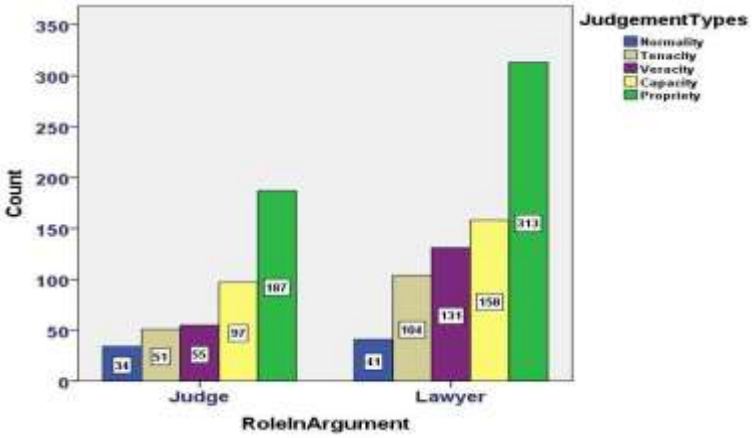

Figure 1. Distribution of Judgment types

As Figure 1 shows, both judges and lawyers used all five types of Judgment to evaluate human behaviors to some extent. The most frequently used Judgment type by both judges and lawyers is propriety, which expresses how ethical someone is in general. Propriety occurred 313 times among the lawyers and 187 times among the judges. The least frequently used type by judges is normality (34 times in total), and this finding applies to lawyers (41 times in total) as well. Normality is used to judge whether someone's behavior is usual or unusual. It is obvious that this is not a key factor in determining the nature of one's behavior according to the arguments in court.

In between are the Judgment types of capacity, veracity and tenacity, in order of decreasing frequency. Lawyers employed Judgments of capacity 158 times in their utterances, which is almost double the number, 97, of those used by the judges. Veracity occurred with a frequency of 131 times in the lawyers' arguments and ranked third. Although it is also in third place in the judges' arguments, it only occurred 55 times, less than half the number of those of the lawyers. The last type of Judgment, tenacity, occurred 104 times in the lawyers' and 51 times in the judges' arguments.

As Figure 1 shows, it is obvious that lawyers used each type of Judgment more often than judges. However, it might be problematic to conclude that lawyers used more modal expressions to evaluate human behaviors based on these figures. The reason is that lawyers made more utterances than judges did

throughout the 30 arguments. Another interesting finding is that the order of frequency for the five Judgment types is the same for both groups. Propriety has the highest frequency, which is followed by capacity, veracity, tenacity and normality respectively. Accordingly, there is an association or pattern between the judges' and lawyers' usage of Judgment types. However, to determine whether this association is statistically significant or not, it is necessary to use chi-square tests.

Table 2. Chi-Square Tests of Judgment Types

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.663	4	.105

Table 2 shows that the value of Pearson's chi-square test is 7.663 with 4 degrees of freedom and the significance value is 0.105 which is larger than 0.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant association between the role in argument and the type of Judgment ($\chi2(4) = 7.663$, $p > .05$), suggesting that the judges and the lawyers do not differ significantly in the five Judgment types used to evaluate human behaviors.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Modal Values

The values of modal expressions vary from low to medium and high. Judges and lawyers differ with respect to authority in court so there might be a difference in terms of their use of modal values. Figure 2 shows the distribution of modal values in the two groups of judges and lawyers.

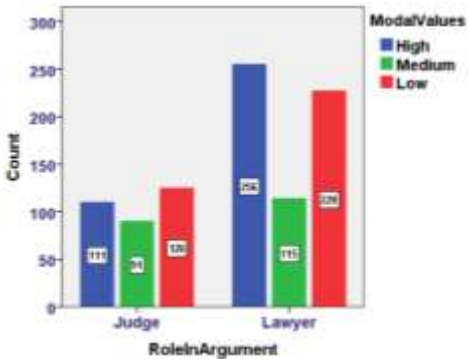

Figure 2. Distribution of Modal values

As Figure 2 shows, all three levels of modal value occurred in both the

utterances of the judges and lawyers. For the judges, the most frequently used modal value is the low value with a frequency of 126 occurrences. Although the low value occurred with a higher frequency, 228 times, in the case of the lawyers, it occurred less than the high modal value, which occurred 256 times. On the other hand, the judges used the high modal value only 111 times. For both judges and lawyers, the medium value was the least frequently used, 91 and 115 times respectively. The above findings suggest that lawyers tend to use more high and low modal values than the judges.

Table 3. Chi-Square Tests of Modal Values

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.208	2	.004

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 72.89.

Table 3 shows that the value of Pearson's chi-square test is 11.208 with 2 degrees of freedom and that the significance value is 0.004, which is less than 0.05. Moreover, Table 4 shows that the effect size (Cramer's V) is 0.110 with a significance value of 0.004 which is less than 0.05 as well. Based on Cohen's interpretation of effect size, this effect size (Cramer's V < .2) is small.

Table 4. Symmetric Measures of Modal Values

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.110	.004
	Cramer's V	.110	.004

To sum up, there is a significant association between roles and the levels of modal value ($\chi2(2) = 11.208$, $p < .05$). In other words, the judges and the lawyers differ significantly in their usage of modal values. Accordingly, the judges tend to use more medium and less high modal values than the lawyers. Nevertheless,

despite the statistically significant association between the role variable and the modal value variable, the effect size shows that the association is not strong.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Normality

Normality is a kind of judgment of behaviors and a way of describing how unusual someone is. Modality expressions such as *always* and *sometimes* can be used to express normality. Figure 3 shows the distribution of normality expressions used by the judges and the lawyers.

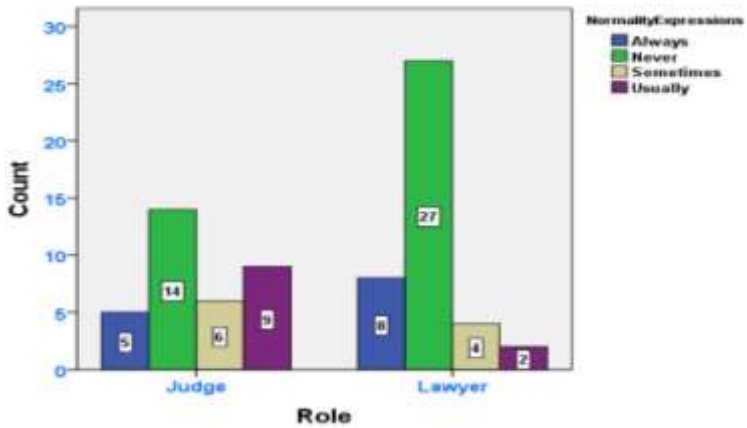

Figure 3. Distribution of Normality expressions

As we can see, there are four types of normality expressions used by both the judges and the lawyers, namely *always*, *never*, *sometimes* and *usually*. However, their frequencies are different. In the arguments of both the judges and the lawyers, the most frequently occurring expression is the adverb *never*. *Never* has a higher frequency, 27 occurrences, among the lawyers than among the judges, who used it 14 times. Moreover, being a negative modality, it has a high modal value. In other words, the judges and the lawyers used this term to deny directly the possibility of the appraised behaviors. For instance, in (3), the lawyer Mr. Fisher directly denies the occurrence of the teacher's testimony.

(3)MR. FISHER: The teacher *never* testified to that. (Argument 22)

The term *usually* occurred 9 times in the judges' utterances and only twice in the lawyers' utterances, making it the least frequently used normality expression by the lawyers. *Usually* has a medium value and indicates an expectation of appraised behaviors. For example, in (4) Chief Justice Roberts used the adverb *usually* to appraise the agencies' behavior and indicated that the lawyer could have an expectation that agencies like to maintain for themselves as much discretion as they can.

(4) CHIEF JUSTICE ROBERTS: Agencies *usually* like to maintain for themselves as much discretion as they can. (Argument 8)

The lawyers employed the modality expression *always* 8 times to signal that the appraised behavior is true all the time. By contrast, it only occurred 5 times in the judges' arguments and was the least frequently used normality expression by them. The term *always* is a positive modality and has a high modal value. Example (5) shows how *always* is used by one of the lawyers.

(5) MR. WAXMAN: And this Court in Global-Tech precisely recognized that these provisions (271b and 271c) are, in fact, the modern day statutory version of civil aiding and abetting. The Federal Circuit has *always* recognized it. (Argument 4)

In order to tell the jury which, provision they should use for the case in question, the lawyer, Mr. Waxman, used the term *always* to indicate what the Federal Circuit does. The jury would be wrong if they did not use the provision 271(b) and 271(c) for the case.

Another normality expression is the adverb *sometimes*, which was used 6 times by the judges and 4 times by the lawyers. What this modality means is that the appraised behavior can be true on occasion. Therefore, the listeners should have their own judgments of the appraised behavior in question.

(6) JUSTICE KENNEDY: *Sometimes* we think of things the government doesn't.

MR. CARVIN: Well, I *certainly* hope you do in this case, but not – not on this question. (Argument 15)

In (6), Justice Kennedy apparently refers to the occasional occurrence of the appraised behavior, namely, that the Supreme Court thinks of things the government does not. From the lawyer, Mr. Carvin's, response, we can say that he was not sure whether the Justice would do what he said previously in this case or not.

Table 5. Chi-Square Tests of Normality Expressions

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)

Pearson Chi-Square	9.095	3	.028	.026
Fisher's Exact Test	8.961			.027
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.53.				

Table 5 tells us that the assumption of the Pearson's chi-square test is violated since 25% of the cells have an expected count less than 5. Thus we need to check the Fisher's exact test to see whether there is an association between the two categorical variables, namely types of normality expression and roles in arguments. The value of the Fisher's exact test is 8.961 with a significance value of .027 which suggests a statistically significant association between the two variables. In other words, the choice of types of normality expression is related to the roles in arguments.

Table 6 shows that the effect size is .348 (Cramer's V=.348) with a significance value of .026. This represents a medium association between the types of normality expression and the roles in arguments. Since the value is significant (p=.026), we can conclude that a value of .348 is unlikely to have occurred if there were no association in the arguments.

Table 6. Symmetric Measures Normality Expressions

		Value	Approx. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.348	.028	.026
	Cramer's V	.348	.028	.026

In summary, there is a significant association between the types of normality expression and the roles in arguments. In other words, the judges and the lawyers

differ significantly in their usage of expressions to realize judgments of normality. The lawyers used the adverbs *never* more often and *usually* less often than the judges. The reverse was true in the case of the judges.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Tenacity

According to AT, tenacity is a kind of Judgment of appraising how resolute someone is. It mainly focuses on the evaluation of human inclinations. Usually, it is realized by the modal verb *will* and the phrase *be willing to*. However, it can also be expressed by the modal verbs *may* and *can*.

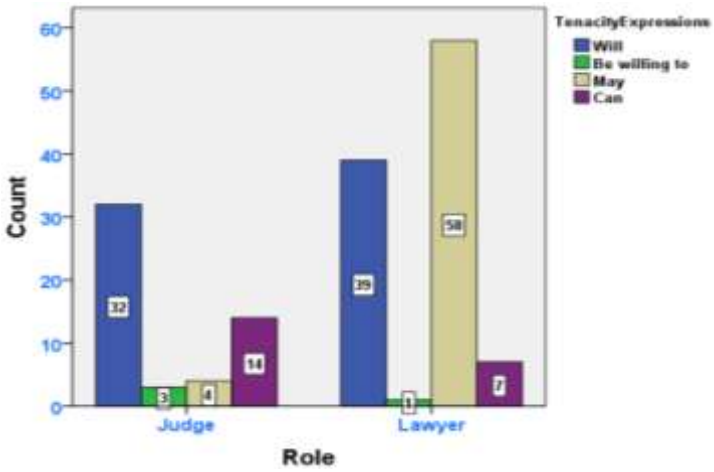

Figure 4 Distribution of Tenacity expressions

Figure 4 shows the distribution of tenacity expressions among the judges and the lawyers. Accordingly, the frequencies of the following expressions were investigated, namely *will*, *be willing to*, *may* and *can*. Using the modal verb *will* is a common way to show one's inclination. Thus, it is no big surprise that it is the most frequently used tenacity expression by the judges, with a frequency of 32 occurrences. Although there is a higher frequency of usage of the modal verb *will* by the lawyers (39 occurrences), it is the second most frequently used expression for this category. Although the meaning of the phrase *be willing to* is similar to the modal verb *will*, it occurs with the lowest frequency in the arguments of both the judges (3 occurrences) and the lawyers (1 occurrence). Some examples will demonstrate the use of Tenacity expressions.

