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Editorial

This book of conference proceedings is the product of the Pedagogical and Cultural Approaches in Western Languages, The First International Conference held by Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University during 12-13 May, 2016 in Bangkok, Thailand. Eleven blind-reviewed articles presented at the conference have been selected based on the objectives of the conference.

The first article by Professor Dr. Erich Berendt entitled **'Culture of Learning'** uses the contemporary Cognitive Metaphor theory to explain the learning process through metaphoric patterns. The article also provides his 'Good Teacher' concept comparing between the Thai and Finnish societies.

The second article by Amin Rumana entitled **'Resolving Some Major Issues Regarding the English Language Teaching through Developing an English for Specific Purposes Course in the Context of Bangladesh'** provides a guideline for an ESP course design in the context of Bangladesh in which it is hoped that the guideline will be useful for teachers who are developing a new ESP course.

The third article by Chomploen Pimphakorn and Garry McFeeter entitled **'Imperialism, Commerce, Printing Culture and their Effects on the British Society in the Eighteenth Century'** examines, through literary works, the British power in terms of how the situations in Britain and in British colonized plantations differ.

The fourth article by Chu Tan entitled **'English Teaching in Ethnic-minority Regions of Yunnan Province in China'** presents major results of his Ph.D. dissertation at Assumption University, Thailand, which analyze the current ELT situations in Yunnan Province of China.

The fifth article by Professor Dr. Joe Foley entitled **'EFL Classroom and Translanguaging'** enriches the readers with the socio-cultural perspective on language learning *in* interaction based on the EFL context of Thai-English class.

The sixth article by Panadda Pratoomrat entitled **'A Conversational Analysis of Classroom Interactional Competence of Thai Students at a Tertiary Level'** focuses on Classroom Interactional Competence of Thai students in order to see how they interact with one another when there is no teacher intervention.

The seventh article by Piyawan et al. entitled **'Writing Strategies Used in English Essay Writing of Thai Undergraduate Learners Majoring in English at Srinakharinwirot University'** investigates various writing strategies employed by students. Through this investigation, this group of researchers recommend that Meta-cognitive strategy be included in the EFL writing classes.

The eighth article by Assistant Professor Rajani Moti entitled **'Teaching English to Second Language Learners through Indigenous Literature in English'** explores the effect of using the English versions of two indigenous Indian short stories on teaching ESL based on the assumption that familiar cultural background and textual content facilitate the process of learning.

The ninth article by Dr. Rebecca Webb entitled '**Language Teaching through Project, Process and Performance'** critiques the current ELT approach, CLT, through her own experience.

The tenth article by Tassanee Kampittayakul entitled **'Developing Thai Learners' Classroom Interaction Competence (CIC) through Translanguaging in EFL Classroom'** tries to conceptualise CIC and promote CIC of students through translanguaging practices.

The final article by Professor Dr. N Z Patil entitled **'Teaching English Language and Literature Using Information and Communication Technology'** explains his technique of using modern technology to effectively teach English and literature.

Dr. Watthana Suksiripakonchai
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Cultures of Learning

Professor Dr. Erich A. Berendt

Introduction

Any person having studied or taught in situations different from one's own primary language and cultural background will readily acknowledge that there are behavioral differences in how we go about our learning activities in as well as out of the classroom and our expectations about how learning should proceed and what its values might be. Much of this lies undoubtedly below our consciousness. A key pathway to gain insight into underlying expectations of our thinking and behavior about learning can be found in the research of contemporary Cognitive Metaphor theory. In this paper I will present two research projects: one examining the contemporary discourse in English and Japanese in the domain of LEARNING from the perspective of underlying metaphoric patterns, the other focusing on the concepts of what may constitute a GOOD TEACHER in Thai and Finnish societies from a similar perspective. Through those underlying cognitive patterns, this paper looks into how possible representations of discourses in the domain of learning is shaped and how it can influence our expectations in regard to our learning behavior.

The term "culture" is widely used both in technical as well as non-technical discourses. It is therefore difficult to define but in this paper the medical term of "syndrome" with multiple symptoms or features may best be appropriate as a metaphor in thinking about the complexities of culture. Certainly in human cultures language plays a central but varied role in our talking about things and thus shaping our thinking about them. It is thus a core feature of any consideration of what might characterize a culture.

The significance of Cognitive Metaphor research has been acknowledged not only by linguists such as George Lakoff, Raymond W. Gibbs, Jr. and others but also in fields such as

cognitive psychology and neuro-sciences. Such metaphoric language is pervasive in our use of language, act as building blocks to shape our thinking. To illustrate this let me quote from Benjamin K. Bergen (University of California-San Diego).

"When you look closely at how we use language, you find that a lot of what we say is metaphorical—we talk about certain things as though they were other things. We describe morality as cleanliness: 'That was a *dirty* trick.' And understanding as seeing: 'New finding *illuminates* the structure of the universe.' People have known about metaphor for a long time, but until the twentieth century, almost everyone accepted Aristotle's explanation."

"But in their 1980 book *Metaphors We Live By* George Lakoff and Mark Johnson proposed an explanation for metaphorical language that flouted this received wisdom. They reasoned that if metaphor is just a linguistic device based on similarity, then you should be able to metaphorically describe anything in terms of anything else it is similar to. They observed that real metaphorical language that we actually used isn't haphazard at all. Instead, it is systematic and coherent."

"It is systematic in that you don't just metaphorically describe anything as anything else. Instead, it's mostly abstract things that you describe in terms of concrete things. Morality is more abstract than cleanliness. Understanding is more abstract than seeing. And you can't reverse the metaphors."

"Metaphors are also coherent with one another. In the case of understanding and seeing, there are lots of relevant metaphorical expressions: for example, 'I see what you mean.' and 'Let's shed some light on the issue.' etc. While these are totally different metaphorical expressions (they use completely different words) they all coherently cast certain aspects of understanding in terms of specific aspects of seeing. You always describe the understander as the seer, the understood idea as the seen object the act of understanding as seeing, the understandability of the idea as the visibility of the object, and so on."

"These observations led Lakoff and Johnson to propose that there was something going on with metaphor that was deeper than just words. They argued that the metaphorical expressions in language are really only surface phenomena, organized and generated by mappings in people's minds. For them, the reason metaphorical language exists and is systematic and coherent is that people think metaphorically. You just don't talk about understanding as seeing, you think about understanding as seeing. You don't just talk about morality as cleanliness, you think about morality as cleanliness. And it's because you think metaphorically—because you systematically map certain concepts onto others in your mind—that you speak metaphorically." In terms of utility, the conceptual-metaphor explanation has generated extensive research in a variety of fields: linguists, psychologists, neuroscientists, philosophers. For further discussion of the significance of cognitive metaphor research see Benjamin Bergen and Somine Schnall in *This Explains Everything* J. Brockman (ed.), Harper Perennial 2013 pp. 215-220.

Learning Domain

To examine the underlying cognitive metaphoric patterns used in the discourse domain of LEARNING and to compare them cross-culturally an extensive data base in English and Japanese discourse on Learning was made, keeping in mind Edward T. Hall's three cultural modes of awareness about our experiences: technical, formal and informal. (E.T. Hall 1959). So data from reference works, academic writing, essays on educational issues and conversations focusing on aspects of learning were collated into the data base.. All expressions, not just figurative language but verbs, nouns, adverbs used, were examined for underlying metaphoric patterning in the learning discourse.

Many patterns are shared across cultures. Examples for the ENTITY pattern: *to grasp, lay hold of, get the idea of, give students understanding, acquire new knowledge, Is higher education a commodity? Learning requires an investment of time.*

Learning is an entity (Valuable Commodity).

Even ordinary vocabulary such as the verbs *to learn* and *to educate* when examined grammatically reflects a metaphoric grounding. To educate always takes a personal noun object, such as "to educate someone". This reflects its etymology in Latin of meaning "to lead/guide someone" in a PATH metaphor focusing on the role of the teacher. Similarly, the Greek etymology of *pedagogy* also has its root meaning of a teacher "leading a child", reflecting a JOURNEY concept with salient features of PATH, DESTINATION, GUIDE and perhaps OBSTACLES. These features then shape our discourse regarding LEARNING. Some other examples are: *the way to bring up children, learning proceeds. New paths to learning, There is no royal road to learning.*

Learning is a path/journey.

In contrast the English *learn* takes a non-personal noun object, such as to learn a language, a field of study, etc. The object of learning is a knowledge or *lore* in ancient times, but transferred in modern education to content and skills, still a body of information as well as skills. These can be visualized as an ENTITY.

Example for pattern four: *have in one's head, fully understand, Many things go into learning.*

These expressions imply that LEARNING IS A CONTAINER (to be filled).

Ten shared underlying metaphoric learning patterns were found in both the English and Japanese data (with the number of tokens in the data):

Shared learning metaphoric patterns.

1. LEARNING AS AN ENTITY	(E) 70	(J) 63
2. LEARNING AS A PATH /JOURNEY	(E) 51	(J) 29
3. LEARNING AS AN ACTIVITY	(E) 54	(J) 25
4. LEARNING AS A CONTAINER	(E) 18	(J) 22

5. LEARNING AS A LIGHT SOURCE (E) 26 (J) 13

6. LEARNING AS AN AREA (E) 12 (J) 15

7. LEARNING AS DEEP/LEVELS (E) 15 (J) 10

8. LEARNING AS A PROCESS (E) 8 (J) 7

9. LEARNING AS AN ACT OF COMMUNICATION (E) 11 (J) 1

10 LEARNING AS A CONDUIT (E) 8 (J) 5

The large number of shared underlying patterns is not surprising considering that handling and using of things (entities, containers), following paths and making journeys, awareness of the significance of light, depth and areas surrounding us are universal in our cognitive development. The only item which reveals a cultural divide is in the types of "communication acts" that occur in the data. For English it is mostly dialogical such as Q&A and critical interaction, but these did not occur in the Japanese data. Further the only occurrence in Japanese was related to the concept of "conveying" some lore (in the data "traditions"). There also were a number of metaphoric patterns which were particular to Japanese or English.

Japanese only productive metaphoric patterns.

1. LEARNING AS INGESTING 13

2. LEARNING AS GROWING A PLANT 11

3. LEARNING AS BEING ALIVE 7

4. LEARNING AS GIVING BIRTH 6

5. LEARNING AS WAR 6

6. LEARNIING AS RAISING BIRDS 4

7. LKEARNING AS A CHANGE OF STATE 2

8. THE HANDS AS A MEDIUM OF LEARNING 1

9. LEARNING AS FIRE 1

The vocabulary of WAR in Japanese may be compared to the high occurrence of vocabulary in English related to physical discipline. In the Japanese learning environment the use of "hands" in guiding children's behavior is notable, including learning non-verbal behavior such as bowing. The role of nature in "growing plants" and "raising birds" is another evident cultural awareness of Japanese, although the agricultural vocabulary of "cultivation" is used in English discourse.

English only productive patterns.

1. LEARNING AS PHYSICAL CONTROL 17
2. LEARNING AS A LIVING THING 12
3. LEARNING AS CONCIOUSNESS 7
4. LEARNING AS CULTIVATION 2
5. LEARNING AS POWER 2

The focus on PHYSICAL CONTROL partially reflects the impact of Behaviorist Psychology on learning practices. E.g. to master/ discipline/ training/ learn to obey commands, etc. The focus on LIVING THING relates to expressions such as "growth patterns/ growing effort (in education), etc. The choice of vocabulary will shape the conceptual background that is intended. This of course can shift over time and culture. Not just the culturally apparent language links but in general our choice of language and its underlying metaphoric patterns shape our discourse values in the field. The **commodification** or valuation of entities is a particularly apparent focus in how we think about learning in recent years discourse. Such discussion reflects the hidden value of wanting to quantify learning into bits and pieces, such as in our computer processing. The **journey** metaphor with implications of discovery, development in more distant goals is a potential counter balance to seeing learning as acquisition of commodities. For more detailed

discussion of the cognitive metaphors of learning see E.A. Berendt , *Metaphors for Learning* J. John Benjamins 2008b.

The GOOD TEACHER

No two societies could be so far apart both in terms of physical geography as well as in cultural traditions as Finland and Thailand. One is a northern European country with deep protestant Christian roots; the other is at the cross-roads of southeast Asia with deep roots in Theravada Buddhism. Each has a strong national language identity, reflecting its historical roots and geographical setting. .

In Thai traditional learning culture (Mulder 1997) the teacher is addressed as *ajarn,* the same as Buddhist monks but are classified a step just below monks in the social hierarchy. What that means is that the social deference, expectations that are given to monks is also applied to the teacher to a considerable degree. A teacher/ajarn should possess moral goodness (*khun ngaam khanamdee)* and is looked up to to uphold those moral and social behaviors. The teacher is thus seen as a conduit to give knowledge and has obligations for the moral life of students. The teacher-student relationship, *ajarn nakrien,* assumes a reverence and respect for the teacher that does not allow the student to question the teacher, who is regarded as the abode of knowledge. . This is reflected in the traditional top-down, monastic valuation in formal learning. The traditional lore of learning which centered in Buddhist Pali texts was to be not only read but memorized, where all knowledge was to lead to one's moral realization. The acts of reading and recitation were grounds for making merit. Formal knowledge, a *saksit,* was learned through ritualistic rote memorization. Even today when passing a monastic school you will hear the loud recitative chanting of the lessons, not necessarily in unison; the louder, the better the student. Thailand today, however, in its trade, tourism and increasing industrialization is also at a cross-roads in terms of its pedagogics, where learning needs to be directed to new ends of technology and analytical skills.

Finland shares the European Socratic dialog mode of critical inquiry to achieve insight or understanding as a highly valued learning mode. A major goal in such education is to acquire analytical skills for creating technical knowledge. Critical thinking in solving problems and discerning hidden patterns, structures and relationships depend upon an interactive process founded upon the give and take of dialog. While the teacher may be a mentor, he/she is also a provocateur.