(7) JUSTICE. GINSBURG: The expert agency *will* do what it finds fit based on its expertise. (Argument 7)

(8) GENERAL. VERRILLI: I'm *willing to* accept the absence of a representation as an indication that there is a case or controversy here.

(Argument 16)

(9) MR. FELDMAN: We just *won't* apply the ADA. (Argument 12)

In (7), the judge expresses the expert agency's willingness and the lawyer in (8) expresses his willingness for the appraised behaviors by using the modal verb *will* and the phrase *be willing to*, respectively. There are also many negative expressions, like (9), which express the speaker's reluctance to do something to apply the ADA.

It is interesting that the modal verb *may* has a high frequency, 58 occurrences, and thus is the most frequently used tenacity expression in the lawyers' arguments. The term *may* is usually used as an evaluation of likelihood. However, it can express one's inclination in an imperative sentence. The reason why it frequently occurred in the lawyers' arguments is that the lawyers always start with the obligatory phrase *May it please the court*. This is an obligatory polite form used by lawyers when addressing the judges as seen in (10).

(10) MR. MELNIK: Thank you, Mr. Chief Justice, and *may* it please the Court… (Argument 1)

Apart from the obligatory phrase, the modal verb *may* can also be used in other cases to express inclination, such as in (11).

(11) MR. MELNIK: If I *may* reserve the balance of my time. (Argument 1)

In this if-clause, the lawyer Mr. Melnik expresses his inclination to reserve the balance of his time for the rebuttal argument by using the modal verb *may*. Another tenacity expression is the modal verb *can* which occurred 14 times in the judges' and 7 times in the lawyers' arguments. It can be used in an if-clause and in an interrogative sentence as well.

(12) JUSTICE KAGAN: *Can* I step back for a minute, General Lindstrom. (Argument 7)

(13) MR. KELLER: Justice Alito and Justice Kagan, if I *can* suggest a way to avoid the billboard problem. (Argument 13)

In (12) Justice Kagan used the interrogative sentence beginning with the modal verb *can* and which functions here as a request to express his inclination to step back for a minute. In (13), however, the lawyer Mr. Keller used an if-clause to show his willingness to propose a way to avoid the billboard problem.

Table 7. Chi-Square Tests of Tenacity Expressions				
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.065	3	.000	.000
Fisher's Exact Test	41.838			.000
a. 2 cells (25.0%) have an expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.34.				

As Table 7 shows, the assumption for the Pearson chi-square test is violated since 25% of the cells have an expected count of less than 5. Therefore, we turn to the Fisher's exact test and it shows a highly significant association between the types of tenacity expressions and the roles in arguments (*p*=.000).

Table 8. Symmetric Measures of Tenacity Expressions				
		Value	Approx. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.491	.000	.000
	Cramer's V	.491	.000	.000

Table 8 shows that the Cramer's V statistic is .491 which shows a medium effect size. And it is highly significant (*P*=.000).

In summary, there is a highly significant association between the types of tenacity expression and the roles in arguments. In other words, the judges and the lawyers differ significantly in their usage of expressions to realize judgment of tenacity. Both judges and lawyers used the adverb *will* most frequently. The latter used *may* so often owing to its presence in the obligatory form used when

addressing the justices described above. Both the judges and the lawyers tended to use the phrase *be willing to* less often to express their inclination.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Veracity

Modalities appraising how truthful someone is belonging to the category of veracity. It corresponds to probability in Halliday's modality theory. There are many expressions that can be used to realize veracity, such as *certainly*, *likely*, *may*, *possibly* and so on. Figure 5 displays the distribution of veracity expressions used in the arguments.

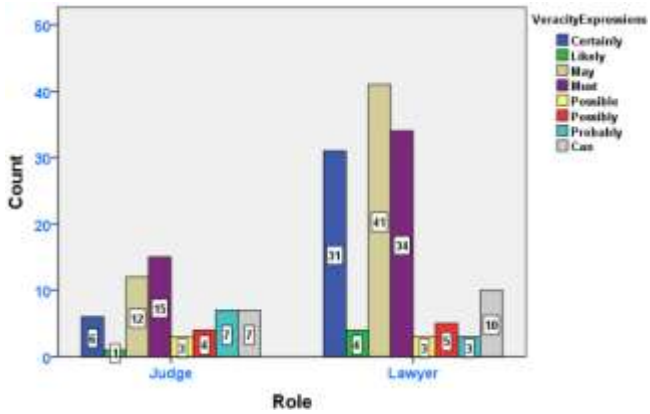

Figure 5 Distribution of Veracity expressions

As Figure 5 shows, there are 8 types of veracity expression used in the arguments. Among them, the modal verb *may* occur with the highest frequency (41 occurrences) in the lawyers' arguments. It occurred 12 times among the judges and is second only to the modal verb *must* which has a frequency of 15 occurrences. The modal verb *must* also has a very high frequency in the arguments of the lawyers (34 occurrences). However, the modal verb *may* has a low modal value while the modal verb *must* has a high modal value. Examples (14) and (15) show how *may* and *must* are used by a lawyer and a judge, respectively.

(14) MR. STREETT: Courts *may* award reasonable compensation for services rendered with very narrow and express prohibitions. (Argument 25)

(15) JUSTICE. SOTOMAYOR: In determining whether an individual possesses a direct threat, a public entity *must* make an individualized assessment based on reasonable judgment. (Argument 11)

In (14), the lawyer Mr. Streett used the modal verb *may* to appraise the courts' behavior when awarding compensation for services. Since it has a low

modal value, whether courts will award compensation or not is undecided. However, in (15), Justice Sotomayor used the modal verb *must* to indicate that the appraised behavior that an individual assessment made by a public entity will definitely happen and would be problematic otherwise.

Among the lawyers, the adverb *certainly* occurred 31 times. The frequencies of other expressions like *possible*, *possibly*, *probably*, *can*, *likely* and *certainly* used by the judges are all less than 10. In example (16), the use of the adverb *certainly* by lawyer Carvin suggests that he is being sincere and truthful in expressing his hope that the judges will act in a certain manner regarding a particular case.

(16) MR. CARVIN: Well, I *certainly* hope you do in this case. (Argument 15)

Table 9. Chi-Square Tests of Veracity Expressions

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.742[a]	7	.028	.025
Fisher's Exact Test	15.190			.024

a. 6 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.48.

(17)

Table 10 shows a small effect size (Cramer's V=.291) with a significant value (*p*=.025).

Table 10. Symmetric Measures of Veracity Expressions

		Value	Approx. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Nominal by	Phi	.291	.028	.025

Nominal	Cramer's V	.291	.028	.025

In conclusion, there is a significant association between the types of veracity expression and the roles in arguments. In other words, the judges and the lawyers differ significantly in their usage of expressions to realize judgments of veracity. Both the lawyers and the judges preferred to use the modal verbs *may* and *must* and the adverb *certainly*.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Capacity

As one type of Judgment, capacity is concerned with appraisal of how capable someone is. It is commonly realized by the modal verb *can*. The phrase *be able to* can also be used to express the appraisal of capacity.

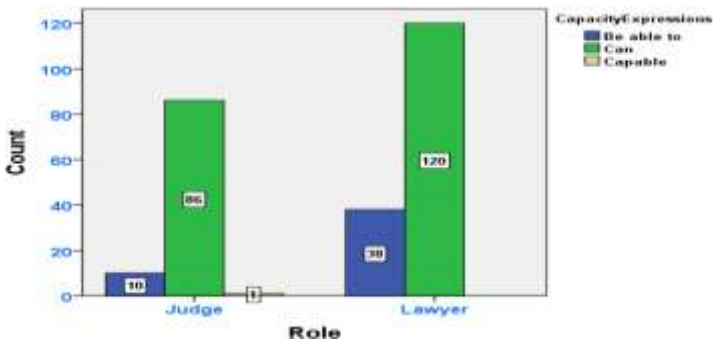

Figure 6 Distribution of Capacity expressions

Figure 6 shows that the most commonly and frequently used capacity expression is the modal verb *can* which occurred 120 times among the lawyers and 86 times among the judges. The phrase *be able to* has a frequency of 38 occurrences in the arguments of the lawyers and 10 occurrences in those of the judges. On the other hand, the adjective *capable* was only used once by the judges. Examples (17) and (18) show the usage of the modal verb *can* and the phrase *be able to* in the arguments.

(17) MR. GOLDSTEIN: I think I *can* tell a judge and prove to judge that this is lawful enforcement in disguise. (Argument 20)

(18) JUSTICE GINSBURG: Arizona *is able to* use this commission for its State representation. (Argument 23)

Table 11. Chi-Square Tests of Capacity of Expressions				
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.860	2	.012	.005
Fisher's Exact Test	9.004			.005
a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .38.				

Table 11 tells us that there is a significant association between the types of capacity expression and the roles in arguments because the value of the Fisher's exact test is 9.004 with a significance value of .005

Table 12. Symmetric Measures of Capacity of Expressions				
		Value	Approx. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.186	.012	.005
	Cramer's V	.186	.012	.005

The value of Cramer's V (.186) in Table 12 indicates a small effect size and that it is significant (p=.005).

In summary, there is a statistically significant association between the use of capacity expressions and the role in arguments. The result suggests that both the judges and the lawyers used the modal verb *can* most often.

Judges' and Lawyers' Usage of Propriety

Propriety is concerned with how ethical someone is in general. It has the highest frequency among all the five types of Judgment. Its counterpart in Halliday's modality theory is obligation, and it can be realized by modal verbs such as *can*, *should* and *need*. It can also be realized by phrases like *be allowed to*, *be required to* and *be supposed to*.

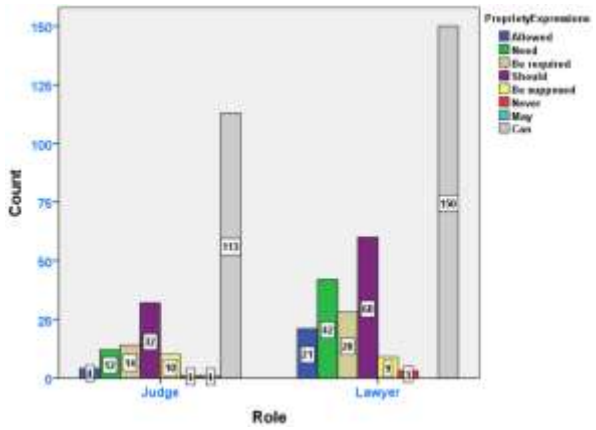

Figure 7 Distribution of Propriety expressions

As Figure 7 shows, there are eight types of propriety expression used by the judges and the lawyers. The modal verb *can* has the highest frequency in both the arguments of the judges (113 occurrences) and those of the lawyers (150 occurrences). Although the modal verb *can* is usually used to appraise capacity, it can also be used to realize propriety, as shown in (19) and (20).

(19) JUSTICE ROBERTS: But everybody *can* practice the patent after its expiration. (Argument 1)

(20) MR. OLDHAM: This Court's decision in Lamie made very clear that you *can* only get compensation under Section 330(a). (Argument 26)

In both (19) and (20), the speakers made it clear that the appraised behaviors are ethical by using the modal verb *can* even though they are ethical only under certain conditions.

In both the arguments of the judges and the lawyers, the modal verb *should* has the second highest frequency. It occurred 60 times among the lawyers and 32 times among the judges. The modal verb *should* has a medium modal value as examples (21) and (22) show.

(21) MR. DAIN: The defense counsel *should* participate and respond. (Argument 18)

(22) JUSTICE KENNEDY: But I think the Court and the counsel for both sides *should* confront the proposition that your argument raises a serious constitutional question. (Argument 15)

The modal verb *need* has a high modal value and occurred 42 times in the utterances of the lawyers and only 12 times in those of the judges, less often than the phrase *be required to*. The modal verb *need* indicates that the appraised behavior is required as shown in (23).

(23) MR. ROSENKRANZ: You *need* to demonstrate that it's not a criminal justice purpose, and you *need* to demonstrate that there's an adequate substitute for a warrant. (Argument 19)

The phrase *be required to* was used 28 times by the lawyers and 14 times by the judges. Another propriety expression which has a frequency of more than 10 is the phrase *be allowed to* used by the lawyers. The former has a high and the latter a low modal value.

(24) JUSTICE GINSBURG: The hotel owner *is required to* keep these records. (Argument 20)

(25) MR. KELLER: And that's because government *is allowed to* select the messages that it wants to propagate. (Argument 13)

In (24), Justice Ginsburg used the phrase *is required to* to state clearly that it is the hotel owner's obligation to keep those records. In (25), however, the government is ethical no matter what message it chooses to propagate, because it is allowed to do that.

Table 13. Chi-Square Tests of Propriety Expressions

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.068	7	.012	.008
Fisher's Exact Test	18.191			.007

a. 4 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .37.

As Table 13 shows, the assumption for the Pearson's chi-square test is violated since 25% of all the cells have an expected count less than 5. On the other hand, the value of the Fisher's exact test is 18.191 with a significance value of .007 which suggests a significant association between the types of propriety expression and the roles in arguments. Both the lawyers and the judges tended to use the modal verb *can* and *should* more often to appraise how ethical someone is.

Table 14. Symmetric Measures of Propriety Expressions

		Value	Approx. Sig.	Exact Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.190	.012	.008
	Cramer's V	.190	.012	.008

Table 14 displays the value of Cramer's V which is .190 and it is significant (*P*=.008).

To summarize, propriety has the highest frequency among all the five Judgment types. There is a significant association between the propriety expression use and the role in arguments. It turns out that both the judges and the lawyers tended to use the modal verbs *can* and *should* to appraise how ethical someone is.

Conclusions and Implications

Based on the above quantitative analysis, we can draw the following conclusions:

At the macro level, the judges and the lawyers do not differ significantly in the use of the five Judgment types to evaluate human behaviors ($\chi2(4)=7.663$, $p=.105$). By contrast, there is a significant association to be found between the roles and the levels of modal values ($\chi2(2)=11.208$, $p=.004$). More specifically, the judges tended to use more low modal values than the lawyers.

At the micro level, the judges and the lawyers differed significantly in their usage of expressions to realize judgments of normality (Fisher's exact test=8.961,

p=.027). The lawyers used the adverbs *never* more often and *usually* less often than the judges. The reverse was true in the case of the judges. A highly significant association was found between the roles of arguments and the types of tenacity expression (Fisher's exact test=41.838, *p*=.000). Both the judges and the lawyers used the modal verb *will* most frequently. Moreover, in the case of the lawyers, the modal verb *may* occurred with high frequency, owing to its presence in the obligatory form used when addressing the justices. Both the judges and the lawyers tended to use the phrase *be willing to* less often to express their inclination.

The judges and the lawyers also differed significantly with respect to their use of veracity expressions (Fisher's exact test=15.190, *p*=.024). Specifically, both the lawyers and the judges used the modal verbs *may* and *must* and the adverb *certainly* most often. As to types of capacity expressions, both the judges and the lawyers used the modal verb *can* most frequently. The association was statistically significant (Fisher's exact test=9.004, *p*=.005). Finally, the judges and the lawyers also differed significantly in their use of types of propriety expressions (Fisher's exact test=18.191, *p*=.007). They both tended to use the modal verbs *can* and *should* more often than other expressions such as the phrases *be required* and *be allowed* to appraise how ethical someone is.

The analysis of oral arguments in this study has pedagogical implication for Chinese legal language teaching. With the internationalization of economy, there is a great need of international lawyers in every field of work. One of the necessary abilities for international lawyers is having a good knowledge of English. This necessity is not limited to the four types of English ability, which are listening, speaking ,writing and reading. To have an effective communication in court, it is essential for lawyers and judges to know how they can use language to achieve interpersonal meaning and other related linguistic features of legal language. Accordingly, the education of legal language in China should have the teaching of linguistic features of legal language, differences of modality expressions use by judges and lawyers in this case, included in its curriculum. What's more, to facilitate legal language teaching and the development of international lawyer, it is highly recommended to establish an international teaching team. Just as Zhang (2015:111) stated, the first step to achieve

international education is to have an international teaching team which is the foundation of training international talents. For the establishment of international legal language teaching team, Zhang (2015:114) also concluded that "it could be implemented through in/out of service training, teachers-study, learning community and international cooperation."

Accordingly, the teaching of linguistic features of legal language, differences of modality expression use by judges and lawyers could be embedded in the related curriculum (Zhang, 2015). An international teaching team could also be established to facilitate the education of legal language in China.

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

Research and Trends of ESP in Indonesia

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Abstract

Mutual Recognition Agreement of AEC and that of APEC have been intensively socialized in Indonesia for some time. There are two crucial points to address: the free flow of skilled workers, and that of services and goods. These have a substantial impact on the use of English in the work place. However, this issue has not been anticipated, let alone addressed appropriately by the English instructors in the ESP research areas. This study aims at analyzing the ESP research and trends in Indonesia. The data were taken from reports at the Proceedings of International Conferences of TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) held in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014. The method used in this study is descriptive qualitative in which it elaborates the percentage of ESP articles out of total articles, the number of EAP articles and that of EOP articles and the ESP research method trends in Indonesia. The findings showed that the articles in Proceedings of TEFLIN International conferences held in 2011, 2012, and 2013 were dominated by EAP. Also, there was an increasing number of EOP articles. However, the number of ESP articles decreased: 2011 (9.5%), 2012 (21.6%), 2013 (21.15%), and 2014

(11.8%). The methods used in ESP research were mostly needs analysis. Other methods (ethnography, lingua franca, corpus) were still very few, and they were still emerging. Regarding AEC and APEC, it is projected that EOP will be implemented more due to the free flow of products, services, and skilled workers.
Key words: ESP, research, trends, Indonesia, TEFLIN Proceedings

Introduction

ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) starts in December 2015 and was effective as of 1 January 2016, while APEC will be effective in 2020.The implementation of AEC in the initial stage is prioritized in the 7 sectors of agriculture-based products: automotive, electronics, rubber, textile, fishery, and wood products; and 5 sectors of services: airline, online service, tourism, health and logistics; and 8 sectors of professions: engineering service, nursing service, surveying qualification, medical practitioners, dental practitioners, accounting services and tourism professional (Abdurrahman, 2015 p.3 and p.8).These 12 priority sectors and 8 professions have consequences on the use of English in the workplace specifically as a medium of communication. In a broader sense, the emergence of 12 priority sectors and 8 professions has impacted ESP- EOP teaching in Indonesia since the language used in AEC is English.

In Indonesia the effectual implementation of the AEC and the APEC has been intensively socialized through a number of means: off and online media, workshops, seminars, and conferences for some years. However, the response on ESP to anticipating the AEC and the APEC seems still very little. This can be seen from the number of articles in Proceedings of TEFLIN International Conferences where the conferences play a significant role as a medium for English instructors to share their ideas on the teaching learning process of English. To Indonesia where English is a foreign language, the effort to equip the students or graduates with a solid and functional mastery of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) is greater than that of Singapore, the Philippines, Brunei, and Malaysia where the English is positioned as a second language. This paper aims at analyzing the ESP research and trends in Indonesia, the data of which was taken from reports and articles of the Proceedings of TEFLIN

International Conferences held in 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014 respectively. In particular, this paper examines two points, namely areas in ESP that become the concern of Indonesian practitioners and research methods employed by Indonesian researchers in ESP context.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

ESP has not properly gained the popularity among English instructors until now in Indonesia specifically at college or university levels. This can be seen from the credit load of English courses in the first or the second semesters which is only allocated for 2-4 credits at non-English departments. This might be the factor that makes English instructors not quite interested in teaching ESP. However, the current emerging phenomenon is that ESP which is more on EOP in character is now highly needed in the workplace. At universities there is a requirement for the universities to provide not only a certificate after the students complete the courses but also a graduate diploma that states the competences of the graduates. This means that not only do the occupational colleges or polytechnics have to concern ESP, but also universities. The theme of international conference of *ESP in Taiwan, ESP: Moving Higher Education Closer to the Industry* held on October 23-24, 2015, in Taichung, Taiwan is vivid evidence that ESP is now highly needed (https://sites.google.com/site/2015espconference**).**

In Indonesia, as an enactment of Mutual Recognition Agreement (MRA) of ASEAN, the government which is officially represented by the Ministry of Work force has published English for Housekeeping (the Decree of Minister of Workforce and Transmigration number 158, 2010, p. 5). The purpose of EOP is to facilitate those who have a job and those who are interested in having a job in the hotel sector to join the housekeeping certification. The language functions introduced include those that will be used in several hotel contexts, the examples of which among others are: 1) handling complicated complaints of housekeeping, 2) making memos of housekeeping, 3) making business letters of housekeeping, 4) making housekeeping presentations, 5) running housekeeping meetings, 6) making housekeeping documents". Meanwhile, at colleges and universities, based

on casual observations at the official documents it is revealed that "reading in the case of EAP is the language skill which is mostly taught at non-English departments in the graduate and the undergraduate levels. The courses are offered in the first or the second semesters". The purpose of teaching reading in this context is laid more on study skills which are ultimately aimed at broadening the academic knowledge of the fields that the students learn. Sulistyo (2013 p. 37-49) points out "…not all the language skills are taught because the credits offered for EAP fall in the range between 2 and 4 credits. This is understandable as English as EAP in the Indonesian context is meant to equip the students with academic reading skills".

Areas of Research in ESP

There are many areas of research in ESP which are developing today including EAP, EST, EOP, Business English, and many other areas. The followings are the examples.

In the area of EAP research "…students construct and examine their own individual, discipline-specific corpora" (Charles, 2012, p.93). and the area of EST also turns to be the interest of researchers (Parkinson, 2012).

The next one is English in the workplace which is also called English for Occupational Purpose **(EOP)**. This kind of ESP is becoming global, and international workforce needs applied sociolinguistics on how people use language in the workplace (Marra, 2012). In addition, in ESP settings there is always a consideration of profession as a key dimension as learners and their identities. This area is relevant to Business English (BE) (Zhang, 2013). In the area of legal English similarly there are "Legal English (LE), English for Legal Purpose (ELP), English for Legal Academic Purpose (EALP), English for Occupational Legal Purpose (EOLP), and English for General Legal Purpose (EGLP)" (Northcott, p.1). Aviation English explains the language used by pilots, air traffic controllers, and other staffs connected with the airline company (Moder, 2012). In addition, there comes up English for Medical Purpose (Salagar-M,2014) and English for nursing which explains clinical background and learning in nursing (Bosher, 2012). Another area of research interest is related with the

organization of theses and dissertation writing which is known as English for theises writing (Paltridge, 2002), and English for research publication purposes (ERPP), with discourse analysis as the main theoretical approach (Flowerdew, 2012), Business English (**BE)** is related to "business operation divisions which includes (1) production, (2) marketing, (3) finance, and (4) human resource management" (Nikolaenko, 2008, p. 5).

Methods Used in ESP Research: Needs Analysis, Genre, Ethnography, Corpus and Linguafranca

Some methods that are used in ESP research are among others needs analysis, genre analysis, ethnography and corpus. "**Needs analysis** is very relevant to ESP research as this is one of the characteristics of ESP which differentiates it from EGP "(Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, p.53). Another type of analysis in ESP is **genre analysis** that is collecting samples and choosing the text for detailed analysis and it has the concern with occupation (Bhatia,1993). While **ethnography** as a method refers to members' generalizations, discourse, practices, individual experiences, and participant feedback/validation (Scollon and Scollon, 2001). ESP also uses **corpus** as a method and it refers to collection of systematic written and spoken texts of language, the examples of which are BNC -British National Corpus and historical corpora (Nesselhauf, 2011). The last one is English Lingua franca **(ELF)** which according to Jenkins (2012) is communication between speakers who come from different first language background and this stressing the learning of ELF nowadays. Therefore, it has the implication on teaching and research of ELF in which one of the of the investigations is ELF discourse. This specifically for business people because speakers communicate based on their own cultural background (Geritsen and Nickerson, 2011).

Current and Future Research Direction of ESP and Further Development

Genre, corpus and ethnography can be regarded as the ESP current research which will be the concern of ESP researchers while needs analysis **as** the 'pioneer' of research analysis on ESP and is still relevant until today**.** With the development of

globalization there is also the development of industry and academia which affects the current and future directions of ESP**.** People around the world seek international education as a need. The aforementioned area of ESP concerning theses and dissertation shows that development (Flowerdew, 2012). In the case of industry ELF and BELF will also flavor the current and future directions of ESP.