Berendt (2008b: 73-89) found in his comparative study of the underlying conceptual patterns in Japanese and English discourse on learning that some conceptual metaphoric patterns such as LEARNING IS A PATH, LEARNING IS AN ENTITY/COMMODITY are very common in both cultures, but there were other underlying patterns which shaped the discourse of negotiating understanding which suggested strong culturally divergent values about how we learn. The characteristics of LEARNING AS A LIGHT SOURCE/SEEING IS UNDERSTANDING were quite divergent. English focused on discovery, uncovering hidden knowledge, Japanese on illuminating; these poles seemingly reflect the heuristic tradition of the west in contrast to an enlightening change in perception in the east. In looking at the conceptual pattern, LEARNING AS AN ACT OF COMMUNICATING, there were similar divergent patterns. For example, English often focused on DIALOG and PHYSICAL CONTROL, whereas Japanese on passive reception of "lore", a valued content learned through the conduit of the teacher. While disciplined training was often valued in each culture, when and how that should take place was construed differently. A conceptual metaphoric analysis thus indicated that there might well be distinctive patterns of learning embedded in respective cultures.

As E.T. Hall has observed, all cultures potentially have several modes of learning. He calls these formal, technical and informal. "…people reared in different cultures *learn to learn* differently and go about the process of acquiring culture in their own way. Some do so

by memory and rote without reference to 'logic' as we think of it, while some learn by demonstration but without the teacher requiring the student to do anything himself while 'learning.'" Hall further argues that it is not just a cross-cultural issue of people who go overseas and try to train locals but that "once people have learned to learn in a given way it is extremely hard for them to learn in any other way. This is because, in the process of learning they have *acquired* a long set of tacit conditions and assumptions in which learning is imbedded." (Hall 1959:47)

Jerome Brunner has also cogently argued for the concept of "cultures of learning" as being founded in the child's notion of the teacher's mindset. "Teaching, in a word, is inevitably based on notions about the nature of the learner's mind. Beliefs and assumptions about teaching whether in a school or in any other context, are a direct reflection of the beliefs and assumptions the teachers hold about the learner." (Brunner 1996: 46-47) Learning essentially involves the creation and negotiating of meaning in a society. The "teacher is the vicar of the culture at large. You cannot teacher-proof a curriculum any more than you can parent-proof a family." (Brunner 1996:84)

Purpose and method.

How modes of learning are manifested in respective countries and their cultures can be seen in the concepts of what a GOOD TEACHER's behavior and expectations are. The objective is to examine the respective modern learning cultures in Thailand and Finland in regard to the concept of GOOD TEACHER based on the conceptual metaphoric patterns in Contemporary Metaphoric Theory. This study is particularly informed by the previous work by Jin and Cortazzi's study in 2008 on the images of teacher in the Chinese cultures of learning as well as that of Berendt (2008b.)

To make this comparative study of contemporary cognitive metaphors and the expectations which shape the protocols of teacher-student behavior, two sources were

initially researched to solicit ideas on GOOD TEACHER which could then be incorporated into a questionnaire. (a) Traditional proverbs from Finnish and Thai societies on learning were collated, and (b) contemporary values essays on the theme "What is a good teacher? What makes a good teacher?" These were collected from university students in each country. All essay contributions were from students in Faculties of Education preparing for the teaching profession both in Thailand and Finland. The essays were written in their respective native languages. Twenty essays were received from Chulalongkorn University, Faculty of Education in Bangkok and seven via the internet service of the Peduca-student organization of the Faculty of Education of the University of Helsinki.

From the data of essays and traditional proverbs a questionnaire of 30 statements on GOOD TEACHER was prepared balancing fifteen statements from sources of each country of the most salient mentioned items. Sentences from each country were alternated in the questionnaire's composition and administered in the respective native languages. Table 1 gives the statements used in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was answered by using the 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly agree to 5-strongly disagree) and the mean scores and F-test for statistical differences were calculated by using Microsoft Excel to determine significant differences. .

The questionnaire was administered to students from two universities in each country with different major fields of study to ensure that the results were more balanced and reliable. They were done in classrooms with a researcher present. In both the essays and questionnaires each student's profile for age, gender, nationality, year of university education and major field of study was solicited. Respondents' ages were 18-30 and only ethnic Thai and Finns were included in the data analysis.

In Finland a total of 185 students were from University of Helsinki and Helsinki University of Technology. In Thailand 187 students responded from Assumption University

and Rajamangala Institute of Technology Borpitpimuk Mahamek both in Bangkok. The universities were chosen for their availability and also that the student bodies were broadly representative of the middle classes in the respective countries and had a broad variety of fields of study, such as business, engineering, law, IT, humanities, etc. Some questionnaires had to be eliminated as the respondents did not follow instructions or were out of the age group focused on. The remainder were 176 from each country. In the Finnish data there were 111 females and 65 males; in the Thai data there were 141 females and 35 males.

Attitudes toward GOOD TEACHERS.

Table 1 shows the mean scores for each of the statements in the questionnaire. A comparison of the mean scores shows that the students from Finland and Thailand have a high degree of agreement. Mean scores below 3 imply strong agreement on each statement. Some items, however, ($p<0.05$) show statistically significant differences and imply that conceptions about GOOD TEACHER are different between the countries. A total of 19 out of the 30 were significantly different. Microsoft F-test which was calculated to check for significant differences.

There is a noticeable, general pattern in each country in how the respondents answered the questionnaire suggesting a cultural attitude. Among the Thais the responses tended toward the mean about the degree of agreement; whereas among the Finns it broadly ranged over the attitude scale among the items. This is suggestive of a cultural value among Thais to avoid disagreement (a potential loss of face); whereas the individualism of the Finns would encourage a frank, individual expression of their attitudes about their society and way of life. This is reflected in the Finnish data in which respondents often chose a much stronger degree of agreement or disagreement than close to the median which was most common among the Thais.

Table 1. The Mean Scores for Rating Questionnaire Statements about a GOOD TEACHER by Students in Finland (N=176) and Thailand (N=176).

30 Questionnaire arguments	**Finnish**	**Thais**
A good teacher is a good model for the students.	**1.883**	**1.511**
A good teacher has an interesting personality.	**1.993**	**2.261**
A good teacher is patient.	**1.676**	**1.563**
A good teacher is strict, challenging and demanding.	**2.476**	**3.068**
A good teacher is a friend.	**3.264**	**1.750**
A good teacher shows that the teacher is human and compassionate.	**1.924**	**1.864**
A good teacher is like a parent.	**4.255**	**1.994**
A good teacher listens to the students and learns from them.	**1.848**	**1.574**
A good teacher is responsible.	**1.559**	**1.290**
A good teacher is able to create the joy of learning.	**1.359**	**1.449**
A good teacher is hard working and dedicated.	**1.868**	**2.278**
A good teacher demands critical thinking.	**1.743**	**1.801**
A good teacher sacrifices him/herself.	**3.228**	**1.983**
A good teacher makes time for learning.	**1.945**	**1.795**
A good teacher is able to transfer knowledge to the students.	**1.607**	**1.250**
A good teacher teaches students to be sceptical.	**2.118**	**1.909**
A good teacher is able to build good character in students	**2.597**	**1.580**
A good teacher does not force students to learn.	**2.387**	**2.580**

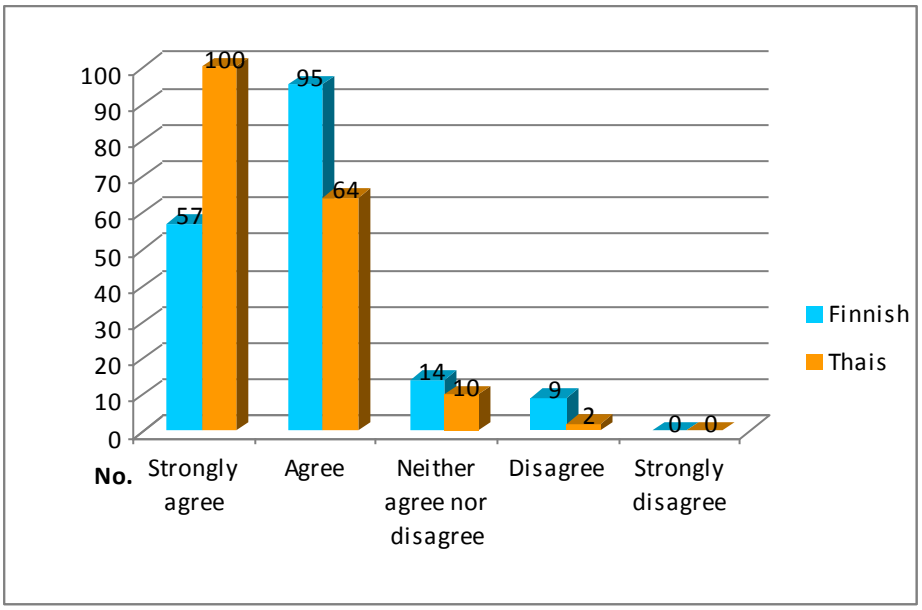
A good teacher has the spirit of the teacher.	**3.021**	**1.625**
A good teacher is logical and consistent.	**1.618**	**1.528**
A good teacher updates his/her knowledge all the time.	**1.283**	**1.784**
A good teacher knows that learning never ends.	**1.528**	**1.585**
A good teacher will receive moral obligation from the students.	**3.347**	**1.636**
A good teacher lets the students learn individually and not just follow the teacher.	**1.757**	**2.034**
A good teacher should not hurt the student physically or mentally.	**1.181**	**1.483**
A good teacher teaches for life, not just for schooling.	**2.424**	**1.273**
A good teacher loves and cares for every student.	**3.545**	**1.449**
A good teacher individualises the teaching.	**2.369**	**1.739**
A good teacher has the heart of the teacher.	**2.958**	**1.494**
A good teacher cooperates with other teachers	**1.811**	**1.614**

In order to discuss the significant patterns found in the data, various statements are presented in groups by focusing on shared or divergent conceptual patterns. The questionnaire **statements** are given in **bold**, CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS are given in CAPITAL LETTERS, and *proverbs in italics* are presented in a literal translation in English.

In the Thai essays on GOOD TEACHER the statement (S-1), **A good teacher is a good model for the student** was one of the most common items, suggesting an important quality for Thai teachers. The teacher (in Thai *ajarn)* has been seen as an elevated SUPERIOR PERSON, sometimes referred to as a "GOD SENDER", a conduit for the spiritual goals in life and a person who has therefore greater social responsibilities than

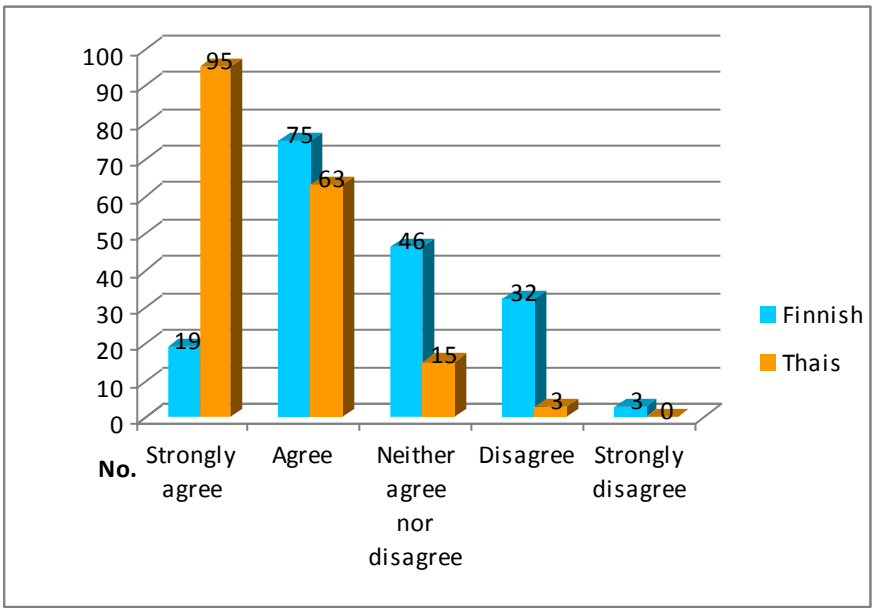
ordinary citizens. The teacher is seen as an example in society with consequently higher status as well. The concept of MASTER can be related to this social role and its expectations.

Table 2. A Good Teacher Is a Good Model for the Students. (S-1)



As can be seen from Table 2, not only is there very strong agreement among Thais (more than half) but most of the remainder chose agreement. Finns too tend to agree with the statement but at a significantly lesser degree. This is suggestive of how strongly the teacher is seen as a MASTER and that the student is a dependent FOLLOWER, or disciple. In Table 3, **A good teacher is able to build good character in the students** (S-17) shows a slightly greater divergence between the two cultures. But still the results tend to complement those of the previous table. In Table 3 the Finnish respondents range across the scale, whereas the Thai cluster strongly with agreement. The fact that both cultures tend toward agreement is also probably an indication of the universal expectations about a GOOD TEACHER and molding good character.

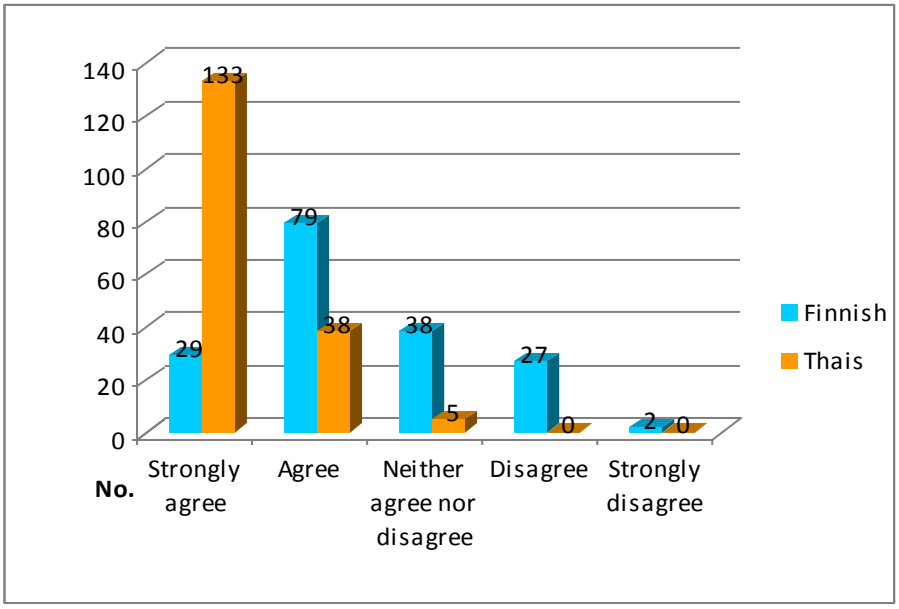
Table 3. A Good Teacher Builds Good Character in Students. (S-17)



A good teacher teaches for life, not just for schooling (S-26) also has a high degree of agreement for Thais. This is a little surprising as this statement was taken from a Finnish proverb which can be translated as *We do not study for school, we study for life (Emme opiskele koulua varten vaan elänää varten).* It has been adapted by substituting teaching for studying. It may be surmised that "teachers" and "learners" are not necessarily closely related in the Finnish way of thinking. That is, learning is something that is internal but teaching is something that is external. For Thais both are derived from the dominant role of the teacher in the relationship.

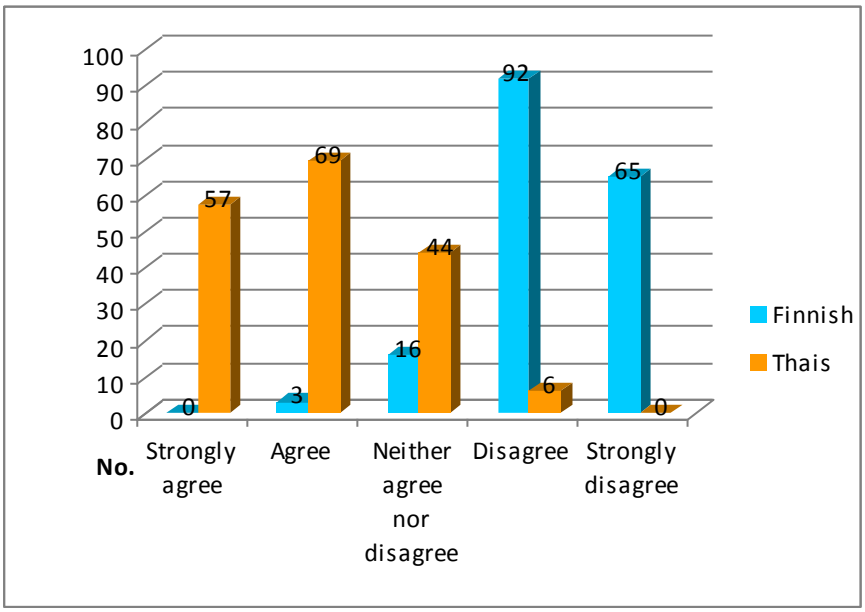
This also raises the point about the TEACHER AS PARENT, a relationship which is also suggestive of the dominance of MASTER in the learning relationship but with added emotive expectations in that dependency. Children, especially the younger, often see their parents are the source of knowledge, and are dependent on their parents but are expected to treat them with respect.

Table 4. A Good Teacher Teaches for Life, not just for Schooling. (S-26)



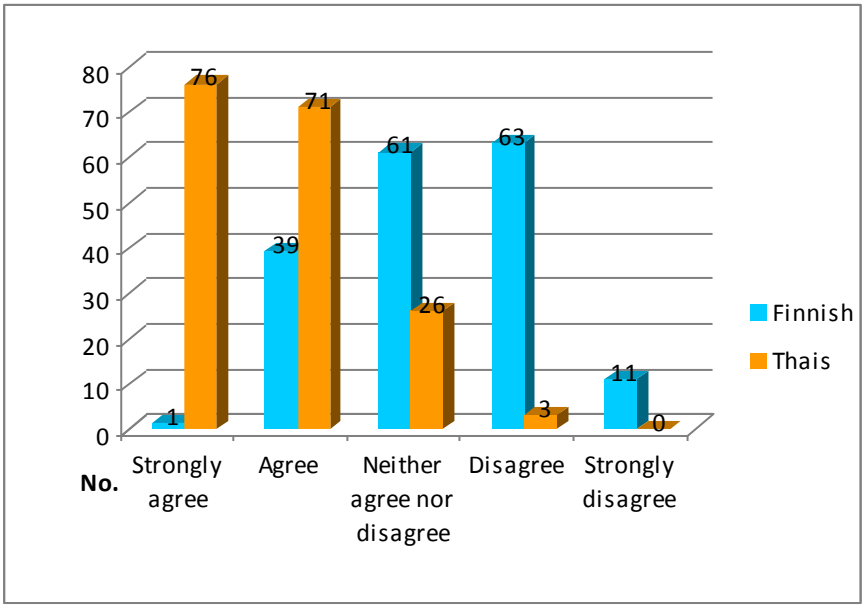
One the greatest divergences between the Finnish and the Thais can be seen in the Thai originated statement **A good teacher is like a parent.** As can be seen in Table 5, the responses are almost poles apart. The metaphor TEACHING AS TAKING CARE OF SOMEONE and TEACHER AS A PARENT occur in other statements as well. Finnish students do not at all identify the role of parenthood with a teacher. The teaching rather is seen as a profession. Parenthood is something obligatory. The Finnish also see the transmission of technical knowledge as the primary purpose of teaching; whereas parents teach "life". Thus a shared conceptual grouping can be seen in the Thai statements: **A good teacher is a good model. A good teacher is able to build the good character of students. A good teacher teaches for life, not just for formal education.**

Table 5. A Good Teacher Is Like a Parent. (S-7)



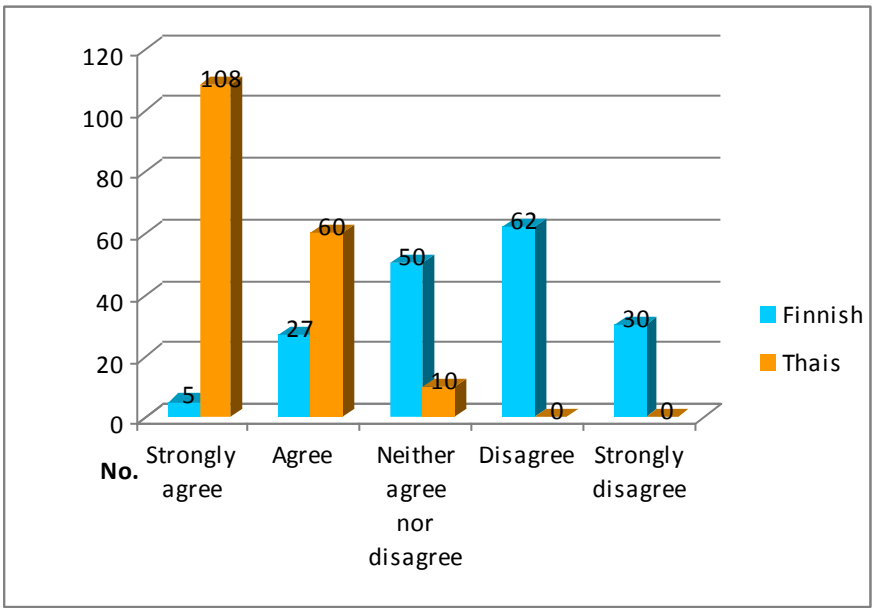
Another significant Thai statement (S-5) is **A good teacher is a friend** which Thais agreed to or strongly agreed to, but the Finnish have a neutral or negative attitude regarding this concept. This again can be compared to the Finnish dominant attitude of teaching as a profession. This suggests a very different teacher-student relationship in the two cultures. Westerners tend to see the relationship in an emotionally cool or neutral manner. In this regard the TEACHER AS LEADER has probably more emotional impact than TEACHER AS GUIDE. A leader is someone people are likely to have a strong attachment to as in a religious context or an idealized sense, someone worthy whom people can be dependent on. Associated with the role of TEACHER AS LEADER is a sense of dominating power, whereas the concept of a GUIDE is more likely one of a greater range of impact from the domain of religion (strong) to that of tourism (weak).

Table 6. A Good Teacher Is a Friend. (S-5)



The Thai originated statement, **A good teacher loves and takes good care of every student** (S-5) also shows a similar cultural difference in attitudes. There is a strong difference in expectations between the two cultures: Thais agree, reflecting the expectation that the teacher will assume a personal interest and concern for the student beyond the domain of academic study, but Finnish rather disagree or are neutral about it, though it should be mentioned that some Finnish respondents commented that it depends on the level of schooling. In a primary school context, teachers are expected to be loving and take great care for the welfare of their young charges. Overall the responses in Table 7 (S-27) reflect those noted in the conceptual patterns of TEACHER AS PARENT, TEACHER IS KIND. In contrast the Finnish respondents do not support these expectations.

Table 7. A Good Teacher Loves and Cares for Every Student. (S-27)



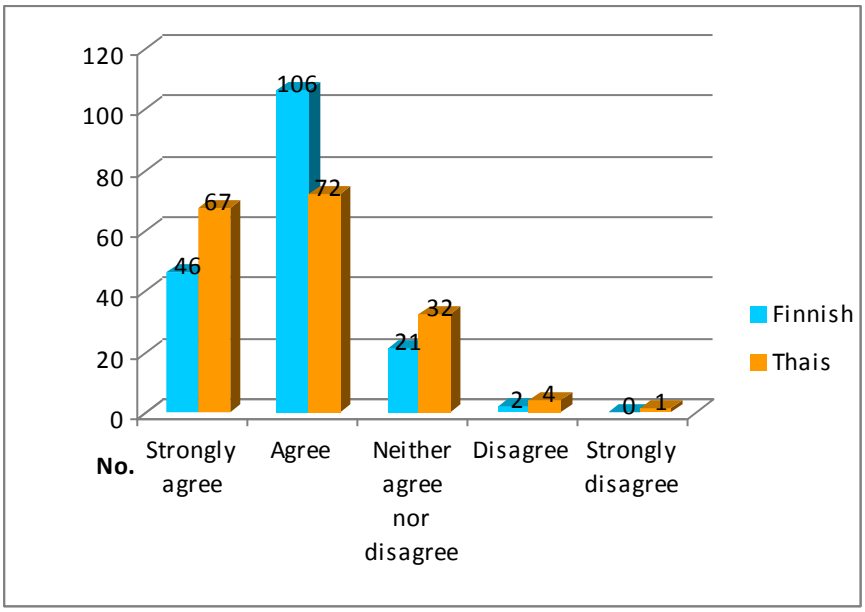
On the other hand the Thai originated statement **A good teacher is patient** (S-3) did not show much difference between the Thais and the Finnish. Almost all respondents in both cultures agreed or strongly agreed. But what their concept of "patience" may be needs to be considered. In the Thai conceptual pattern TEACHER AS PARENT, it can be said that parenthood implies considerable patience. But Finns may see "patience" as simply an attribute of a teacher, whereas among the Thai it is more of a total role expectation. Thais have proverbs regarding the importance of "patience", such as: *Moderation is the way(Tang sai klang pen tang ti se ti sud). Do not catch the fish in both hands (Maw jap plar sawng meu). Rub the stone until it becomes a needle (Fon tang hai pen khem).*

One can raise the question about the relationship of "patience" with "dedication" and "perseverance" here. As the Finnish proverbs suggest patience in the sense of perseverance or dedication is necessary in learning. For example, *For learning there is no royal shortcut (Oppimiseen ei ole kininkaallista oikotietä). In study time goes (Opissa aika kuluu). There is learning as long as you live (Oppia ikä kaikki).* However, the expected involvement of emotion may be behind the dichotomy found here in the expectations of Finns and Thais.

Thais seem to relate patience with kindness or compassion in which feelings are regarded as an essential feature of patience. The Western expectation to separate feelings and rationality would affect these different expectations. This reflects the deeper "Culture of Communication" that Berendt and Tanita (2011) have argued for in their study of English, Japanese and Thai. Thai and Japanese they argue have an "interdependent culture of communication" in which attitudes, emotions, relationships, empathy and feelings are integral to each other. The English (Western) is a "dichotomous culture" in which the "mind" as the locus of rationality and decision making is separated contrastively with attitudes and feelings with different valuations given to each.

Similarly, **A good teacher is a friend/parent** is not part of the expectations of a good teacher in the West, as the teacher's position is seen as a profession. Unlike the West, if there is a relationship in Asian societies, it should involve feelings as well (Triandis 1989:509). What the rules of behavior are will be dictated by the participants involved, the ideology of the cultures, the degree of formality expected, and so on (Triandis 1989:509/Hofstede 2009).

Table 8. A Gdod Teacher Shows That the Teacher Is Human and Compassionate.(S-6)



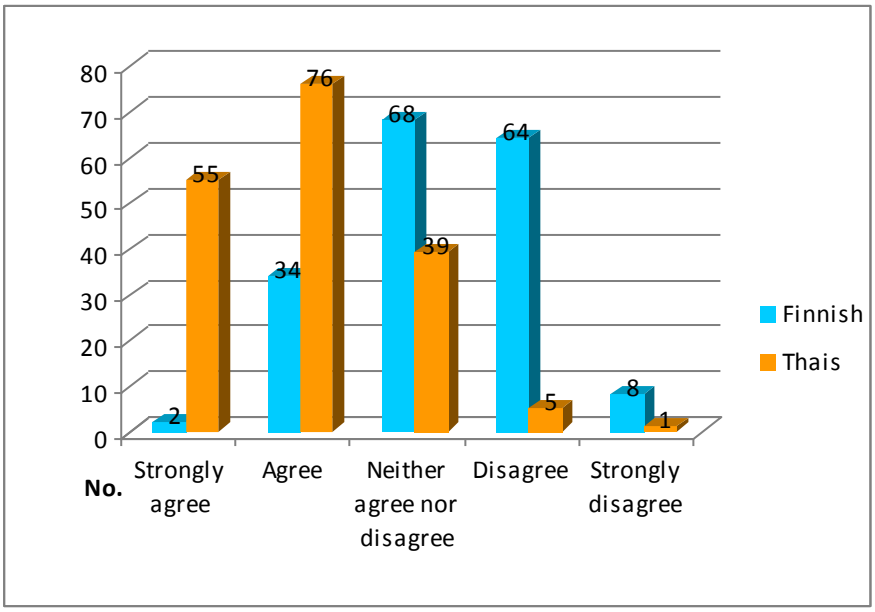
The Finnish originated statement **A good teacher shows that the teacher is human and compassionate** (S-6) did not reveal much difference in expectations between the Thais and the Finns. . Most students agreed to the statement. With only a slight variation in degree. The Mean Score did not indicate any significant difference but the F-test showed a difference of <0.001. While the Thai response can be linked to other conceptual patterns in their expectations, such as TEACHING IS TAKING CARE, TEACHER AS FRIEND, and TEACHING AS PARENT, the surprise is in the Finnish responses. Perhaps this Finnish expectation reflects the skill of the teacher, a skill of knowing the students' limitations as well as their own, as a sense of limitations is part and parcel with the degree of perceived power that the teacher may or may not have. For Finns the teacher's power is viewed as rather limited as an ordinary person in society rather than reflecting the superior position of the teacher.