ELF research deals with spoken and written English which covers the specific text genres such as negotiations, meetings, emails, and advertisments used by the international business community (Nickerson, 2005). With the growth of international business community, ELF is developing into BELF in which overall business communication is related to English and this has the impact on teaching (Kaankaranta and Salminen, 2011). In addition, this is an essential knowledge of business components which is required in today's global business environment (Kaankaranta and Planken, 2010). To be competent in BELF, people have to master Global Communicative Competence (GCC) which consists of three parts: multicultural competence, BELF competence and business know-how (Kaankaranta and Salminen, 2013). Therefore, more studies on BELF have to be conducted because the lack of empirical studies indicates a high need to improve the number of BELF research literature (Wu, 2013).

Genre refers to text and context (Paltridge, 2011) and corpus linguistics is concerned with "a tool, a method, a methodology, methodological approach, a discipline, a theory, a theoretical approach, a paradigm, be it theoretical or methodological, or a combination of these" (Taylor, 2008, p.180) that deals with studies on natural use of language.

Several scholars point out the areas of ESP research. Flowerdew (2005) says the combination of both corpus-based and genre-based approaches to analyse in EAP/ESP. Murphy (2012) explains the corpus of 23 official languages of EU documents., and the corpus of business English (Sznaljder, 2010). Meanwhile, Chang and Kuo (2011) argue the importance of combining corpus with genre analysis. Another type of corpus is "tourism corpus" (Kang and Yu 2011, p.1). Boulton and Carter (2012) state the center of interest on corpus of language experts, and Hyland (2012, p. 286) explains "genre of 100 academic homepages in two contrasting fields, subdivided by rank and gender,", ESP and ELF have

ordinary basis in the research methodologies and this can be seen on what and how ELF and BELF are used (Nickerson, Paltridge and Starfield 2012). The new development is lingua franca research which is concerned with ELF 1 which focuses on form, ELF 2 which is associated with variability, and ELF 3 which deals with multilingualism (Jenkins, 2015).

"Ethnography research focuses on cultural interpretation for the purpose of description or extension of social theory" (Riemer, 2008,p.203). Some examples are ethnography of the health, life situations and the environment of nurses (Cruz and Higginbottom, 2013), how the ethnographer of the language of informant, and how ethnographer deals with the difference in text (Brown and Cassanova, 2013). Other examples are networks which are crucial to make scholars' participation in transnational collaborations which support their published articles in both English and local languages (Curry and Lillis, 2010). In hospitality research, the description dialogue would enhance the qualitative written works (Sandiford and Seymour, 2007) and the application of establishing linguistic ethnography can be a part of social elements (UGent and UGent 2010). Another type is ethnography on food as food is a part of culture, and one of the findings was that food diversity was the main purpose and exciting taste was regarded as the experience in flavoring food (Freedman, 2016).

Several scholars (House, 2003; Seidlofer, 2005; Nickerson and Camiciottoli, 2013, Kaankaranta and Salminen, 2013, Kaankaranta 2016) have written English as lingua franca (ELF) from a different point of view. House (2003) states that lingua franca is a significant warning to national languages and to multilingualism. It is because English as lingua franca is used by non-native speakers and non-native speakers who already have their national language or first language (Seidlofer, 2005). Meanwhile, Nickerson and Camiciottoli (2013) investigate the use of English in advertising texts in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) from the points of view of social, cultural and Muslim Emirati community. In addition to "BELF speakers, grammatical correctness is not nearly as important as the genre knowledge of their own specific field of expertise" (Kaankaranta and Salminen, 2013, p.17). The latest development on BELF is the research on "English in international management, English in communication business research and ambiguity of the notion of 'English' (Kaankaranta (2016, p.1).

"Ethnography research focuses on cultural interpretation for the purpose of description or extension of social theory" (Riemer, 2008, p.203). Some examples are ethnography of the health, life situations and the environment of nurses (Cruz and Higginbottom, 2013), how the ethnographer of the language of informant and how ethnographer deals with the difference in text (Brown and Cassanova, 2013). Other examples are networks which are crucial to make scholars' participation in transnational collaborations which support their published articles in both English and local languages (Curry and Lillis, 2010). In hospitality research the description dialogue would enhance the qualitative written works (Sandiford and Seymour, 2007) and the application of establishing linguistic ethnography can be a part of social elements (Jacobs and Slembrouk,2010). Among 22 ESP practitioners they mostly (63%-100%) learn from ESP books, subject specialists, ESP colleagues and internet., and 5%-9% attend on-the job training, study and work in industry (Muhrofi-Gunadi, 2015). Another type is ethnography on food as food is a part of culture, and one of the findings was that food diversity was the main purpose and exciting taste was regarded as the experience in flavoring food (Freedman, 2016).

Research Methods

a. Research Design

This research employed a qualitative approach by counting the number and percentage of ESP articles compared to non ESP articles. Then classifying the ESP articles into EAP, EOP and BE. The next is classifying the research methods used in ESP into needs analysis, corpus, lingua franca, and ethnography.

a. Data and Data Collection

The data of the present research was the presenters' articles, in particular ESP articles, which were taken from the Proceedings of International TEFLIN International Conference held in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014. TEFLIN International Conferences have run a different theme from year to year. The theme of TEFLIN International Conference in 2011 was 'Language Teaching and Character Building', and the proceeding had 147 articles and there were 14 ESP

articles. In 2012 the theme of the conference was 'English Language Learning and Teaching in the Digitization Era' and the proceedings contained 60 articles, 13 articles of which were ESP. While in 2013, the theme of the conference was 'Achieving International Standards in Teacher Education. The Proceedings contained 102 articles and 22 articles of which were on ESP. The last was TEFLIN international conference held in 2014, the theme of which was English Language Curriculum Development: 'Implications for Innovations in Language Policy Planning, Pedagogical; Practices, and Teacher Professional Development 'in which the proceedings had 340 articles, 40 articles of which were about ESP.

a. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, there were three steps performed. The first is classifying all of the articles of ESP in the TEFLIN conferences held in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 into three kinds of ESP: EAP, EOP, and Business English(BE)**.** The second step was analyzing the methods used in ESP research based on needs analysis proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.53), corpus analysis (Nesselhauf, 2011), ethnography (Scollon, Scollon, 2001), and lingua-franca (Jenkins, 2012).

The current and future directions of ESP research were analyzed by classifying the articles into the number of articles which could be included in the trend of genre, corpus, ethnography, English Lingua franca (ELF), and Business English Lingua franca (BELF).

Findings and Discussion

a. Findings

The findings showed that in the **2011** TEFLIN Proceedings of the 147 articles there were 14 ESP articles consisting of 12 EAPs (85.7%) and 2 BE (14.3%). In the **2012** TEFLIN Proceedings there were 60 articles, comprising 14 ESP (23.3%), 11 EAP (18 .3%) 2 BE (3.3%), and 1 EOP (1.6 %). The next is the **2013** TEFLIN Proceedings there were 104 articles, there were 22 ESP articles consisting of 20 EAPs (90.9%) and 2 EOPs (9.1%). In the **2014** TEFLIN Proceedings, there were 340 articles, 42 articles were ESPs consisting of 22 EAPs (52.3 %) and 20 EOPs (47.7%). From this finding it can be seen that the number

of TEFLIN articles in 2014 was increasing significantly and the number ESP articles was also increasing. However, the percentage of ESP was decreasing. There were 40 ESPs out of 340 articles, consisting of 22 EAPs (55%) and 18 EOPs (45%).The figure below shows the number of total articles compared to ESP articles in TEFLIN Proceedings of the TEFLIN conferences held subsequently in 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014.

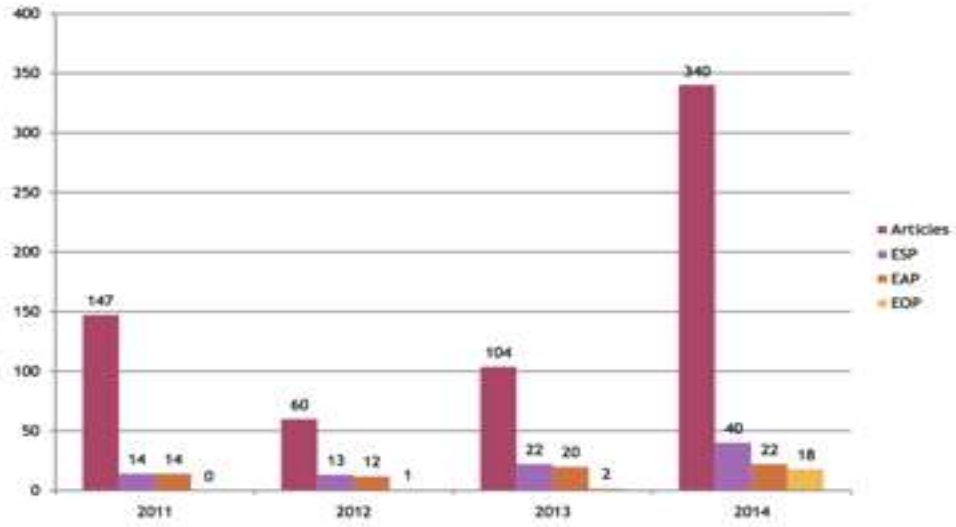


Figure 1: The Proportion of Total Articles to ESP Articles in TEFLIN Proceedings of Conferences Held in 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014.

Most of ESP articles were EAPs. EOP is gradually increasing from 0 (no EOP) in 2011 to 1 EOP in the 2012 proceedings, 2 EOPs in the 2013 proceedings and 18 EOPs in the 2014 proceedings. EAPs were still very dominant. EAP which is concerned with ICT could be found in TEFLIN Proceedings in 2011(6 articles), 2012 (7 articles), 2013(15 articles) and 2014 (1 article). Although the number of ESP is decreasing compared to the total of the number of articles, there was a recognition that EOP is considered important. This means that in the era of AEC and APEC ESP-EOP is gradually recognized by English instructors.

The figure below shows the dominance of EAP and the increasing number of articles on EOP in TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings held subsequently in 2012, 2013, and 2014.

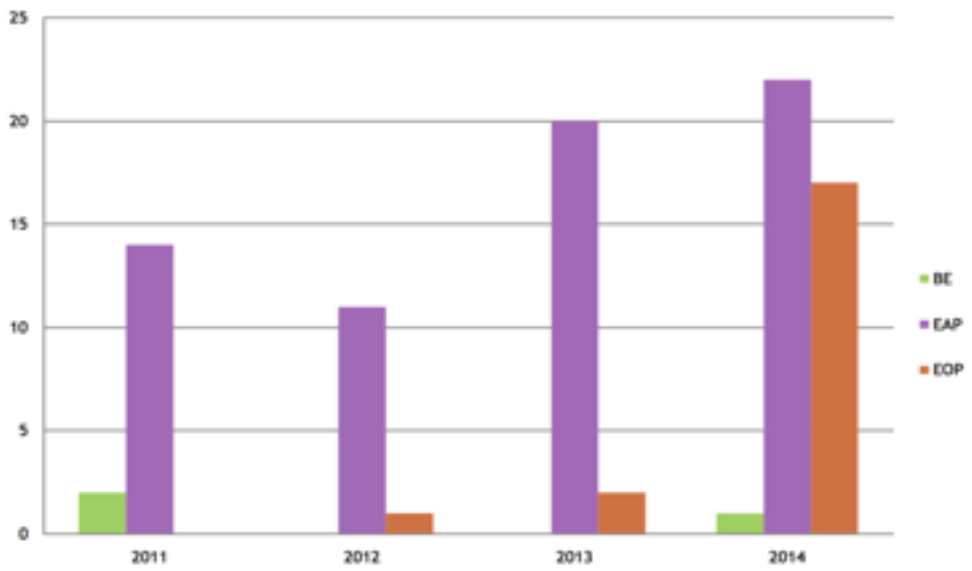


Figure 2: Articles on Business English (BE), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

From the point of view of percentage, the number of articles dealing with Business English (BE), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) was fluctuating. The increasing number was only observed from TEFLIN Conference 2011(1%) to 2012 (21%). In the 2013 conference the number of articles was decreasing. The decreasing number reached 50% (from 21% to 11%). From the conferences held in 2012 to 2013 the number was the same in percentage (from 21% to 21%). However, and from conferences held in 2013 to 2014, the number of the articles was decreasing (from 21% to 11%). It might be because of the theme of the conferences from held from 2011 to 2014 was not ESP. ESP is put as a sub-theme or the nuances of the theme is more EGP than ESP.