The TEACHER AS A SUPERIOR PERSON is a significant conceptual pattern found in the Thai data. "Superior" reflects not only the idea of a higher position but also a morally better person. The Thai statement (S-13) **A good teacher sacrifices him/herself** is an instance of relating the teacher's social and moral superiority to the idea of what is good (even to perceived perfection). As Table 9 shows, few Finnish students would agree with this, perhaps because such an expectation is considered unrealistic in their society.

The Thai (and perhaps most Asian cultures) have the expectation that one's life is very much bound to work. But Western individualism would down grade the value of sacrificing oneself for work or the collective good. This sense of sacrificing oneself can be linked to TEACHER AS A SUPERNATURAL FIGURE, a conceptual metaphor noted by Jin and Cortazzi in their study of Chinese cultures of learning (2008:188). E.g. TEACHER IS CONFUCIUS/ GOD/ THE SAVIOR/ SUPERMAN/ AND IDOL. Such an adulation of

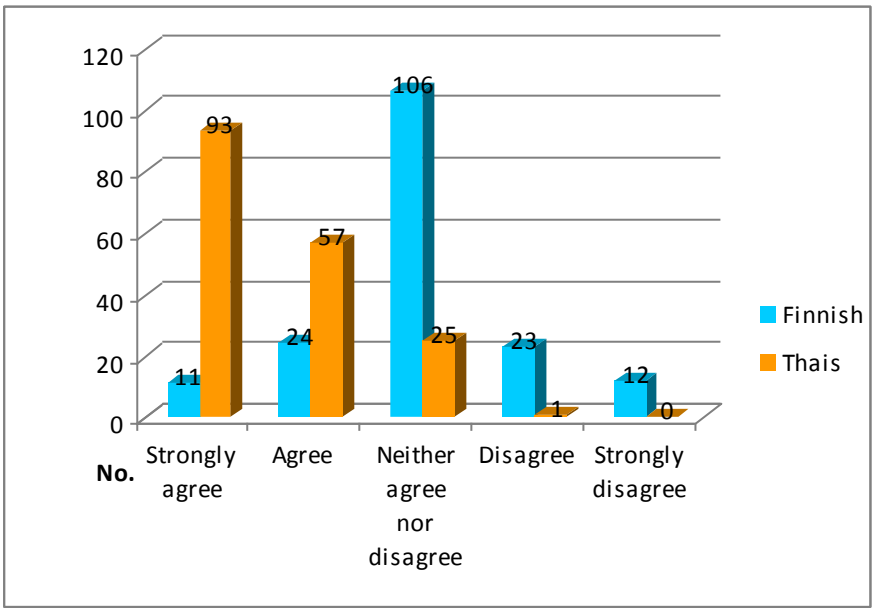
teachers not only places them in a superior position but raises expectations to a level of sacrifice, it can be argued.

Table 9. A Good Teacher Sacrifices Him/herself. (S-13)



Another Thai originated statement has to do with the "spirit" of the teacher, suggesting a commitment that goes beyond professionalism and approaches a religious vocation. **A good teacher has the spirit of a teacher** again recalls the conceptual metaphor of THE TEACHER AS SUPERIOR. The concept of "vocation", a calling traditionally associated with that of religious belief and religious vocations such as priesthood or entering a convent for religious service, can be related to the deep integration of Buddhism in contemporary Thai culture. The Finnish students mostly chose the middle neutral ground (Table 10), reflecting the relatively low impact of religions in Finnish society today. The professionalism expected of a teacher is seen as institutionally independent of the church. The dichotomy of the rational from the emotive in Western culture would be a complementary attitude to this.

Table 10. A Good Teacher Has the Spirit of Teacher. (S-19)



A good teacher will receive moral obligation from students (Table 11, S-23) is a strong tradition in Thai society. This is rather awkward to express in English, as it is related to the Buddhist tradition of expressing one's obeisance, deference, and respect to temples, monks as well as to teachers, as teachers are ranked just below monks in the hierarchy of Thai society. The attitude is visually expressed by the *wai* gesture. There is a special day each year to honor teachers in every school called "Wai Khru" Day. While it is a highly formalized ceremonial occasion, it reflects the expectations of what a GOOD TEACHER is symbolically. There is even a special traditional song which is sung called the "The Third Gratitude". Gifts and flowers are given to teachers on the occasion to express their indebtedness to what the teacher has done for them. In the West, however, rather than gratitude this might be seen negatively as a bit of payback. For the Thais the whole affair is cloaked in the aura of the Buddhist religion, a vital part of one's daily activities, but for Lutheran (Protestant Christian) Finland religion does not play a major role in the daily life rituals of most people.

The Third Gratitude (trans. by Chatree Changthongsirir)

The respectable master who gives us knowledge

Train our mind to know right from wrong

Before we sleep, we chant and pray each time

May virtues and merits bring happiness to him

The master is owed debts of gratitude, we pay him high respect

He teaches us and trains us without rest

He is devoted and doesn't think of hardship

Teaches us until we know, always guides and hides nothing

The third gratitude, magnificent and bright

But who, oh who compared the master to a ferry

If we were to think, the more we think, we see it's wrong

Is there anyone who can show us this part like the master?

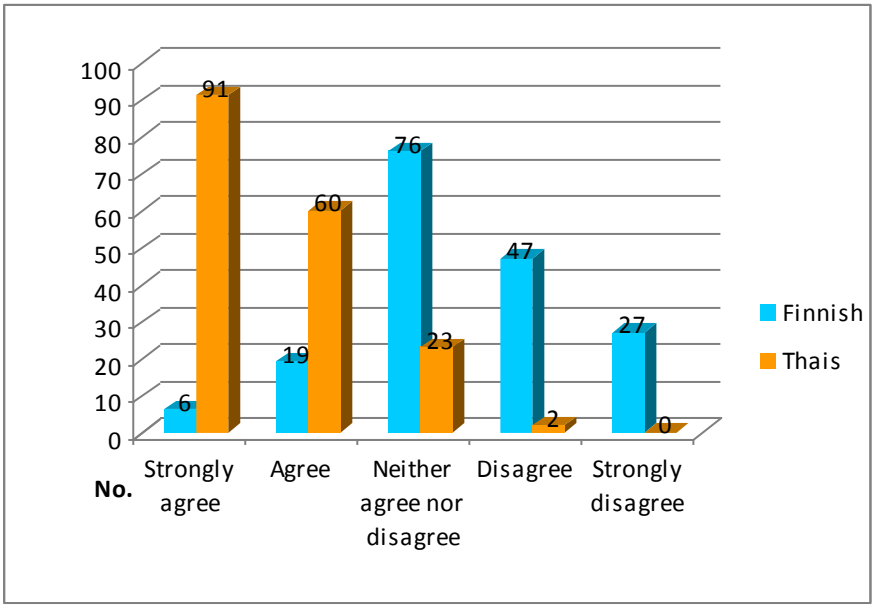
The merits made in our past lives, we give to him

May virtues and merits bring him happiness forever

Bring him happiness for ever.

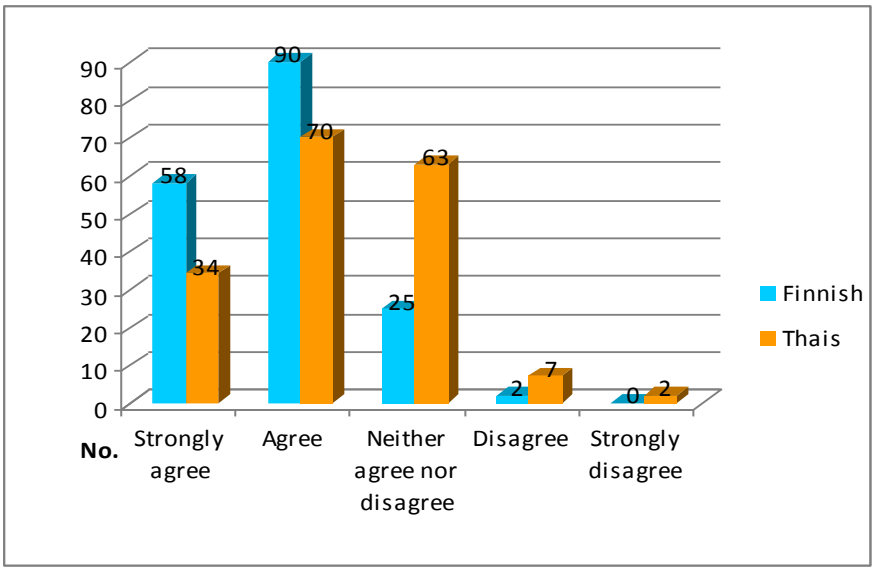
Not surprisingly, the results in Table 11 show that Thais strongly agree with this expectation and Finns are neutral or disagree reflecting the fact that there is no cultural tradition or symbolic ceremonies which represents such an attitude. Finnish students feel little moral obligation to their teachers, partly because the learning is probably seen as their own achievement not that of the teacher. But still there were 25 out of 176 Finns who did agree, reflecting a degree of gratitude to their teachers.

Table 11. A Good Teacher Will Receive Moral Obligation from the Students. (S-23)



The Thai statement **A good teacher is hard working and dedicated** (S-11) shows a significant difference in the F-test (0.009), but the Mean Score shows a minimal difference. Even though this statement was derived from the Thai sources, there is a stronger agreement among the Finnish. There is a greater degree of skepticism among the Thais with 62 who either disagree or do so strongly compared to only 25 among the Finns. The general cultural attitude about hard work would undoubtedly be underlying these figures.

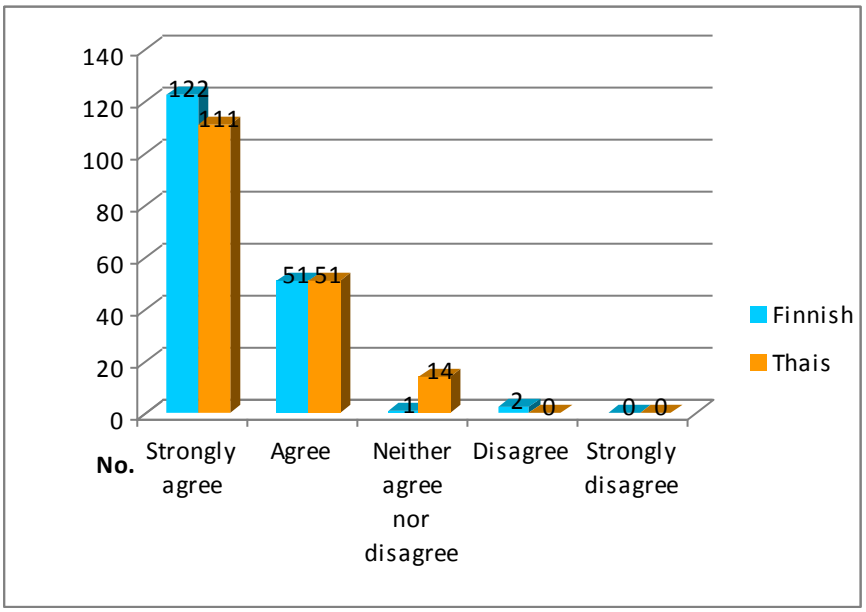
Table 12. A Good Teacher Is Hard-working and Dedicated. (S-11)



Responsibility is a universal social value but how it is perceived in specific cultures may be significantly different. What conditions, relationships, the degree or limitations of obligations to carry responsibilities out will vary from society to society. There is also the question of fate as a condition of not being obligated, an escape from the burdens of responsibility. In the statement **A good teacher is responsible** may seem facile but the F-test of the responses suggest that Thais and Finns have significantly different expectations (0.032). It can only be suggested that the difference may lie in the role of fate in judging the degree of responsibility. Westerners tend to assume individual responsibility with a recognition of circumstantial conditions on it, allowing for obligations to be changed according to changing situations. Whereas the Thais tend to avoid taking responsibilities as they are seen in a more absolute, non-conditional obligation. But there are also varying degrees of obligation depending on the relationships involved (family, friends, colleagues, leader, boss, etc.). In Japanese culture the negotiations regarding who takes what responsibility are elaborate and tend toward finding conditions for not having to take responsibility as there are few conditions to ameliorate the obligations of responsibility once taken.

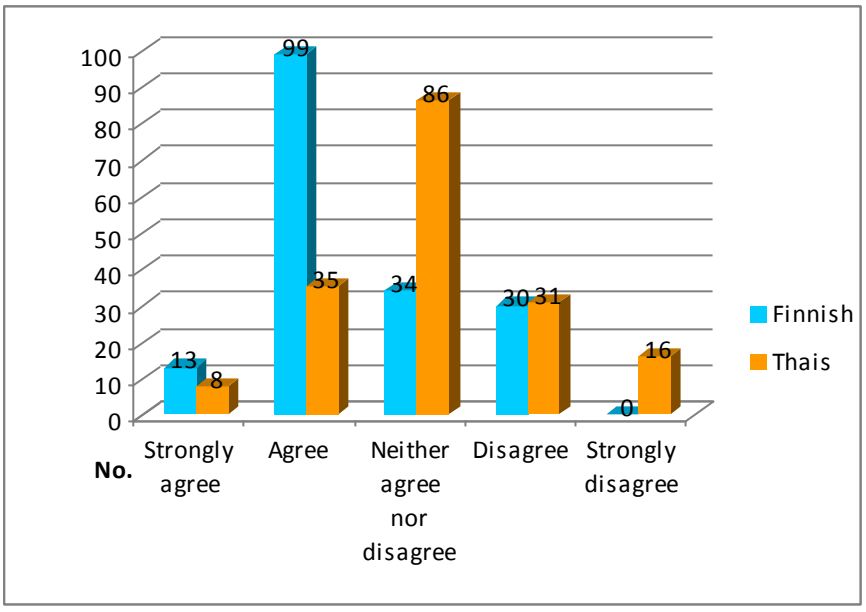
Enjoyment as a social value is very important in Thai culture, known as *sanook.* But both countries responded positively to **A good teacher is able to create the joy of learning.** There are no significant differences between them in the F-test (0.051). They share the conceptual pattern GOOD LEARNING SHOULD BE A JOY/PLEASURE.

Table 13. A Good Teacher Is Able to Create the Joy of Learning. (S-10)



In the Finnish originated statement **A good teacher has an interesting personality** (S-2) did not show significant difference. Generally the role of personality was seen as a good thing, although Thais tended toward a more neutral median expectation.

Table 14. A Good Teacher is Strict, Challenging and Demanding. (S-4)



The statement **A good teacher is strict, challenging and demanding** (S-4) is a kind of continuum with what has been observed about the teacher's characteristics and skills. In

Table 14, half of the Finnish agree with the statement, unlike Thais who seem rather scattered in their opinion, although half chose the median, neither agreeing nor agreeing.

There are many Finnish proverbs focusing on discipline and learning through practice. *The harder the Master of the school, the clearer is the learning (Jota koulumestari kovempi, sitä oppi selkeämpi). No one is a blacksmith when they are born (Ei kukaan seppä syntyessääm). For learning there is no royal shortcut (Oppimiseen ei ole kininkaallista oikotietä), etc.* These also relate to the conceptual metaphor TEACHER AS GUIDE. The teacher shows the way, but students need to go and do it themselves. The comparable Thai metaphor would be TEACHER AS LEADER as has been discussed above. Thais do have a proverb reflecting that LEARNING IS HARD WORK/DIFFICULT. E.g. *Rolling mortar up a hill (Khen krok keu phu kaw).* But Thais sense that life should be *sanook* (enjoyable/fun) and *sabai sabai* (comfortable/ relaxed) is a counter value on the degree of how much is expected.

The statement from Finnish **A good teacher demands critical thinking** (S-12) is equally agreed upon by Finns and Thais. There is no divergence in the Mean Score or in the F-test (0.374). Nonetheless there are some potential contradictions in what actually is meant by "critical thinking". It is currently highly valued as an educational tool. For Finnish students the TEACHER AS GUIDE is seen as being demanding and challenging, concepts which the Thai students disagree with. For critical thinking to be achieved, an agonistic relationship is necessary to some degree. But for Thai students the predominant expectation is one of comfort, the role of TEACHER AS PARENT, the TEACHER AS CARING.

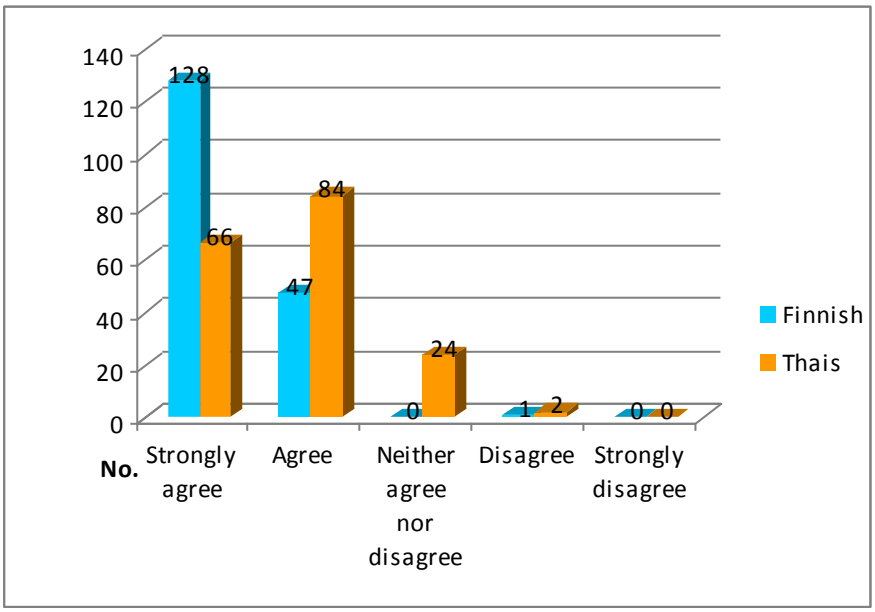
Related to the above discussion about "critical thinking", are other statements, such as **A good teacher teaches students to be skeptical** (S-16) and **A good teacher lets students learn and not just follow the teacher** (S-24)**.** In both statements there was a similarity in the respondents' expectations. Proverbs reflecting such values can be found in both

languages. Finnish proverbs reflecting S-16 are *Do not believe before you see (Älä usko ennen kuin nä). Do not think bone is meat or buck's head is roast (Älä luule luuta lihaksi, pässin päätä paistikkaaksi). Learning is better than supposition (Oppi parempi kuin luulo). Supposition is a lying hole (luulo on valheen kranni).* Thai proverbs for taking a skeptical attitude are: *Four legs may slip, a sage may be mistaken (se tin yang ru plad nak prad yang ru plang). A thousand friends will eat with you but hardly one will die with you (Phang gin ha ngai hua dai ha yak). A student betrays the teacher (Sui sit kid lang kru).* Nonetheless the Thai proverbs of dependency of the student in his thinking on the teacher is a countervailing cultural value. But Thai society and educational culture is undoubtedly changing with the major changes in the past twenty years.

A good teacher is logical and consistent (S-20) comes from the Finnish sources, but there is only a negligible difference with the Thai. Almost all students agree with the statement. The underlying conceptual pattern of LEARNING IS A PATH in which learning is viewed as a step by step process would help to frame this conceptualization of expecting logical and consistent teaching. The statement **A good teacher knows that learning never ends** (S-22) is also related to LEARNING IS AN ENDLESS JOURNEY. There was close agreement again between Thais and Finns on this, supporting the increasingly common expectation that learning is a lifelong endeavor.

LEARNING IS TIME-CONSUMING is also shared by the Thai and Finnish respondents in the Finnish originated statement **A good teacher makes time for learning** (S-14). These are reflected in proverbs: the Finnish *Throughout life we learn and unfinished we die;* the Thai *Slow work produces a fine knife (Cha cha dai phra leun ngai).* Although both groups share in their expectations, the F-test (0.005) suggests there is a significant difference, perhaps related to underlying concepts about time.

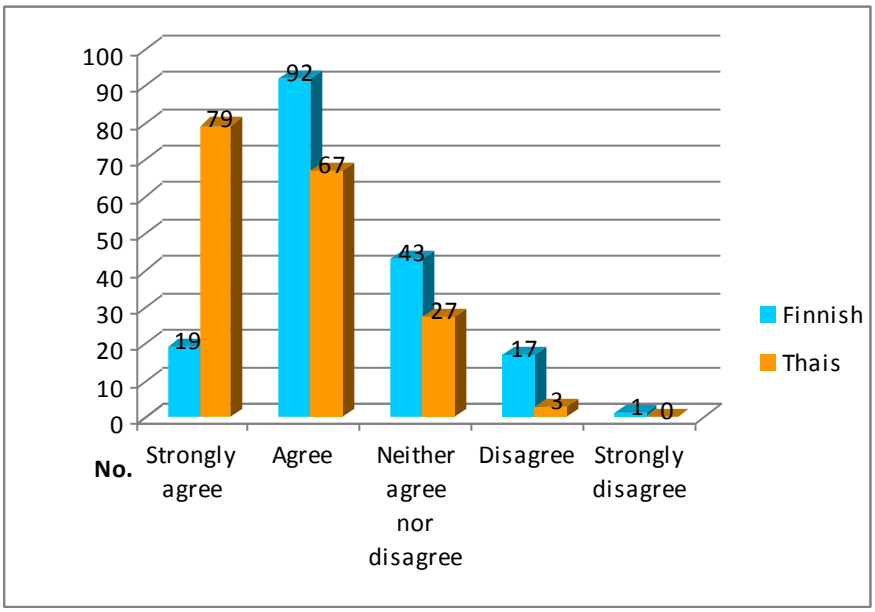
Table 15. A Good Teacher Updates His/her Knowledge Continuously. (S-21)



The Thai statement **A good teacher updates his/her knowledge continuously** (S-21) is largely shared between the two countries (Table 15), although the Finnish students very strongly value this much more that the Thais. The statement reflects the conceptual metaphors of TEACHER AS A SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE and A GOOD TEACHER HAS DEEP KNOWLEDGE.

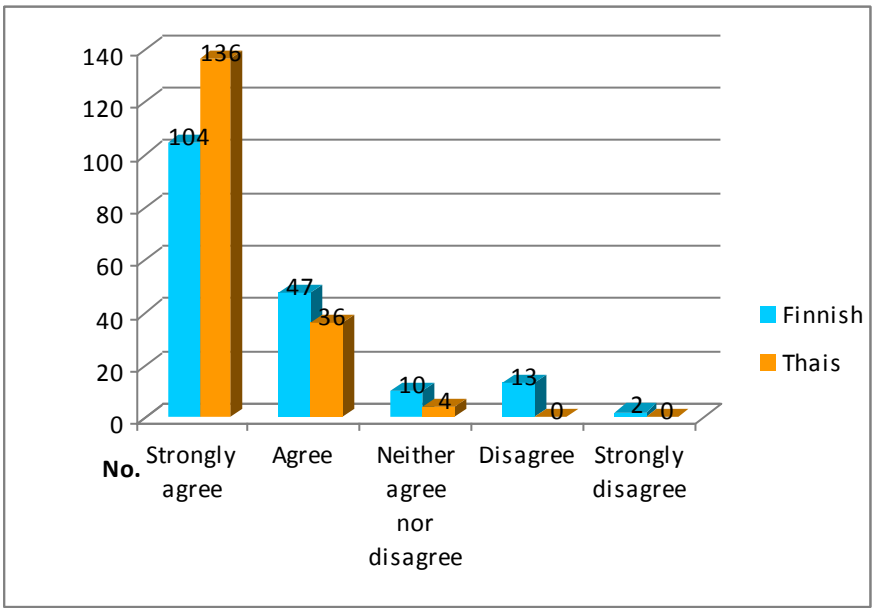
In the area of the teacher's responsiveness to the student's needs there are the Finnish statements **A good teacher listens to the students and learns from them** (S-8) and **A good teacher individualizes the teaching** (S-28). In both of these Finnish originated statements the Thai and Finnish attitudes are close. Table 16 shows even a greater (stronger) agreement of expectation in the latter statement. This suggests the conceptual pattern of GOOD TEACHING IS LEARNING.

Table 16. A Good Teacher Individualises the Teaching. (S-28)



Cooperation is something that is usually highly valued in collectivist societies, a characteristic often associated with Asian cultures such as Thai and Japanese. But the statement **A good teacher cooperates with other teachers** (S-30) was derived from the Finnish essays. However, little difference is shown between the Finnish and the Thai. This commonality of expectations could imply the conceptual metaphor of TEACHING IS SHARING or THE TEACHER'S TASK IS TO SHARE KNOWLEDGE. These also reflect the conduit conceptual metaphor as in the statement **A good teacher is able to transfer knowledge to students** (S-15). This reflects the expectation of getting KNOWLEDGE AS AN ENTITY in which quantification of what is being learned can be transmitted down the line, top to bottom. Another related image is the big pitcher filling the little. While the statement S-15 originally was from Thai sources, Finnish students had a high degree of agreement, only 14 not doing so. This may reflect the modern tendency to see learning as a commodity, a valued entity rather than other underlying concepts in learning such as journey and dialog.

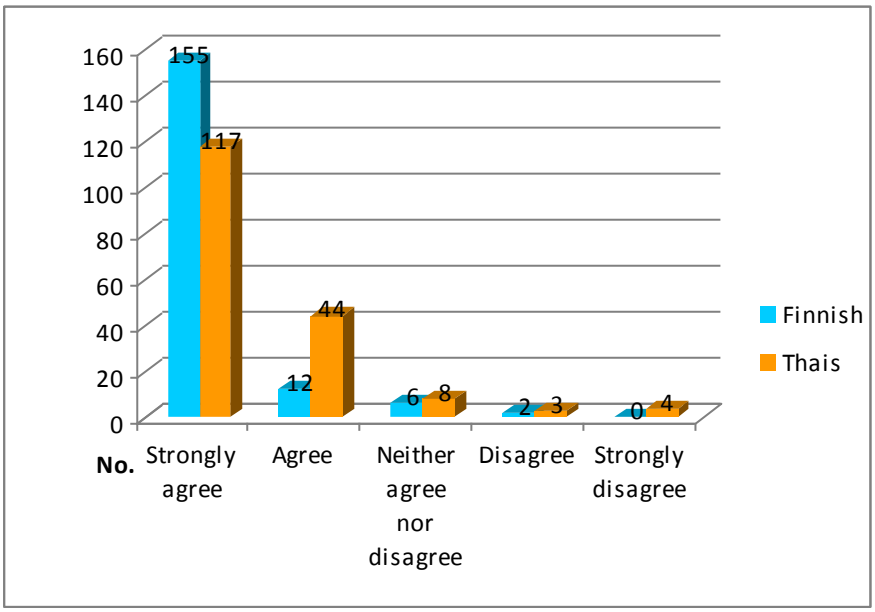
Table 17. A Good Teacher Is able to Transfer Knowledge to the Students. (S-15)



A good teacher does not force students to learn (S-18) comes from Finnish proverbs, one of which states that the keys of learning are in the learner's hand, not the teacher's. Other related Finnish proverbs are: *No one is deafer than those who do not want to listen (Ei kukaan ole kuurompi kuin se, joka ei tahdo kuula). Antlers do not stick to the head (Sarvet eivät tartu päähä).* In Thai too there is the proverb *Hard work he denies, light work he rejects (Ngan nak mai au ngan bau mai su).* Surprisingly, many students, 53 Finnish and 67 Thai, chose neither agree nor disagree. These uncommitted responses may reflect the fact that the statement was worded in the negative. But in contrast S-25 **A good teacher should not hurt the student physically or mentally** received very strong agreement from both groups. For the Finnish it is almost the entire group. See Table 18.