Another reason is because the credit number of ESP offered in universities is only 2-4. This condition is believed to discourage English teachers to have a career as ESP teachers. This means that ESP in general is still not considered urgent in the era of AEC and that of APEC whereas the needs for ESP in those two eras cannot be avoided. Compared to ESP in Taiwan, ESP in Indonesia is considered high in needs and demands. Taiwan anticipated ESP by publishing many kinds of articles of ESP in international journals and the last one

was holding the international on ESP which supports it to be closer to industries.

Of the ESP research methods utilized in 2011, there were 14 ESP articles with 12 using needs analysis, 1 article using corpus analysis, and another one using lingua franca. In 2012 of 13 ESP articles there are 11 on needs analysis, on 1 corpus, and on 1 lingua franca. In 2013 there were 22 ESP articles, 17 of which used needs analysis, 3 articles used ethnography and 2 articles used lingua franca. In 2013 there were 22 ESP articles, 17 of which used needs analysis, 3 ethnographies, and 2 lingua franca. The last is in 2014, there were 40 ESP articles, 34 of which used needs analysis, 3 ethnographies and 3 lingua-franca and there was no Business English Lingua-franca (BELF).

The figure below shows the **research methods** used in the ESP articles in TEFLIN Conference Proceedings held in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014 respectively which were dominated by needs analysis as the research methods. Corpus, lingua franca, ethnography was still very few.

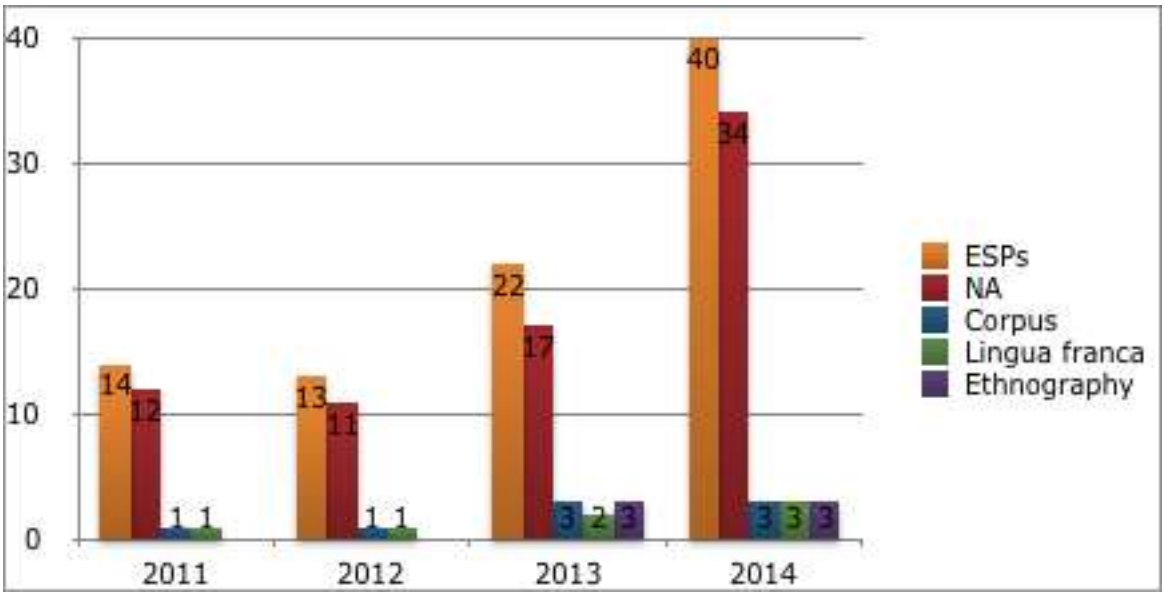
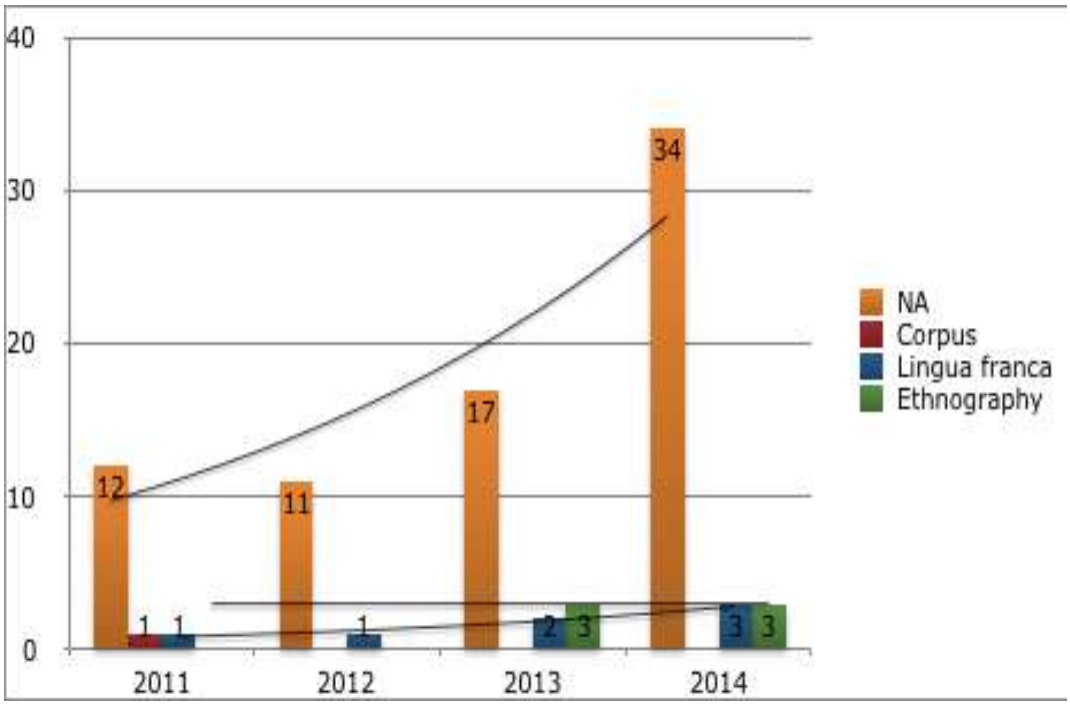


Figure 3: Research Methods in the ESP articles in TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings held in 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014

Future trends of ESP Research

On answering the future and trends of ESP research based on TEFLIN

Proceedings in the conferences held in 2011, 2012, 2013 and 2014, needs analysis was still very dominant. Other trends such as corpus, genre, ethnography, and ELF were still very few. There were only 1 corpus and 1 lingua franca in the conference held in 2011, 1 lingua franca in 2012, 2 lingua-franca and 3 ethnographic trends in 2013, and 3 lingua-franca and 3 ethnographic trends in 2014.



Discussion

Based on the percentage of the number of articles of ESP in TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings during 4 years, it can be concluded that ESP has still not been well developed. This might be because of the theme of the conference is more on EGP than ESP though in every conference participant had a room to present their materials on ESP. It can also be noted that EAP articles dominate compared to EOP. This condition shows that most ESP practitioners teach ESP at universities and secondary schools more than at colleges and vocational schools. Titles of papers reflecting general themes such as 'Maximizing Learning Management System in Higher Education: An ELT Case' (The 59 International

Conference Proceedings, 2012, p.2-p.7), 'The Use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Genre-Based Writing Teaching'(The 59th TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings, 2012, p.150-p.154).'The Needs of Teaching Cultural Intelligence: Reasons for Promoting Global English'(The59th TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings, 2012, pp.248-251) are more than the titles reflecting ESP such as 'Designing a Model of English Learning Materials for Eleventh Grade Vocational High Schools Students of Visual Communication Department'(The 61st TEFLIN International Conference Proceedings, 2014, p.258-261).

Based on the Catalogue of the English Department, Faculty of Letters, *UniversitasNegeri Malang* (2014, p.30), for instance, ESP is an elective course with 2 credits at the Magister Program and the credit load of the ESP course is only 2-4 credits. As the students of the English Department of English Department of *Universitas Negeri Malang* are English teachers' candidates and ESP is an elective subject, there are just a few things they can learn. In addition, when they graduate and have to teach ESP at universities, the number of credits offered is also limited. As a result, graduates' knowledge and skills in ESP is inadequate compared to the actual needs for teaching ESP in the field. It is argued that this is one of the reasons that contributes to the small number of ESP articles in the Proceedings of TEFLIN International Conferences.

In the era of AEC and APEC the Indonesian Government enacted Diploma Supplement which is written on the Decree of Minister of Education and Culture Number 8, 2014 on Certificate, Competency Certificate, Higher Education Professional Certificateto for all universities and college graduates. The content of the government's policy illustrates the graduates' experiences of on and off campus, elaborating the capabilities of what the graduates can do. With this supplement, it is easier for the employers to place the graduates in their workplaces. As the examples, the activities require that students have in-country trainings in multinational companies and overseas internships. This implies that indirectly this policy has the impact on the teaching of English at universities. English teaching is not only concerned with learning EAP but also gives the opportunity for the students to learn EOP.

The conference in Taiwan entitled ESP: Moving Higher Education Closer to

the Industry last October 2015 mentioned previously reminds us the importance of ESP which has the impact on the teaching of EOP that should not be limited to colleges or vocational schools. The Diploma Supplement and the conference reminds English practitioners to have sufficient attention to ESP. This supports that International Conferences of TEFLIN and other International English Teaching Conferences, workshops, and other activities need to put forward ESP as the main theme of the conferences in the near future if the teaching of English is meant to really provide human resources with functional life-skills that are ecologically sound to the needs of industries, besides academic concerns.

Conclusion

The number of articles in TEFLIN Proceedings from 2011 to 2014 increased significantly, and so did the number of ESP articles. However, the percentage of ESP articles was decreasing compared to the total number of articles.

The area of ESP articles in Proceedings of the TEFLIN international conferences held from 2011 to 2014 were dominated by EAP. The number of EOP articles moved very slowly from none in 2011 to 1 in 2012, and 2 in 2013 and 18 articles in 2014 meaning that there is a significant increase in number of EOP in 2013 to 2014.

The research methods which were used in ESP research articles were mostly needs analysis followed by lingua-franca, ethnography, and corpus respectively. This means that needs analysis is widely recognized by ESP practitioners, while lingua franca, ethnography, and corpus analysis methods are still considered new research methods in ESP in Indonesia.

The era of AEC and that of APEC are the era of free flow of skilled workers, goods and services which have the impact on the widely used of EOP. The blueprint of Social–Cultural Community of ASEAN (2013, p.13) supported ASEAN citizen to use of English for direct communication. This means that ESP practitioners' have to increase their role in the sense that they have to learn more on content, to provide materials, to learn in industry, to learn in the related workplace and to attend ESP training (Muhrofi-G, 2015). In relation with

communication among ASEAN community the use of EOP will be of a great help for everyone not only in communication employing English in general but more importantly in bridging the gap in the workplace communication.

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The Concept of Mobile Learning of University Students when Studying Foreign Language

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Abstract

This article discusses the concept of mobile learning of university students when studying "Foreign Language". The purpose of this article is to identify the possibilities, advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning and its use in teaching students at the university. To achieve these goals, we have identified the concept of mobile learning and pedagogical potential of mobile learning use in high school. The viewpoints of Russian and foreign authors on the definition of mobile learning concept are provided. Author's personal experience of mobile learning application in teaching English language to the 2nd year students of Tomsk Polytechnic University has been described. Based on the analysis of foreign and Russian educational literature and on the experience of mobile learning application, the advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning have been revealed. It is suggested, that the use of mobile information and communication technologies can improve the education system and bring it to a qualitatively new level.

Keywords: mobile learning, mobile devices, e-learning, blended learning.

Introduction

Rapid development of information and communication technologies and a constantly changing image of a modern student make educational institutions re-

evaluate teaching approaches, methods and forms of learning process, etc. Currently, in education a virtual electronic learning environment becomes very popular. The access to this environment can be obtained using a variety of mobile devices. Against the background of the active spread of mobile electronic devices and their use for entertainment purposes, their application as a tool which can improve the efficiency of learning is becoming particularly relevant. The application of these educational technologies in the teaching process allows one to find necessary educational information via the Internet, regardless of location. A person using a mobile phone, tablet or other mobile device has an opportunity to run a free mobile educational application at any time and independently develop a particular area of scientific knowledge. According to A. Cornu and D. White (2011), we can consider modern students as "digital residents". The authors define "digital residents" as somebody spending a considerable amount of time online and using a variety of applications and programs not only for entertainment, but for educational purposes as well. They use both established devices such as computer desktops and laptops, and mobile devices such as smartphones and tablets.