There is, however, a number of proverbs reflecting traditional values in which violence is condoned in teaching. For Thai, there is *To love the cow, you must tie it. To love the child you must beat it.* In Finnish culture, proverbs which imply some violence or threatening include: *The good child will bring its own switch, the bad will not get better even by being hit (Hyvä lapsi tuo itse vitsansa, paha ei lyödenkään parane).*

Table 18. A Good Teacher Should Not Hurt the Student Physically or Mentally. (S-25)

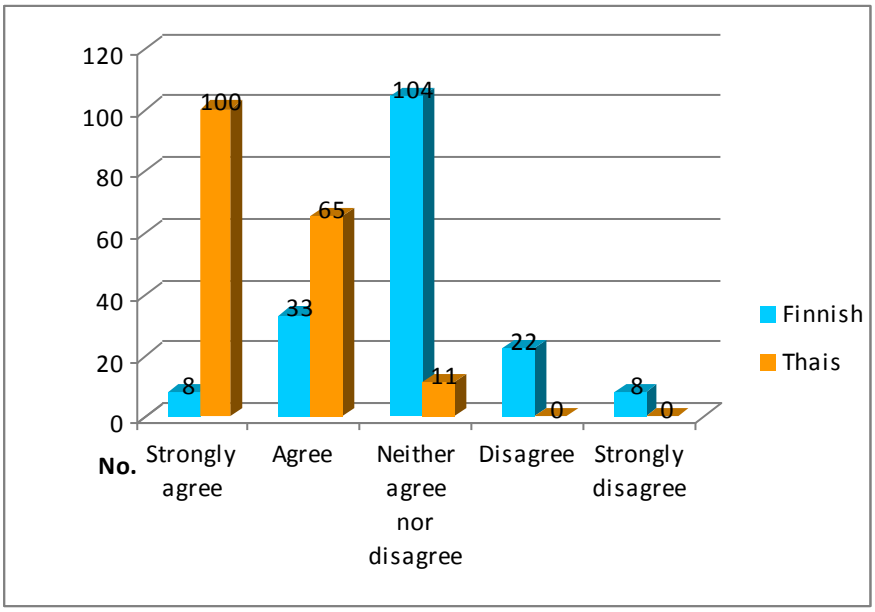


At the heart of the Thai learning discourse is a style of communication which links their relationships, feelings, attitudes, and making decisions. It is frequently expressed through a wealth of metaphors centering on the HEART or *JAI.* This has been discussed above in conjunction with THE GOOD TEACHER AS PARENT and the research of Berendt and Tanita. C. Moore (1992) has collated over 700 heart/*jai* metaphoric expressions in the Thai language. The very Thai statement (S-29) **A good teacher has the heart of the teacher** reflects thus the Thai language and culture in this regard. The Thai culture of communication sees human relations, feelings, decision making all being interdependent, so a teacher possessing such "heart" is seen as having PARENTAL CARING, KINDNESS and COMPASSION, supportive rather than agonistic in teaching. A GOOD TEACHER IS A MASTER, very knowledgeable and willing to share.

Table 19 shows that none of the Thai disagrees with the statement and with two-thirds strongly agreeing. While few Finnish agree, the range of their responses undoubtedly reflects the lack of a coherent cultural concept in using heart metaphors in Finnish learning discourse. In the Finnish language the heart metaphoric expressions tend to be restricted to feelings,

such as liking something or someone. Some Finnish students did think that GOOD TEACHING should be something "from the heart" or something which we like.

Table 19. A Good Teacher Has the Heart of the Teacher. (S-29)



Protocols of good teacher expectations.

From the data discussed above, the concepts about what constitutes a GOOD TEACHER in Thai and Finnish cultures both share some expectations but also reveal a number of significant differences. Since we are dealing here with the underlying attitudes about teachers, the impact upon classroom behavior needs to be considered. The discourse of the classroom will be affected and one can assume facilitated or hindered to various degrees by the different perception about what a good teacher is, both from the student's perspective as well as the behavior of the teacher. From the data, we can say that the Finnish strongly assume the teacher's role to reflect the TEACHING AS A PROFESSION, THE TEACHER AS GUIDE, TEACHING AS DEMANDING, but the teacher is seen as AN ORDINARY PERSON. For the Thai, the TEACHER AS MASTER/SUPERIOR, someone who expects to be followed, reflecting a strong power relationship is complemented with TEACHER AS PARENT/FRIEND, and being COMPASSIONATE and CARING. How the teacher relates

to his/her students will affect the style of teaching: e.g. interactive versus lecture, Socratic, critical dialog versus proclamation of facts and obligations, questioning versus passive listening, etc. The atmosphere in the classroom as a social microcosm will also be significantly different, if fun (*sanook)* and parental care are expected allowing considerable leeway from a restricted and disciplined style of classroom management. Expectations of the teacher to provide a kind of parental care would allow the student considerable leeway in a psychological attitude of dependence. What constitutes being "demanding", the degree of allowing individual expression as opposed to deferential behavior are things which need to be negotiated when there are no or weak norms of expectations. In today's multicultural environment both in Europe and Southeast Asia, the assumed norms and possible conflict of expectations needs to be understood. The following tables (20-24) are a summary of potential protocols in our expectations regarding a GOOD TEACHER, as they contain culturally divergent expectations.

Table 20. Significant Statements Showing Areas of Cultural Differences (F-test $p<0.05$)

A good teacher is a good model for students (S-1)
A good teacher has an interesting personality. (S-2)
A good teacher is a friend. (S-5)
A good teacher is a kind and compassionate person. (S-6)
A good teacher is like a parent. (S-7)
A good teacher is hard working and dedicated. (S-11)
A good teacher makes time for learning. (S-14)
A good teacher is able to transmit knowledge to students. (S-15)
A good teacher is able to build good character in students. (S17)
A good teacher updates his/her knowledge all the time. (S-21)

A good teacher will receive moral obligation from students. (S-23)

A good teacher lets students learn, not just follow the teacher. (S-24)

A good teacher should not hurt students physically or mentally. (S-25)

A good teacher teaches for life, not just for schooling. (S-26)

A good teacher loves and cares for every student. (S-27)

A good teacher has the heart of the teacher. (S-29)

Table 21. Finnish Conceptual Patterns

TEACHING IS A PROFESSION
THE TEACHER AS GUIDE
THE TEACHER AS AN ORDINARY PERSON
THE TEACHER AS STRICT/ DEMANDING
LEARNING REQUIRES PATIENCE

Table 22. Thai Conceptual Patterns

THE TEACHER AS SUPERIOR/ “GOD SENDER”
THE TEACHER AS MASTER
THE TEACHER AS LEADER (TO BE FOLLOWED)
THE TEACHER AS FRIEND
THE TEACHER AS PARENT
THE TEACHER HAS HEART
THE TEACHER IS COMPASSIONATE/KIND
TEACHING IS CARING FOR STUDENTS

Table 23. Shared Conceptual Patterns

THE TEACHER HAS THE KEY TO KNOWLEDGE

THE TEACHER IS A CONDUIT OF KNOWLEDGE

TEACHING IS SHARING

TEACHING IS LEARNING

LEARNING IS A PATH/ AN ENDLESS JOURNEY

LEARNING IS HARD WORK/ DIFFICULT

LEARNING SHOULD BE A JOY

Each of these underlying conceptual patterns provide a basis for protocols of teaching, reflecting the priorities of what is valued in each culture as well as what is more generally shared. The protocols need to focus on (1) what is expected in the teacher-student relationship, (2) classroom management, (3) the social role identity of the teacher and his/her character, (4) the nature of how knowledge is created, transmitted and achieved from the previous two, (5) and the emotive qualities which are valued and should be part of the learning process and student-teacher relationship. Where there are clear cultural differences as in international educational institutions and within classrooms where there may be a dichotomy of expectations between the local student body and the outside teacher, an awareness of culturally dependent expectations and behaviors which are influenced from them becomes an important tool to facilitate cross-cultural learning.

An example could be made of how questions are used in the classroom. Not only can questions be power tools, managing classroom learning and roles in the teacher's discourse, but they may have different impact on students' willingness to cooperate. Open-ended questions to allow individual students to display their knowledge may be desirable in developing critical thinking and encourage a competitive environment in the classroom, but may have a negative affect on student face requirements or be perceived as a threat to the

teacher's face/position, such as questioning the teacher's superior knowledge violated the student's sense of obligation to always honor the master teacher.

Table 24. Conceptual Focus Areas for Protocols on GOOD TEACHER

1. The teacher's Social Role (relating to power and social obligations)
2. Teacher's Personal Qualities (Affective, Attitudinal, Behavioral)
3. Concept of the Teacher's Role in Having and Transmitting Knowledge
4. The Conceptual Basis for the Learning Processes
5. The Teacher's Awareness of Student Needs and Cultural/Social Background

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Resolving Some Major Issues Regarding the English Language Teaching Through Developing an English for Specific Purposes Course in the Context of Bangladesh

Amin Rumana

Abstract

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a young and developing branch of English as a Foreign Language(EFL) in Bangladesh. For many years, ESP instruction was limited to training special lexicon and translating numerous texts. Such methods did not reflect students' interests and resulted in low motivation of learners along with poor participation. With the spread of the learner-centered approach in Bangladesh and the continued increase of international contacts in various spheres, much attention has been paid to the design of ESP courses that can prepare learners for professional communication.

This paper discusses the key issues in developing ESP courses from the point of view of training teachers. Designing a course that can best serve learners' interests and needs is an obstacle for many teachers, since this is a new phase to handle in the context of Bangladesh. This paper deals with issues regarding how teachers can develop a new course, from where they should start, what measures they can take for learners' poor motivation, how they can select suitable teaching materials in this regard. These are some of the frequently asked questions by teachers which are answered to a satisfactory level in this paper. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to suggest a framework for an ESP course-development process that will help teachers with some of the problems they may come across in designing a new ESP course.

Keywords: *ESP, teacher training, learner-centered teaching approach, developing material*

Introduction

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is not like General English (GE) teaching and learning. It is specialized English. It has been growing as a distinct discipline since 1960s. ESP is focused-English learning and teaching situation in which teaching methods and learning environment are different from those of General English. The most important difference between ESP and GE (General English) is the learners and their purposes for learning English. ESP learners are usually adults who already have some acquaintance with English and learn the language to communicate a set of professional skills and perform particular profession-related activities. An ESP course, therefore, is developed based on an assessment of purposes and needs and the activities for which English is needed. ESP centers more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from Business or Medical Sciences or Engineering to Tourism and Hospitality Management. The crucial point in ESP is that English is not taught as a subject separated from learners'' real world (or wishes); instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to learners. However, GE and ESP differ not only in the nature of learners, but also in the aim of instruction. In fact, in General English teaching, all four-language skills viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing, are stressed equally. However, in ESP it is a need analysis that determines which language skills are most needed by learners, and the syllabus is designed accordingly. For example, an ESP programme might emphasize the development of writing skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in Business Administration. An ESP programme might promote the development of spoken skills in students who are studying English to become an aircraft maintenance engineer.

History and Development of ESP

ESP has emerged as a single field in the 1960's. The emergence of ESP has resulted from many occurrences like the second world war in 1945, the rapid expansion and growth in science and technology, the increased use of English as an international language in science, technology and business, the increased economic power of certain oil-rich countries and the increased number of international students studying in UK, USA, and Australia. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that in ESP context, the outcomes of the historical occurrences resulted from a number of people across the globe who wanted to learn English due to the key language for the fields of science, technology and commerce. The emergence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching movement resulted from the English language needs of the learners for specific purposes in accordance with their professions or job description. Since the emergent years in the 1960s, ESP has become a vital and innovative activity within the Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second Language movement (TEFL/TESL) as described by Howatt (1984).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987)define that ESP is an approach to language learning and it is based on learners' needs. What they mean is that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. They suggest that the foundation of ESP involves the learners, the language required and the learning contexts which are based on the primacy of need in ESP. Strevens (1990) formulates a definition of ESP, which makes a distinction between four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics.

Robinson (1991) emphasizes the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition is based on two key defining criteria and a number of characteristics that are important aspects for ESP. Her key criteria are that "ESP is normally goal-directed' and that ESP courses develop 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" [4, p3]. Her characteristics are that ESP

courses are generally constrained by a limited time period in which their objectives have to be achieved, and are taught to adults in 'homogeneous classes' in terms of the work or specialist studies that the students are involved in. Robinson (1991) delineates that ESP as an enterprise, which involves education, training and practice, and drawing upon three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy and students' specialist areas of interest.

Dudley-Evans & St John (1998) provide their definition of ESP. They also use absolute and variable characteristics of ESP as Strevens [3] centers on defining ESP.

Absolute characteristics:

1. ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
2. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
3. ESP is centered on the language (grammar, Lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to those activities.

Variable characteristics:

1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of "General English";
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners; either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at a secondary school level;
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

The definition that Dudley-Evans and St John offer is clearly influenced by that of Strevens and they have included more variable characteristics. Their division of ESP into

absolute and variable characteristics, in particular, is very helpful in resolving arguments about what is and is not ESP.

ESP has traditionally been divided into two classified main branches such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)[1-5]. EAP refers to any English teaching that relates to academic study needs [4,5]. Dudley-Evans and St John argue that in the area of EAP, English for Science and Technology (EST) has been identified as the focal area, but English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for Legal Purposes (ELP) have always gained their places. More recently, English for Management, Finance, and Economics (EMFE) has increasingly been important to Master of Business Administration (MBA) courses. According to Robinson [4, p21], "EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) involves work-related needs and training". Dudley-Evans & St. John [5] elucidate that the term, EOP includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations. For example, English for Medical Purposes (EMP) course focuses on practicing doctors and English for Business Purposes (EBP) is developed for communicative functioning of English in business contexts. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1, p17], "EOP is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language)".

Importance of Designing an ESP course in the Bangladeshi context

There is no doubt that in the Bangladeshi context, as in some other contexts, English for Specific or Special Purposes (ESP) is a young and developing branch of EFL. Many teachers in Bangladesh and elsewhere like teaching ESP to special lexicon and translating numerous texts. So for many years ESP instruction in Bangladesh has been limited to training special lexicon and translating numerous texts. Obviously, there is something wrong with this approach to teaching

ESP in Bangladesh. Naturally, this approach does not seem to reflect students' interests and so it has resulted in low motivation and poor participation and performance of learners in ESP courses in Bangladesh. Thus, ESP courses at Bangladeshi educational institutes should be designed in such a way that they would seek to reflect students' interests and result in high motivation and participation of learners and would result in a better performance. In this regard, the following points are discussed from the perspective of ESP as a discipline aiming at the teachers of Bangladesh to better understand how an ESP course works out all the way.

Notion of Needs Analysis in ESP Setting

The key stage in ESP is needs analysis. Needs analysis is the cornerstone of ESP and leads to a focused course. According to Robinson [4, p7], "needs analysis is generally regarded as critical to ESP, although ESP is by no means the only educational enterprise which makes use of it". Strevens (1990) suggests that needs analysis is a necessary first step for specific purposes language teaching; it is more concerned with the nature of scientific discourse. Hutchinson and Waters [1, p53] argue, "any language course should be based on needs analysis". Hamp-Lyons (opines that needs analysis is a fundamental component to an ESP/EAP approach in term of a course design.

The term, "analysis of needs" first appeared in the 1920's in the West Bengal, a province of India when Michael West introduced the concept of "needs" to cover what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation and how learners might best master the language during the period learning. After 1920's the term needs analysis came to an end to exist until 1960 when the term, 'English for Specific Purposes' appeared at the Makerere Conference (Commonwealth Education Committee in 1961) as West [6] states.

Dudley-Evans and St John define it as, "needs analysis is the process of establishing the *what* and *how* of a course". They argue that "needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching-needs assessment, for example, is the basis of training programs and aid-development programs-nor, within language training, is it unique to LSP (Language for Special Purposes) and thus to ESP". They stress three aspects of needs analysis. Dudley-Evans and St John [5, p126)] state as:

> First, needs analysis aims to know learners as people, as language users and as language learners. Second, needs analysis study also aims to know how language learning and skills learning can be maximized for a given learner group. Third, needs analysis study aims to know the target situations and learning environment so that data can appropriately be interpreted.

It is obvious that needs analysis is a very crucial first step prior to designing and developing a language course, producing materials for teaching and learning, and developing a language test. West (1994) states that language needs analysis is essentially a pragmatic activity focused on specific situations, although grounded in general theories, such as the nature of language and curriculum. Therefore, in the ESP/EAP context, needs analysis is crucial in determining the aspects of language that are crucial for a particular area of teaching. Robinson (1991) suggests that needs analysis is not only just for determining the "*what and how of a language of teaching*". She also suggests that needs analysis should be repeated so that it can be built into the formative process. She further suggests that this would lead to a very informative database of learners, sponsors, subject-specialists and above all ESP practitioners' view and opinions of the English language.

ESP practitioners should undertake needs analysis. The main sources for needs analysis are the learners, people working or studying in the field, ex-students, documents relevant to the field, clients, employers, colleagues and ESP research in the field [5]. The main instruments for executing needs analysis study are questionnaire, analysis of authentic spoken and written texts, discussions, structured interviews, observations and assessments [1,4,5]. It is important for ESP practitioners to carry out a needs analysis study prior to developing and designing an ESP syllabus, a course, selecting a teaching approach and other relevant processes that require needs analysis. Generally speaking, where there is no needs analysis, there is no ESP course.

In summary, a language needs analysis is a process that must be conducted prior to a language course and syllabus design, materials selection, teaching and learning methodology and evaluation. The ESP practitioner should be able to utilize the results of needs analysis research which he or she conducts to develop a language course or training programme that is suitable, practical and successful for a particular context. The main instruments for executing the language needs analysis study are questionnaire, structured interviews, observations, analysis of authentic spoken and written texts, discussions, and assessments.

Components of ESP Needs Analysis

Different components of language needs analysis are employed to investigate different focuses and issues in language planning, development, teaching and learning. Many ESP scholars suggest that TSA (Target Situation Analysis), LSA (Learning Situation Analysis),PSA (Present Situation Analysis) are the fundamental components for assessing language needs of learners.

Target Situation Analysis (TSA).

TSA refers to the form of needs analysis, which centers on identifying learners' language requirements in an occupational or academic setting. "The earliest TSA procedures were designed to determine 'how much English' was used". Robinson [4, p8) argues that "a needs analysis, which focuses on students' needs at the end of a language course, can be called a TSA (Target Situation Analysis)". Chambers (1980) introduced and discussed this term. Munby (1978) formulates the best-known framework of TSA type of needs analysis. He presents a communicative needs processor, comprising a set of parameters within which information on the students' target situation can be plotted. The model formulated by Munby has widely been studied and discussed. Comprehensive data banks are among its useful features. For example, micro-skills and attitudes can be used as checklists for the resultant syllabus. A helpful insight, codified by Munby, relates to target-level performance: for certain jobs students may require only a low level of accuracy. Therefore, TSA may pinpoint the stage at which 'good enough' competence for the job is reached as Munby suggests.

Dudley-Evans and St. John [5, p124] define TSA as, "TSA refers to task and activities learners are/will be using English for target situation". They state that TSA generally uses a questionnaire as an instrument. Dudley-Evans and St. John [5, p124] also explain that:

> TSA includes objective, perceived and product-oriented needs. The objective and perceived needs are derived by outsiders from facts, from what is known and can be verified. Therefore, 'to be able to spell English words correctly' is an objective/perceived need. Product-oriented needs are derived from the goal or target situation.

Learning Situation Analysis (LSA).

LSA refers to subjective, felt and process-oriented needs [5]. LSA also directs what learners want to learn. Dudley-Evans and St. John [5] state that LSA means effective ways of learning the skills and language. According to them, LSA also refers to why learners want to learn. They elucidate that subjective and felt needs are derived from insiders and correspond to cognitive and affective factors. Therefore, 'to feel confident' is a subjective/felt need [5]. They also explain that process-oriented needs originate from the learning situation.

Present Situation Analysis (PSA).

Robinson [4] delineates that PSA (Present Situation Analysis) seeks to ascertain what students are akin to at the start of their language course, looking into their strengths and weaknesses. Dudley-Evans and St. John [5, p124) state that PSA estimates strengths and weaknesses in language, skills and learning experiences. Richterich and Chancerel [13] formulate the most extensive range of devices for establishing the PSA. They suggest that there are three basic sources of information: students themselves, language-teaching establishment, and 'user-institution', for example students' place of work. For each of these, an ESP practitioner seeks information regarding their respective levels of ability; their resources; and their views on language teaching and learning. They recommend that ESP practitioners might also study the surrounding society and culture: the attitude held towards English language and towards the learning and use of a foreign language [13]. Munby [12] argues that PSA represents constraints on the TSA. According to McDonough [14], PSA involves 'fundamental variables', which must clearly be considered before the TSA. In practice, one is likely to seek and find information related to both TSA and PSA simultaneously. Thus, needs analysis may be seen as a combination of TSA and PSA.

The following statements have been developed by Dudley-Evans & St John [5, p124] under the headings TSA (Target Situation Analysis), LSA (Learning Situation Analysis), PSA (Present Situation Analysis):

1. I need to see vocabulary written down (LSA- learning need)
2. I have occasional meetings with British colleague (TSA- target need)
3. I find it difficult to write persuasively (PSA- present need)
4. I pick things up by listening (LSA- learning need)
5. Students need to read more widely (TSA- target need)
6. I like problem solving (LSA- learning needs)
7. I hate group work (LSA- learning needs)
8. I have to write reports (TSA- target need)
9. My problem is finding the right word (PSA- present need)

Means analysis.

Holliday and Cook(1982)assert that means analysis can be considered as an adjunct to needs analysis to establish a workable course design. Dudley-Evans and St John state that means analysis directs the environment in which a course will be run or the environment in which a project will take root, grow healthily and survive. Means analysis involves information of the local situation (e.g., teachers, teaching methods, management, students facilities, etc) to see how a language course may be implemented [7,15]. Dudley-Evans and St John [5, p124] depict means analysis as:

Means analysis is an acknowledgement that what works well in one situation may not work in another. For example, while hotel staff around the world may share some similar language needs, how they learn the language, the conditions in which they are learning and where and how they apply the language are not the same.

Mountford (1988) and Swales (1989), have developed the scope of means analysis further by suggesting other factors which need to be considered by curriculum specialist if they want the courses to have the possibility to succeed in an 'alien' learning environment.

Swales list five factors:

1. Classroom culture
2. EAP staff profiles
3. Pilot target-situation analysis
4. Status of service operations
5. Study of change agents

Swales (1989) argues that based on the data collected, means analysis can be carried out and decisions can be made of the approach and content to the specific programs [Swales, 1989]. He also reasons that means analysis aims to reduce the probability of providing/teaching something that is not directly related to students' learning needs in ESP/EAP contexts [Swales, 1989].

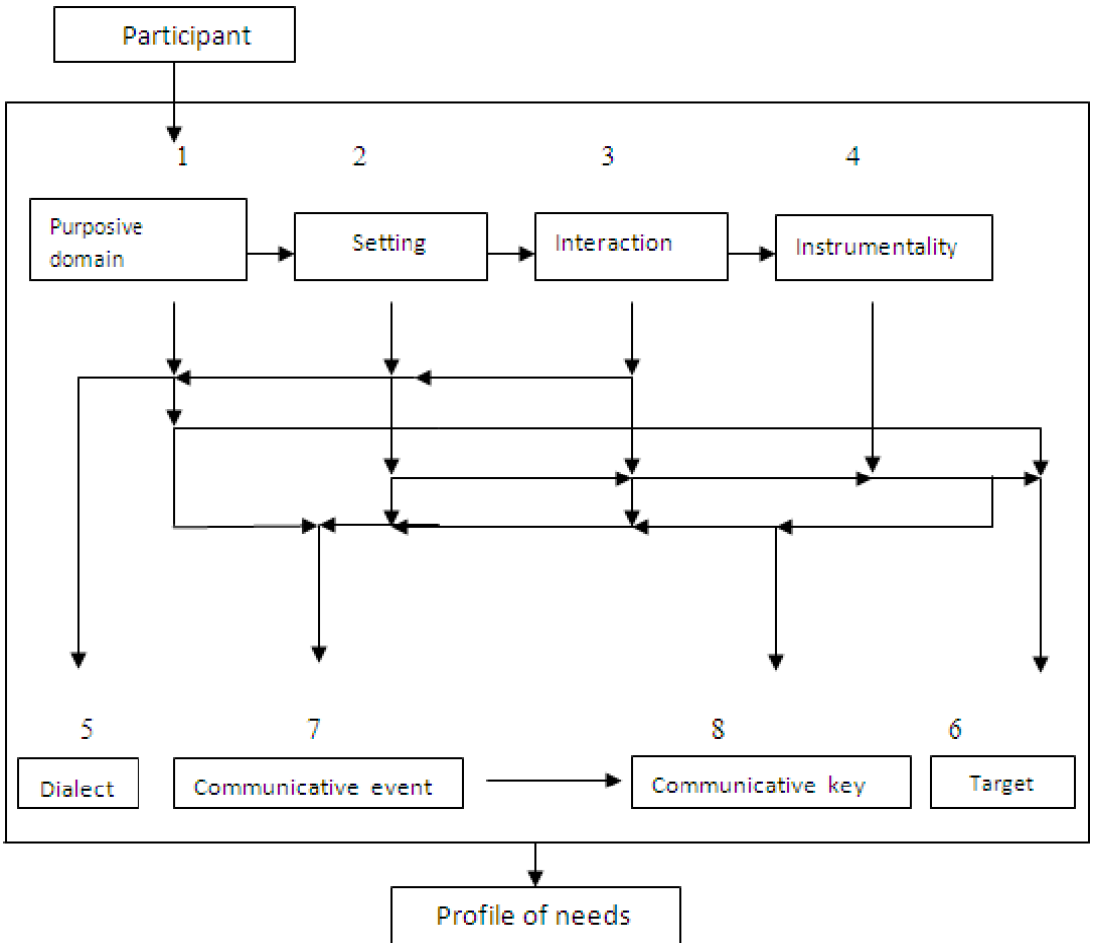
Models of ESP Needs Analysis

In ELT, needs analysis survey is the basis of training programme and aid-development programme.In ESP, the situation is same that needs analysis is conducted prior to every programme that is to be developed. In the field of ESP, there are a number of proponents of needs analysis such as Munby (1978), McDonough (1984), Hutchinson & Waters (1987),

Robinson (1991), West (1994), Jordan (1997) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). The models of ESP needs analysis that were suggested by these writers are similar to a certain extent that they tried to identify the English language needs of the learners. However, the writers have their own views on the focus of needs analysis, the data analysis and the development of the training programme in the context of ESP. This section attempts to critically review the models by these pioneers in the field of ESP.

The most common model for analyzing linguistic needs is Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978), which is very early model of analyzing ESP needs. The model is illustrated in Figure 1.

The model suggested by Munby provides the participants' needs, which are analyzed in terms of the "Purposive Domain" (ESP classification), "Setting", "Interaction", "Instrumentality" (medium, mode, and channel), "Dialect", "Target Level", "Communicative Event"(activities and subject matters), and "Communicative Key" (the manner in which communicative needs to be carried out. Munby concentrated more on communicative syllabus design where the end product is a profile of the students' language needs after using his model and 'Communication Needs Processor'. His 'Communication Needs Processor' (CNP) was a detailed profile of the students' needs.



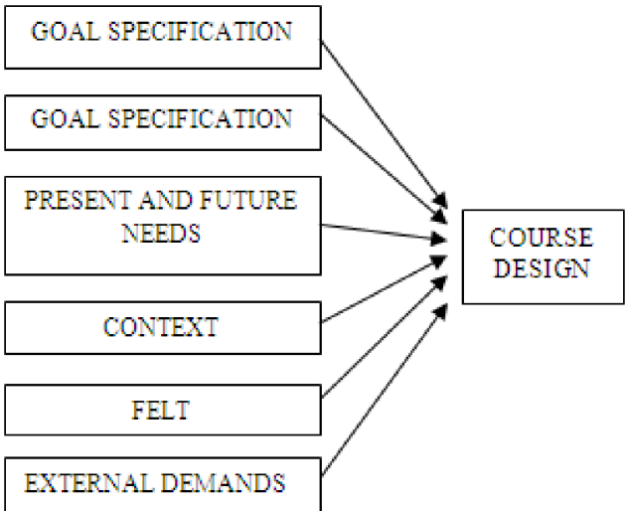
Source. Munby 1978

Figure 1. Communication needs processor

For its details and its influence on subsequent needs analysis, his model, 'Communication Needs Processor' (CNP) has its limitations. It only produces an unordered list of linguistic features, as Hutchinson and Waters point out that the model does not consider the target needs from different standpoints (of teachers, learners, and sponsors). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) pinpoint that what Munby does not include is to prioritize the information and Munby does not include effective factors too which Dudley-Evans and St. John consider important. West opposes Munby's works. He states that Munby's attempt to being systematic and comprehensive

makes his instrument inflexible, complex and time-consuming. Jordan criticizes Munby's works on two aspects that his model is considered as practical constraint after the procedure has been worked. According to Jordan, practical constraints should be considered first. The second aspect is that the language items, chosen for practice in ESP/EAP, should reflect those used in the real world (in context), because Munby's classifications of language are derived from social English.