Mobile and wireless devices are becoming more affordable, which marks the new possibilities and challenges for universities, teachers and students. Despite the rich pedagogical potential, mobile technologies are poorly or either not integrated into the educational process at all. As a rule, Russian universities do not have mobile versions of their portals, information services are not adapted for mobile users. They do not create e-learning content to be used on mobile devices and do not develop mobile applications for students and teachers.

Research Methodology

Research Objectives

Since mobile learning appears to be a relatively new technique for most educational institutions, our research objectives are as follows:

- To define the concept of mobile learning.
- To identify pedagogical potential of mobile learning use in higher education.

- To identify possibilities, advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning and its use in teaching students at the university.

Research Methods

The analysis of articles and monographs where the concept of mobile learning was defined and described served the theoretical and methodological basis for our research. An opinion-poll was conducted to find out the students' attitude to mobile learning and its use in higher education and to identify advantages and disadvantages of mobile learning from the learners' point of view.

Literature Review

To realize our research objectives, we carried out a review of foreign and domestic pedagogical literature on the issue of mobile learning.

The origin of the idea of mobile learning is connected with occurrence of the first portable PC Dynabook invented by Alan Kay and company Xerox PARC in 1972 (Williams, 2009). The first portable computer became the prototype of modern laptops and tablet PCs (the devices most convenient for educational purposes). The use of mobile technology in teaching marked the beginning of a new trend - mobile learning. A few years before the start of production of the first portable PC, Alan Kay positioned the idea of Dynabook as a concept of a device for teaching: personal computer for children of all ages. Thus, Kay is not only the founder of the first portable device, but in fact, the author of the idea of mobile learning. Moreover, his concept proves that portable computers were originally created for educational purposes.

The main principles of Kay's concept can be regarded as the main principles of mobile learning.

The first principle of mobile learning is the perception of a portable computer as information carrier. This idea is the cornerstone of mobile learning. On the one hand, this basic principle extends the possibilities of distant and blended education; on the other hand, it transforms traditional education giving the students unlimited additional material of any complexity.

The second principle is the one of multimediality. Kay equips his device with multimedia capabilities, which are still widely used in the process of

teaching foreign languages. It is referred to listening to records, watching video excerpts and the use of visual aids (pictures) at the language lessons. Modern laptops, tablet computers and smartphones, enhancing the quality of multimedia materials, are, in fact, based on the principles laid down in the first portable computer.

Interactivity has become the third main idea of a portable computer and, at the same time, mobile learning. The hypothesis of a wireless communication system is in close connection with the creation of the first portable computer. This is due to the fact that it is the mobility of the device which requires the implementation of this type of communication, embedded in widespread use only at the beginning of the XXI century with the advent of third-generation wireless Internet (3G), which marked the official start of the study of mobile learning.

The basis of Alan Kay's development is Seymour Papert' philosophy of education, which is based on the ideas of constructivism. Seymour Papert, being an advocate of the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in education, plays an important role in the history of study of methods of application of mobile technology in the teaching of foreign languages. The researcher interprets his philosophy of education as learning through involvement in activities (learning by making) (Williams, 2009). The idea of involvement is realized, for example, by the method of learning through research. This idea is the basis of the fundamental principles of modern methods of teaching foreign languages: individualization, personalization and orientation for a student (learner centered approach).

At the moment, in the foreign pedagogical literature, there are different interpretations and definitions of mobile learning. Let us consider some of them and point out some characteristic features of the teaching and learning technique under consideration, advantages and drawbacks of using portable devices in the educational process.

Most foreign researchers (O'Malley, 2002; Berge, 2013; Crompton, 2015) associate mobile learning with the use of a technological device and draw attention to the fact that training is not bound to any specific location. The learners can study in any place, both in the classroom and outside its walls. According to them, the main components of mobile learning include but are not

limited to pedagogy, technological device, context and social interaction. One more important feature of mobile learning is the fact that it can be self-directed, since a student himself determines the approach that would satisfy his objectives; training can be spontaneous because a student can use the device to find the necessary information for him.

Agnes Kukulska-Hulme (2013) also defines mobility as the possibility of overcoming the spatial and temporal boundaries. She suggests that in the definition of mobile learning, mobility refers both to technology and to the student and content. She highlights such important features of mobile learning as continuity and spontaneity of the access and interaction within different contexts of the use and the possibility to make training personalized, situational, authentic, spontaneous and informal. One more important fact is that mobile learning can be used to develop students' interest for further independent study, which corresponds with the idea of life-long learning. The latter interpretation seems to refer mainly to the students, not the teachers, however, we know that the majority of students face difficulties without the guidance and direction of teachers.

One more interesting definition of mobile learning belongs to John Traxler (2005), who is actively engaged in the problem of mobile learning. He defines mobile learning as "any educational service, where the sole or dominant technology is a portable or handheld device". According to this definition, the devices that can be used for mobile learning are smart phones, personal handheld computers and their peripherals, tablets and laptops, but not desktop computers. Traxler characterizes mobile learning as independent, unplanned, personal, portable, small volume, context-oriented and interactive.

Further we consider the definitions of Russian scientists, who also did not remain aloof from the problems of using mobile learning in the modern university.

Russian researchers (Titova, 2012; Golicyna, 2011; Zhukov, 2004) also associate mobile learning with the use of a mobile device and the possibility to study in any place at any time. According to their works, the main features of mobile learning are portability, accessibility, interaction, efficiency and simplicity of use.

Many Russian scientists study the prospects and some possibilities of mobile learning. For example, A.V. Timofeev and A.A. Fedoseev (2005) note that electronic mobile devices have ample possibilities to complete the work in different professional fields. S.V. Kuvshinov (2007) defines mobile learning as a new reality in modern education. V.N. Kurovskii (2009) in his article writes that distant education technologies, including mobile are naturally integrated into the system of professional training of future specialists. Also, N.V. Daneykina (2012) states that electronic and mobile training is effective in teaching professional English language to students.

After consideration of the most important characteristic features of mobile learning, its prospects and possibilities, we would like to give a general definition of "mobile learning". Mobile learning is a form of organization of autonomous and personalized learning process, where the base or dominant technology is mobile communication devices (smartphones, tablets, etc.), through which students can develop and improve their language skills, social, cultural and intercultural competences not only during the classroom lessons, but also at any convenient time and from any location.

Obviously, the application of mobile devices indicates qualitatively new learning opportunities. The potential of mobile learning is obvious, therefore, in Europe, Canada, and the United States, a number of mobile learning projects have already been implemented, the experience and methods of the new educational system has been gained.

Within the program of the European Commission "Leonardo da Vinci", devoted to professional learning throughout life, with the support of Ericsson Company and several European virtual universities, a project "From e-learning to m-learning" was implemented in 2003 (Keegan, 2002). As part of this project, the partners developed pedagogical scenarios, the system mLMS (Mobile Learning Management System) to manage mobile learning and pilot courses for it. Real students, equipped with PDAs and mobile phones, took part in the testing of this system. Now the project moves to the second stage "Mobile learning: the next generation of learning". At this stage, participants will try to realize the benefits of specific technologies, peculiar to mobile devices, in the implementation of professional learning: streaming video and audio broadcasting

by networks 2.5 G and 3G, multimedia messages. For this purpose, the system LMS, created in the previous project, will be used.

In 2002, the m-Learning Consortium was created in Canada. It included two universities: Seneca College and the Northern Alberta Institute of Technology (NAIT), as well as companies Blackboard, Avaya, Bell Mobility, Hewlett-Packard, Ernst & Young and McGraw Hill Education (http://www.mheducation.ca/college/mlearning/). The goal of the consortium is to create a new learning environment, independent of time and place. Within the pilot project, which was implemented from September 2002 to May 2003, 300 first-year students of the two aforementioned universities got PDAs HP iPAQ, through which they have wireless access to the course materials on the Basics of Accounting. In addition, in the course of learning, students used text messaging services and access to streaming audio and video resources. Computer access to the INTERNET was provided through the wireless network Bell Mobility Network.

During the implementation of the project, more than ten different objects of mobile learning content were created, including full-text versions of books in the format of MS Reader, interactive simulations using technology Macromedia Flash, tests, a course glossary with a search, as well as a logical learning didactic game. Access and control of these objects, as well as the control of the students' actions, planning of their learning and control of their progress, were carried out using Blackboard Unplugged, an add-in of the well-known Blackboard Course Management System, created using technology API Blackboard Building Blocks.

As real examples of using mobile learning technologies, one can distinguish several categories. Firstly, they include projects conducted at the universities as an experiment with a new form of learning. Mainly, such projects are the creation of a virtual space, in which "mobile" research groups interact with students, who are in the classroom or at home. In this process, the main objective is to attract the "classroom" students to work as "mobile" researchers. Secondly, it is actually the process of learning. The first-year students of the Juridical and Medical faculties of the University of South Dakota are provided with the device Palm Pilot. Using this device, a student can receive class schedules, books and other learning materials. Also the student can perform his or her writing tasks

using this mobile device. According to the administration of the University, the decision to implement the PDA is caused by a desire “to unload the backpacks” of students and give them considerable freedom to choose the place and time of learning.

Hyo-Jeong So (2012), in her work “Turning in Mobile learning in Asia” stated, that one of the most important characteristics of mobile learning is “the ability to provide basic education and continuous learning for people who live in rural areas. The use of mobile technologies to increase access to education has been well-documented in developed countries. In developing countries, mobile learning has the potential to make education more accessible to people who are less reachable through other types of technologies” (p. 11).

The performed analysis of pedagogical literature has shown that in Russia a mobile learning is a relatively new learning technology, while in the West many researches have been engaged in this issue for many years. In addition, based on the analysis of studies by these authors we have identified the following benefits of mobile learning:

- Free access to learning materials, video clips and audio files anywhere in the world, including public places and even moving trains and buses.
- Possibility to implement interaction with other students and teachers.
- Portability, which is a very big advantage, because mobile devices are compact and light, and allow the student to take notes or enter any data directly to the device.
- The use of mobile devices increases the students' motivation, because the current generation of students is very passionate about different kinds of gadgets.
- Most mobile devices have a more affordable price than the stationary system, and the vast majority of the population owns them.
- Flexible learning schedule is a great boon, as students can get access to learning materials at any time - 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. Moreover, they can receive a teacher support outside the classroom.
- Each student can choose his/her own pace of work.
- Ability to save on the cost of learning materials.

In spite of considerable advantages, mobile learning has a number of drawbacks, mainly of a technical nature:

- A small screen of a mobile device, which can be uncomfortable when training;
- Fast discharge of a mobile device battery;
- Insufficient development of software for the putting of learning materials on the Internet.
- Limited wireless space and low Internet speed.

It should be noted that these shortcomings are only technical in nature, and in the age of rapidly developing technology, these problems will soon be solved.

Research Design

Now we consider the experience of application of mobile learning in Tomsk Polytechnic University (TPU). Currently TPU is introducing the elements of different kinds of e-learning, such as distant learning, blended learning and mobile learning. In our works (Demyanenko & Ermakova, 2012), (Demyanenko & Ermakova, 2016) we wrote about application of e-learning and blended learning in TPU in more detail. In the Institute of Physics and Technology of TPU the elements of e-learning, including mobile learning, are also applied in the teaching of the English language.

To reveal the pedagogical potential of using mobile learning in higher education and to prove its efficiency, we used the elements of mobile learning in teaching discipline “English language” to the 2nd year students of the Institute of Physics and Technology of TPU (4th semester). During the semester along with traditional textbooks, we used the e-course “Engineering Materials”. This course is posted in the e-learning environment MOODLE, access to which can be obtained from any computer or mobile device such as a smartphone, tablet or laptop. The main condition is access to the Internet. This e-course consists of four sections and contains different types of tasks for the development and testing of grammatical and lexical material. In addition, the course contains a large number of links to online resources for independent work. In addition, the course includes a variety of tools for student interaction with the teacher and with each other. The

course lasts for 20 hours (out of 60 hours, stipulated by the syllabus) and students can get a maximum of 20 scores (out of 60 scores in accordance with the score-list of the discipline). It should be noted that in order to be able to get an excellent mark on the exam, the student must complete all assignments of the electronic course. The structure and themes of the course are fully consistent with the syllabus of the discipline. In the framework of our experiment, the students used their mobile devices to work with the course. Four groups of the 2nd year students of the Institute of Physics and Technology of TPU (46 students) were taught using mobile technologies. It should be noted, that most of the students coped with all assignments of the course “Engineering Materials”, received the required number of scores and could lay claim to an excellent mark on the exam.

At the end of the semester, we carried out a survey of students to identify their opinions on the use of mobile learning in the process of studying the discipline "English Language".

Questionnaire for students is as follows:

Dear students! We ask you to take part in the survey on the use of mobile learning. Rate the following advantages of mobile learning using 10-point scale (from1 (the worst) to 10 (the best)):

The advantages of mobile learning	Your score
1. Free access to learning materials	
2. Possibility of interaction with other students	
3. Portability	
4. Flexible learning schedule	
5. Opportunity to work at your own pace	
6. Opportunity to receive a teacher’s advice outside the classroom	
7. Comments	

Results and Discussion

The performed analysis of the results showed that 100% of the students who participated in the survey estimated the process of studying the English language using mobile learning positively.

Highly enough (9.4 scores) the students estimated “Free access to learning materials”. Also, the students highly estimated “Portability” (8.6 scores). “Flexible learning schedule” and “Opportunity to work at your own pace” received 8.3. The students gave 7.7 scores for “Opportunity to receive a teacher’s advice outside the classroom”. “Possibility of interaction with other students” received 7.4 scores.

The obtained results can be represented in the following bar graph.

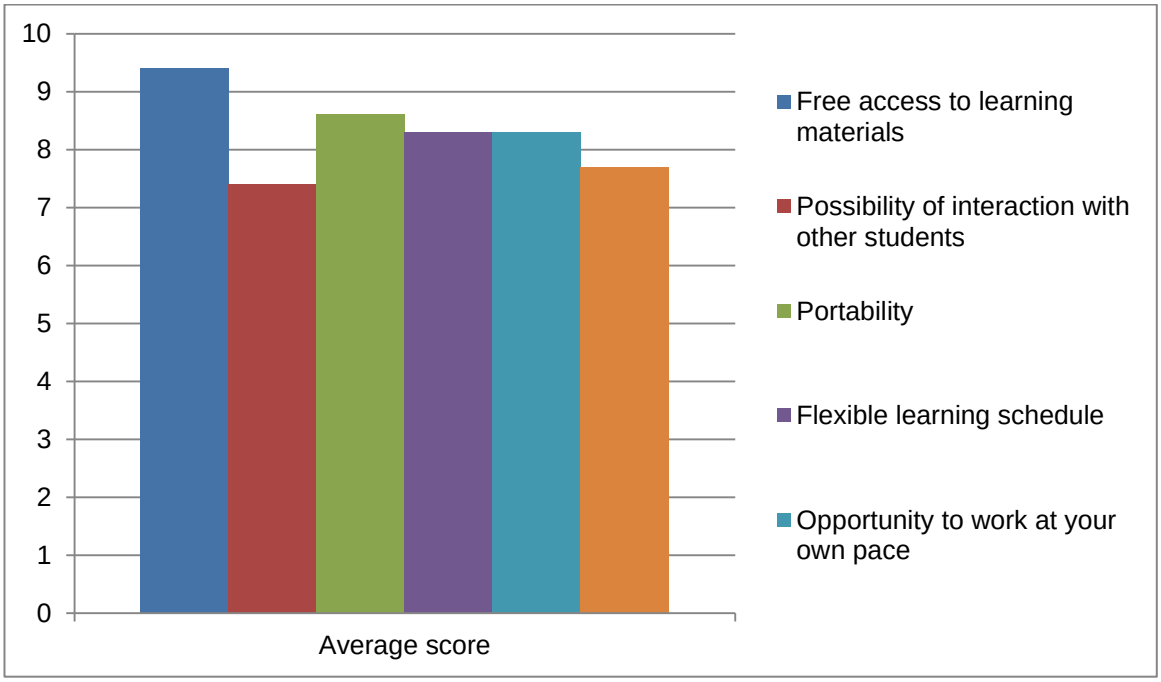

Figure 1. Students’ opinion on the use of mobile learning.

In the comments, the students mentioned disadvantages of using mobile learning, among which they called a fast discharge of the battery and the instability of Internet access.

Implications

All the above-mentioned allows us to assume that mobile learning can be used in the educational process for a number of purposes. It helps to save classroom time by letting the learners do some tasks using their mobile devices. It can also be used for organizing self-study and for control and assessment. Besides, it enables a student to stay in touch with the teacher even if he cannot attend classes for some reasons (e.g. a sick-leave) or has some questions.

We also claim that inclusion of mobile learning into the educational process may help to develop such key competencies as the ability to work with information, problem solving, lifelong learning, and such personal qualities as responsibility, independence, and meeting deadlines.

As for teaching foreign language, we can suggest a number of tasks for developing the students' communicative competence or assessing its level:

- Interactive quizzes. They should include different types of questions, namely matching, open cloze, multiple choice (dropdown lists or ticking the correct answer), short answers. The quizzes may also involve reading texts, listening or watching videos.
- Writing tasks. The answer may be typed in the answer box and submitted or done in a text editor and uploaded to a server.
- Interactive activities, such as cross-assessment, discussions, role plays, which involve the use of chats and forums.

Conclusion

When planning this article, our goal was to reveal the pedagogical potential of mobile learning in high school, and to identify its advantages and disadvantages. Thus, the results of questioning of the students, as well as the analysis of pedagogical literature and our own experience in the application of mobile learning, have shown that the use of mobile learning has a number of advantages, highly appreciated by the students.

In our view, the appropriateness of the use of advanced mobile communication means in learning process is evident, as students and teachers are not limited to the ability to learn and to teach at a particular time and place. We believe that in the near future, mobile devices and wireless technologies will become a part of daily learning, both in the classroom and outside the university.

It is also practically assured, that the use of mobile information and communication technologies can improve the education system and bring it to a qualitatively new level.

In our further practice, we plan to identify the other advantages of mobile learning and to use it more actively in teaching students at the university.

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Shariah Based Approach in Teaching Economic English: A Study on Lecturers and Students Perspectives

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Abstract
This research was conducted to investigate Economic lecturers and students' perspectives on teaching economic English through Shariah Approach. Teaching Economics English through a Shariah Economy approach is the integrating of modern knowledge (English) and Religious knowledge (Shariah Economy). The teaching objective is to prepare the students to be able to work in the variety of functions in the businesses and public sectors. This research is survey research. It was held at Economy Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University Baubau Indonesia in 2013/2014 Academic Year. This research was limited to analyze both Economic lecturers and students' perspectives on teaching economic English through Shariah Approach. The Participants of the study were 20 Economic Lecturers and 50 Economic Students. The instruments used were questionnaire and interview. All participants were invited to respond to questionnaires, and there were only 10 lecturers and 20 students who participated in follow-up

interviews. The results of the study showed that the main score of lecturers' perspective was 4.09 and students perspective was 4.20. From the main score and interview data indicated that both Economic lecturers and students held high positive perspective toward teaching English Economy through Shariah Approach.
Keywords: English Economy, Perspective, Shariah approach.

Introduction

Teaching English in Indonesia, especially for non-English majors in university, still has many problems. The students' achievement in English is in the low standard. Many research results argue that Indonesian students have low English proficiency (Hamra, 1993, 1996; 1998; & Kwelju, 2003). The success of learning English is actually still a high success of the research related to teaching and learning English. This is because there are still many obstacles in implementing the result of the studies such as cultural factors, paradigm, and the way of lecturers and students in teaching and learning.

The English course implemented in Economy Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University falls under the category of English for Specific Purpose (ESP). The lecturers have many problems in teaching and learning processes. They cannot find the suitable learning system that is able to accommodate all the needs of students in order for the students tfo achieve the English standard competences.

The low standard of students' English proficiency was due to several factors: (1) The learning material factors, the material used is General English (GE) not based on the process of students' needs analysis; (2) Teaching factor, Economic English is taught in Indonesian. Students have very limited time to practice and increase their language skills in the classroom. This condition makes it difficult for students to muster the language: (3) Learning model factor, the learning model used is a conventional model where learning English is only focused on the lecturers, the lecturers who explain the material and students listen. The use of unsuitable learning models in the teaching and the learning process can lead to boredom, a lack of understanding, and monotonous teaching and learning, which makes students less motivated to learn.

In overcoming the problems, the application of Economic English based on Shariah approach is important because of several reasons including (1) In learning, it implements the Students Centered Learning and the learning approach used is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The use students centered learning and CLT approach are to increase students' independence learning, the ability to work in teams and learn to reflected the existing circumstances. (2) The learning material is developed based on the specific needs analysis of economic students. The material contains the English as modern knowledge and Shariah economy as religious knowledge. Johari and Mustaffha (2014) combination of modern sciences and religious sciences are needed in an academic curriculum. In other words, he also confirms that students who learn integrated knowledge they will be good not only in *knowledge* but also in *skills* and *spirituality*.

Based on all explanations above and to make sure that teaching Economic English through Shariah approach is necessary to be used in teaching Economic English. Therefore, the researcher needs to be known "The Lecturers' and Students' Perspectives on Teaching economic English through Shariah Approach".

Literature Review

A. English for Specific Purposes

Economic English based on Shariah Approach is a part English for Specific Purposes (ESP), it is in the branch of "English for Business and Economic (EBE)".

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) defines that 'ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning'. Gatehouse (2001) argues in ESP, the situational language has been determined based on the interpretation of results from need analysis of the authentic language used in target workplace settings.

Carter, D. (1983) identifies three types of ESP: (1) English as restricted language, (2) English for Academic and Occupation Purposes, and (3) English with specific topics. Further, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) broke English for Academic and Occupation purposes into three branches: (1) English for Science

and Technology or EST, (2) *English for Business and Economic or EBE*, and (3) English for Social Studies (ESS).

Strevens (1988) defined ESP by identifying its absolute and variable characteristics: *Absolute Characteristics,* ESP consists of English language teaching which is designed to: (1) meet specified needs of the learner; (2) Related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities; (3) Centered on the language appropriate to select activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc.; (4) In contrast with General English. *Variable Characteristics,* ESP may be, but is not necessarily: *(1)* Restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only); (2) Not taught according to any pre-ordinal methodology.

From the explanation, the writer explains that English for Specific Purpose is designed to meet specific needs of the learner. ESP aims at acquainting learners with the kind of language needed in a particular domain, vocation, or occupation.

B. Teaching English Economy through Shariah Approach

Economic English based on Shariah approach is designed especially for economic students in the university. The material is designed through the process of specific needs analysis, so that, the material is expected to be suitable to the students needs and levels.

In the aspects of language skills, economic English based on Shariah approach is to apply integrated skills namely: (1) Listening, students should be able to understand and identify the arguments and the points of someone speaking; (2) Speaking, students should be able to participate effectively in speech such as speaking individually, being a presenter at the seminar, and including how to develop an argument in the discussions; (3) Reading, how to understand a variety of texts, from academic textbooks, internet articles, including how to analyze complex sentences, (4) Writing, how to produce writing that can be understood and well structured, including the ability to paraphrase and use phrases appropriately.

In the aspect of learning approach, it is used communicative language teaching (CLT). Harmer (2001) explains that the main principle of CLT is to train the students to use language forms appropriately in the variety of contexts for the

variety of purposes. While Richards and Rogers (2007) explain that the goal of language teaching which the materials taught include four language skills into communicative exercises. The underlying theory of language in CLT logically view language as communication. The goal of teaching is to develop communicative competence. Further, Richards, and Rogers (2007) describes the principles of communicative language teaching: (1) Learners learn a language through communicative process; (2) Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities; (3) Fluency is an important dimension of communication; (4) Communication involves the integration of different language skills; and (5) Learning process is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

In teaching Economic English based, the Shariah approach is used in the Learner-centered classroom. Husain (2011) explains that learner-centered classrooms usually involved a number of features, which fit the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. The dimensions of function, structure, and topic, demonstrated in many current communicative materials, are essentially learner-centered. Grunet (1997) described learner-centered with a particular emphasis on enhancing students learning by a learner-centered approach for college education, which ask you to consider how each and every aspect of your course can be most effective to support students' learning. Weatherholz (2003) argues that in the learner-centered classroom students learn to access their own work and anticipate in the assessment of their counterpart's work, which leads them to become self-directed learners and long-life learning.

In the aspect of content, economic English based Shariah approach uses vocabulary, sentences, themes, titles that are used in teaching and learning related to Shariah economy practice. In this case, the students are given the complete explanation so that they can analyze various economic problems. Through this study, students are expected to be able to participate in a variety of functions in businesses and public sectors. Students are prepared to be a financial analyst, economic consultant, human resource managers, policy advisers, researchers, etc.

C. Concept of Perspective

Robbins (2008) Perspective is the way to see something or the way of regarding situations, facts, etc, and judging their relative importance. Perspective in the narrative may be defined as the way the representation of the story is influenced by the position, personality and values of the narrator, the characters and, possibly, other, more hypothetical entities in the story world. Elizabeth (2012) *explains that there are* eight theoretical perspectives that are particularly useful for thinking about changing situations of persons and environments: the systems perspective, conflict perspective, rational choice perspective, social constructionist perspective, psychodynamic perspective, developmental perspective, social behavioral perspective, and humanistic perspective. *Theory* as a logically interrelated set of concepts and propositions organized into a deductive system, which explains relationships among aspects of our world.

It is suggested that a *perspective,* in contrast to a theory, is broader and more general an emphasis or view. In earlier versions of the eight perspectives, few theorists acknowledged the importance of looking at diverse persons in diverse environments. Each of the perspectives has continued to evolve, however, and the perspectives are being reconstructed to better accommodate diversity and address inequality. Some theory critics suggest that this shift to greater emphasis on diversity and inequality represents a paradigm, or world view, shift (Schriver, 2004). Other theory critics, on the other hand, argue that the eight perspectives discussed here have undergone continual change, but not such a revolutionary change as to be labeled a paradigm shift (Ritzer & Goodman, 2004). These critics suggest that the perspectives have stood the test of time because they have, over time, become much more self-conscious about diversity and inequality. Whether or not the attention to diversity and inequality constitutes a paradigm shift, we agree that it has been a major and positive trend in behavioral science theorizing.

Another major trend in behavioral science theory is that although much of recent theorizing fits within existing categories of theoretical perspectives, theoretical synthesizing is blurring the boundaries between perspectives (Ritzer & Goodman, 2004). Theorists are being influenced by each other, as well as by societal changes, and have begun to borrow ideas from each other and to build new theory by combining aspects of existing theory. As you read about each of the perspectives, think about not only how it can be applied in social work

practice, but also how well it represents all the complexities of human behavior in its current form.

Method

A total of 50 Economic students and 20 Economic lecturers participated in this research. All of Economic students had joined Economic English in their class. The average age of students was 22.20. The teachers had taught English for an average of 9.3 years and their average age was 35.5. After participation in the survey study, the same participants were invited to take part in follow-up interviews. A total of 20 Economic students and 10 Economic lecturers who had participated in the questionnaire phase of the study accepted the invitation to take part in the interviews.

This research is survey research. Both questionnaires and interviews were used to gain an in-depth insight into the perspective of Economic teachers and students on teaching economic English through Shariah Approach. Methodological triangulation has been regarded as one of the most significant measures to ensure the validity of the results obtained from each instrument (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Accordingly, in this study the use of questionnaires and interviews provided supplementary and confirmatory data concerning students' and lecturers' perspective.

In analyzing the data collected the mean and standard deviations were used for analyzing the results of the questionnaires. SPSS 21version was employed for data analysis. Based on the content analysis, the responses to the questions of the interviews were read line by line and translated into English. Afterward, the emerging themes were identified and reported.

Finding and Discussion

A. Findings

1. Economic Lecturers' and Students' Perspective Toward Teaching English through Shariah Approach

a. The results of questionnaires

As Table 1 illustrates, in general, the Economic lecturers and students had positive perspective toward teaching English Economy through Shariah approach. Moreover, there are no significant differences among the perspective of EFL Economic lecturers and students regarding ten questions related to teaching economic English through a Shariah approach; including applications of Shariah approach in teaching economic English, the Shariah approach can replace teaching English as an approach before teaching an English economy through a Shariah approach is useful for economic students. Students can be motivated to study Economy in English through a Shariah approach. Students can improve their English Economy skills through the use of a Shariah approach in teaching English Economy. Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach can improve Economic competence, Students will be more active in English classes if it is taught through a Shariah Approach. Students may be more interested in studying English Economy through a Shariah approach. Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach prepares students to be able to work in international cooperation.

The question related the expectation of lecturers and students in order that the students can be taught English Economy through a Shariah approach to pedagody.

Table 1. EFL teachers' and students' perspective toward teaching English Economy through Shariah approach

The Statements	Participants (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Undecided (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Mean	SD	P. Value
Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach can be used for teaching English Economy purposes.	Lecturers	0	0	10	65	25	4.20	0.62	0.163
	Students	0	0	0	74	26	4.26	0.44	
Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach can replace teaching	Lecturers	0	10	25	60	5	3.50	0.76	0.110
	Students	0	0	30	50	20	3.80	0.67	

approach before.									
Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach is useful for Economic Students.	Lecturers	0	0	5	30	65	4.60	0.60	1.000
	Students	0	0	4	32	64	4.60	0.57	
Students can be motivated to study English Economy through Shariah approach.	Lecturers	0	0	15	70	15	4.05	0.60	0.428
	Students	0	0	16	72	12	3.92	0.53	
Students can improve their English Economy skills through the use Shariah approach in teaching English Economy.	Lecturers	0	0	15	50	35	4.20	0.70	0.666
	Students	0	0	8	56	36	4.28	0.61	
Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach can improve Economic competence.	Lecturers	0	0	5	60	35	4.30	0.57	0.059
	Students	0	0	0	46	54	4.52	0.50	
Students will be more active in English class if it is taught through Shariah Approach.	Lecturers	0	0	30	50	20	3.90	0.72	0.505
	Students	0	0	20	60	20	4.00	0.64	
Students can be interested to study English Economy through Shariah approach.	Lecturers	0	0	15	75	10	4.00	0.59	0.560
	Students	0	0	2	74	24	4.22	0.46	
I want to (I hope my students can) Study English Economy through Shariah approach.	Lecturers	0	0	10	65	25	4.15	0.59	0.420
	Students	0	0	6	52	42	4.40	0.61	

Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach prepares students to be able to work in international cooperation.	Lecturers	0	0	20	50	30	4.00	0.79	1.000
	Students	0	0	18	54	28	4.10	0.76	

Table I: above also shows that distribution of students and lecturers who answer the questions of perspectives questionnaires indicates that most of students and lecturers choose agree and strongly agree but less of them choose undecided and disagree. Further, from all the questions only question number 2 (Teaching English Economy through Shariah approach can replace teaching approach before) that there are some students that answered 'disagree' because they regarded the as still also feasible to be used in teaching economic English.

The data of the lecturers' interval score based on the questionnaire also indicates that the lecturers' perspective in teaching economic English through Shariah Approach shows that 16 students (80 percent) had high positive perspective, 4 students (20 percent) had positive perspective, and none of the student was neutral, Negative, and high negative perspective. And the student's perspective in teaching English Economy through Shariah Approach shows that 46 students (92 percent) had high positive perspective, 4 students (8 percent) had the positive perspective, and none of the students were neutral, Negative, and high negative perspective.

Further analysis showed that the mean score of lecturers' perfective toward teaching economic English through Shariah Approach was 4.09 with standard deviation was 0.21, while the mean score of students' perspective was 4.21 with standard deviation was 0.16. Finally, the lecturers and students' perspective toward teaching economic English through Shariah Approach was 4.15 with standard deviation was 0.19 which shows that the participants adopt high positive perspective toward a specific merit of teaching economic English through Shariah approach. Furthermore, the lecturers and students' perspective can be seen in the table below:

Table 2. The mean score and standard deviation of the lecturers and students@ perspectives

Group	Mean Score	Standard deviation
Lecturers Perspective	4.09	0.21
Students Perspective	4.21	0.16
Lecturers and Students Perspective	**4.15**	**0.19**

b. The results of Interviews

The results of interviews were consistent with the results of the questionnaires in many aspects. It seemed that the students were eager to study English Economy through Shariah approach. It is also supported by economic Lecturers that expect their students can study English through Shariah approach. Some of the qualitative responses we received were;

> "I wish; I could study economic English through Shariah approach. Because I can know besides English skill and also Economic knowledge in Islamic perspective" (student 5).

> "I agree to study economic English through Shariah approach. I can get a lot of information about English such as: how to speak for negotiation in English, how to write in English, and also I can get a lot of vocabularies that is able to help me to improve my English" (student 13).

> "I prefer Studying economic English through Shariah approach than English teaching before, because in English teaching before we were taught general English by the lecturer. So that, it only gave a little contribution for us to improve our knowledge, many my friends were not enthusiasm in joining English class" (student 19).

"That's a good question. Actually, many lecturers include me expect economic English through Shariah approach can be applied here, because when students will study English through Shariah approach they can improve their English skills and economic knowledge, as the result they can be good in English and also in economic aspect" (Lecturer 1).

Studying economic English through Shariah approach is good for the students because nowadays Shariah economy in Indonesia include in the world becomes the trend in the economic system. By understanding Shariah Economy in English, they will be considerable people in Indonesia even in the world. (Lecturer 7).

From the explanation of lecturers and students about the application of studying economic English through Shariah approach indicates that students prefer studying economic English through Shariah approach, because they can get a lot of information about English skills such as Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, and Vocabulary. Economic knowledge especially through a Shariah perspective can also be achieved. Both of the information namely English skills and economic knowledge can be the power for students to face high competition in the global economy.

The students are motivated to study English Economy through a Shariah approach. The explanations can be seen below:

"I am motivated to study economic English through Shariah approach. Because its material will be able to improve my knowledge proficiency" (student 2).

"Yes, I hope, I could study economic English through Shariah approach as fast as possible. Why, because, it contains a new enjoyable approach and the materials are interested to learn because it can stimulate the students to know many skills" (student 10).

"Studying economic English through Shariah approach motivate me to Study English, whereas I do not like studying English before" (student 17).

The statement of students about their motivation to study economic English through Shariah approach above is a guarantee that students are motivated to join English Economy class through Shariah approach, because of some reasons: economic English through Shariah approach accommodates the knowledge they need to learn and contains new enjoyable approaches and materials that are interesting, so they feel that a Shariah approach is an enjoyable approach to be used in learning economic English.

From the explanation above the writer can take the guideline to be the advantages of Teaching economic English through Shariah approach therefore this approach can be used in economic Class such as: It contains no English material in context but also Economic knowledge in content especially Shariah economics; The material is related to the students needs because it explains what was faced by students after they graduate from the university; it contains English for specific purpose, in this case, economic English, not general English; the material makes the students practice more frequently.

B. Discussions

Lecturers and Students of Economy Faculty at Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University reported a positive overall perspective towards the teaching of English Economy through Shariah approach. Twenty lecturers and fifty students *agreed* to use English Economy through Shariah approach in teaching economic English in Economy Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University and lecturers and students suggested to change the last approach to be economic English through Shariah approach because, in the last approach, most of materials taught were general English.

Most Lecturers and students in the study believe that economic English through Shariah approach could be useful for students to improve both their English language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and English language components such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. In the other hand, the students also could know the economic knowledge in content especially Shariah Economic. In this case the students could be trained to be able:

(1) To take effective notes on extended lectures, including how to follow the

argument and identify the speaker's point of view; (2) How to participate effectively in a variety of realistic situations, from seminars to presentations, including how to develop an argument and use stance markers; (3) How to understand a wide range of texts, from academic textbooks to Internet articles, including how to analyze complex sentences and identify such things as the writer's stance; (4) How to produce coherent and well-structured assignments, including such skills as paraphrasing and the use of the appropriate academic phrases; (5) How to develop students' knowledge and use of key vocabulary, both in the field of Economy Shariah and of academic study in general.

The students expressed their enthusiasm in joining economic English through Shariah approach in teaching economic English in Economy Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University. Because they regard that it could encourage their activeness in the classroom. Whatever, the students hoped that they can work in national and international economic cooperation after joining the class related to the objective of this material.

Conclusion

This study found that lecturers and students in Economy Faculty of Dayanu Ikhsanuddin University have high positive perspective toward the teaching of economics English through a Shariah Approach with the mean score is 4.15. There are some advantages of Teaching economic English through Shariah, such as It contains not only English material in context but also Economic knowledge in content especially Shariah economics; The material is related to the students needs because it explains about matters which will be faced by students after they graduate from university; it contains English for specific purpose, in this case, economic English, not general English; the material makes the students more practical.

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