Another model, which is one of the early models of ESP needs analysis, is McDonough's (1984) model resulted from Munby's work.



Source. McDonough 1984

Figure 2. ESP needs analysis model

McDonough (1984) provides the use of an integrated procedure for needs analysis, which is illustrated above. Firstly, the procedure suggests that students must be at the center of system. Secondly, the "needs" are not seen as static, but developing and changing. The third aspect is that the system is complex that allows the needs analysis to be carried out from different perspective: learners, teaching institutions and the sponsoring bodies. The fourth aspect of the procedure is that this is great interdependence of decision-makers and decisions. Finally, the

procedure considers the degree of details and explicitness may vary with the requirements of different situations. This model is considered as an effective model for ESP needs analysis. However, the model has its own limitations. The model does not concentrate on learning needs. It only concentrates on target and present needs. It does not emphasize other aspects of needs analysis (such as lacks, wants and so forth).

	Objective (as perceived by course designer)	Subjective (as perceived by learners)
Necessities	The English needed for success in Engineering Studies	To Reluctantly cope with a 'second-best' situation
Lacks	(Presumably) areas of English needed for Engineers	Means of doing Engineering Studies
Wants	To succeed in Engineering Studies	To undertake Engineering Studies

Source. Hutchinson & Waters 1987

Figure 3. ESP needs as necessities, lacks and want

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain necessities, lacks and wants as:

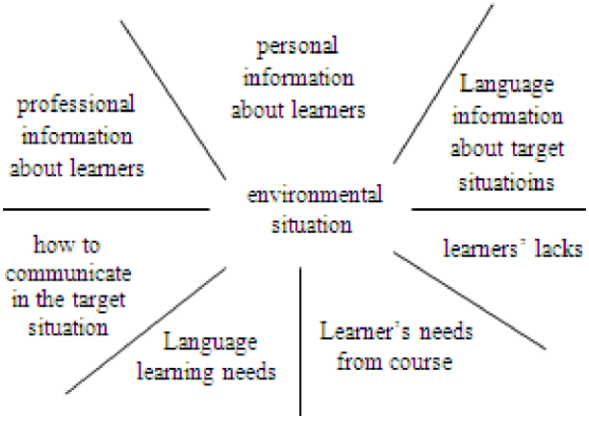
1. "Necessities" are the type of needs that is determined by the demands of the target situation, and necessities are what learners need to know so as to function effectively in the target environment.

2. "Lacks" are type of needs where the ESP practitioners need to investigate what the learners already know, so that the ESP practitioners can decide which necessities the learners lack.

3. "Wants" are what the learners want to learn.

A learner's wants may not necessarily be the learner's real need to function effectively in the target situation. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) focus on target needs, present needs and learning needs, which are very important components of ESP needs analysis. Their model lacks some aspects of needs. The model suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) does not consider means analysis, linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis, which are prioritized by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998).

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) introduced one of the most recent needs analysis models. The model is described in detail.



Source. Dudley-Evans and St John 1998

Figure 4. What needs analysis establishes

Figure 4 illustrates the model suggested by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). This model can be viewed as the most comprehensive model for an investigation of ESP needs. This

model, formulated by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) focuses on learners' professional information, learners' personal information, learners' language information about the target situations, learners' lacks, learners' needs from core language learning needs, communication information in the target situation, and (8) environmental information. These components of investigating ESP needs, which are defined by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), are as follows:

(a) professional information about the students: the tasks and activities students are/will be using English for-target situation analysis (TSA) and objectives needs.

(b) personal information about the students is concerned with learners' general profile, previous language learning experiences.

(c) English language information about the students: what their current skills and language use are- present situation analysis (PSA)-this could allow us to assess (D). PSA determines strengths and weakness in language skills.

(d) students' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A)-lacks.

(e) language learning information: effective ways of learning skills and language in (D)-learning needs-Learning Situation Analysis (LSA)

(f) knowledge of how language and skills are used in target situation-linguistic analysis, discourse analysis and genre analysis.

(g) students' needs from the course: what is wanted from the course?

(h) environmental situation: information about the environment in which the course will be run-means analysis.

This model, developed by Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998) on language needs, is practical and pragmatic covering all aspects, such as, TSA (Target Situation Analysis), PSA (Present Situation Analysis), LSA (Learning Situation Analysis), MA (Means Analysis) and

other important considerations. Dudley-Evans and St.John (1998) prioritize the four essential components for ESP needs assessment: TSA (Target Situation Analysis), PSA (Present Situation Analysis) and LSA (Learning Situation Analysis) and MA (Means Analysis) in their model. They clearly define these components in their works, which are not prioritized in other models.

Deciding the Effective Teaching Theory for the Course

As an ESP course designer, the teacher's work does not stop only by answering the two important questions involved in the designing of an ESP course; Who? and Why?(which cover most of the needs analysis process). He/she has to answer two other important questions: How? and What? While the analysis of the target situation is mainly concerned with language use (the specific situations in which learners are going to use the language), there is another aspect that should not be neglected in the process of ESP course design: language learning. Some questions are needed to be answered in this regard, such as- how are the students going to learn, which theory on teaching and learning should be applied during courses. Now in my case, the communicative approach to teaching seems to be not only a modern method, but also- in my opinion- the most appropriate teaching theory for an ESP course. It has been stated that "language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills." (7, p.72) This statement seems to be true especially for the ESP learners, since they are fully aware of their needs in learning a foreign language. Their main purpose being the ability to communicate effectively in a given situation, they should be taught how to use the language for real communication. My goal by using the communicative approach is to have my students become overall communicatively competent as this seems to match every ESP teacher's goal, since communicative competence involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context.

The communicative approach to language teaching is a well-structured, complex theory, with a lot of principles and methods. Not all of these methods are to be used in an ESP course; the teacher has to choose from among them the ones that best fit both the intentions and the students' expectations. I am going to shortly introduce now some of the principles that to be suitable for the Bangladeshi teachers- from my point of view- to an ESP course:

(a) The target language is not just an object of a study, it is also the means of communication during the course. The target learners are not expected to learn about the language, they are expected to learn the language by using it. Using English as a vehicle for classroom communication gives students a chance of practicing and improving their already acquired skills; they are also given a chance to express their own ideas and opinions on the issues through a discussion.

(b) Being a teacher, one should introduce "authentic language"- language as it is used by native speakers in real life situations- as often as possible. Since the target learners are current/future specialists who need English for their profession, it is extremely important that they should be exposed to authentic language as frequently as possible.

(c) As an advisor, the teacher has to establish situations that trigger interaction and provide activities and tasks that involve real communication. Thus, students will be more motivated to study a foreign language since they feel they are learning to do something useful with the language they study.

(d) All the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should be successfully used in one single course.

(e) The main techniques used during a course based on the communicative approach- information gap, choice, and feedback- are interesting and appealing to students, being

therefore extremely useful. Focusing on this communicative approach does not mean using it thoroughly or exclusively. As a course designer, the teacher should make a careful selection, taking into account learners' necessities, lacks and wants, as well as the conclusions the teacher will draw after having completed the needs analysis.

A Case Study

Keeping all these things under consideration, a case study is given below to better understand how an ESP course works out and the position of ESP in Bangldesh:
Md. Jamal Hossain, Assistant Professor, Dept. of English Presidency University, Dhaka, Bangladesh, conducted a research and wrote an article titled "ESP Needs Analysis for Engineering Students: A Learner Centered Approach." (2011). The purpose of this study was to find out the needs and wants required for effective professional communication in English writing and speaking proficiency for engineering students at Presidency University, Dhaka. The study attempted to investigate the needs of students, analyze the existing teacher content and pedagogical knowledge and finally suggest to compromise with the learner demands in terms of the context situations and other barriers. A pilot survey for this research initially included 112 participants chosen randomly from different programmes of Azimur Rahman School of Engineering at Presidency University. In this study, he followed a qualitative method. The information was collected through a questionnaire. A closed end interview was also conducted with a few chosen subjects in order to verify the data collected from the questionnaire.

From the results of the study, a number of important facts were found which are as given below:

(a) The learners had an average level of proficiency in the target language, i.e. English.

(b) The content areas Advanced English Communication were not related to engineering studies.

(c) The learners could not produce analytical, coherent and cohesive writing.

(d) None of them could speak in context, with fluency and intonation.

(e) There was a great lack of logistic support.

(f) There was no authentic teaching material to go with the discipline of Engineering to be exact.

Conclusion

Generally, in Bangladeshi context, the implementation of ESP in general education and in tertiary or professional level is not up to the mark from the standpoint of the participants (both the students and professionals). Here, the judgment of learning and target needs are a bit far away from reality. Consequently, the needs analysis procedure is not being done and so there is no separate pedagogy being used. In the learning process, students are not allowed to exercise "what they think they need to learn". Indeed, ESP and learning needs of the learners enormous magnitude in the context of teaching and learning process. But, learning needs diverge from group to group, or occupation to occupation, or country to country, or person to person. A proper consideration of learning needs and pedagogy for ESP can motivate and influences both the teacher and learner to teach and to learn more effectively and efficiently. To conclude, considering and analyzing each and every aspects of ESP, it is just to emphasize that, every single group of students and professionals have distinct learning needs. But, it is indispensable to stress and bring up that an appropriate pedagogy taking into account the learners' learning and target needs in an unambiguous context provides a basis and platform which can help to put into

practice appropriate learning strategies as well as teaching methodologies for ESP in Bangladesh.

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Imperialism, Commerce, Printing Culture and their Effects on the British Society in the Eighteenth Century

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Abstract

This paper studies three literary works: Joseph Addison and Richard Steele *"The Spector"*, Laurence Sterne *"A Sentimental Journey"* and Jane Austen *"Mansfield Park"*, to discuss how imperialism, commerce and printing culture affected the British society in the eighteenth century. The aim of the study is to show that the condition at 'home' of the British does not differ from the situation in the faraway plantations. Britain paved a way for imperialism even before the nineteenth century. The expansion of voyage leading to the growing rate of trading also created a new kind of literature, which caused the change of social norm in both economic and cultural dimensions. They also affected domestic culture and British concepts of liberty and civility. Without realizing, the British identity was constantly reconstructed. Soon the new social class which valued money and wealth over morality emerged. A possession of luxurious products from other countries became an index to point out how civilised and privileged one person could be. As a result, the British had to spend on their own products, which they imported from colonial countries, to show off their wealthy and luxurious lifestyle. The result of the reconstruction also caused an exclusion of two groups: proletariats and women. Similar to the condition in the overseas plantations, the social hierarchy was the same pattern. That is, white men were considered to be a privilege class and marginal people like women and the lower-class were suppressed. Through the eyes of these white men, these marginal people were at the same level as the slaves in their plantations. They had full-right to trade and to

oppress them. For this reason, the patriarchal system was used to keep society in their control. In conclusion, every action of the nation was connected. The effects of imperialism, commerce, and printing culture hit the domestic dimension as well as the colonized countries. The situation at 'home' and the overseas plantations was parallel.

Key Word: *Imperialism, Commerce, Printing Culture, English Society*

Even though the nineteenth century is known as the age of Imperialism, it is undeniable that the system of imperialism had been gradually constructed before. The immense growth in trade enabled Great Britain to expand its economy and enlarge its territories. It is believed that the British identity was significantly shaped by the consistent expedition and exploration of uncharted terrains. The actions by the British Empire of plantation and slavery in faraway lands affected domestic culture and British concepts of liberty and civility (Neill, 2013). The surge of printing culture encouraged consumerism, the art of various forms—plays, novels, essays, and poems—contributed to the projects of nation and the building of an empire (Neill, 2013). These works created the image of the Englishman as a 'proper' and 'polite' citizen. The fast-growing trade to countries outside Britain and the increase of commercial activity between Britain and its colonies led to the rise of a middle class, of which the majority were merchants. The emphasis of society shifted to the acquisition of money and superfluous wealth. The possession of luxurious products from other countries became an index of how civilised and privileged one person could be. Also, these luxurious things led to the creation of a new public sphere which, later, helped to re-shape the social hierarchy. The result of this was the continued exclusion of some groups such as the proletariats and women. In this circumstance, the patriarchal system continued to be set in both domestic and exotic spheres to keep everything in control. Hence, the condition at 'home'

of the British was, to some degree, a mirror of the situation in the faraway plantations. For these reasons, this paper aims to show that all actions of the nation are connected. The effects of imperialism, commerce and printing culture indicate to have significantly affected the domestic culture as well as the colonized countries themselves.

Imperialism, according to Edward said (1993: 8), means 'the practice, theory and the attitude of a dominating metropolitan centre ruling a distant territory'. It is a process distinct from 'colonialism' which aims to implant the settlement on the territory of the 'Other'. However, in general, 'imperialism' refers to the nation formation of an empire. It covers all the periods that the nation extended its domination over other countries. Even though there is an agreement that the word 'imperialism' did not emerge until around 1880 (Ashcroft, Griffiths and Triffin, 2013: 139). Before that time, England had prepared the ground for the expansion of their power to the other side of the world. Later, Imperialism was involved with the actual acquisition of overseas colonies. It was the consequence of 'Europeanization', which had been developing since the fifteenth century (Ashcroft et al., 2013: 140). This process of Europeanisation was claimed by Ashcroft (2013) to have involved with the flowing of cultural exchange between the empire and its colonies. However, it is undeniable that mercantilism is also a significant feature of this expansion of the empire's power. After the 1651 Navigation Act had been enacted, a competition between the most powerful Western nations was shifted from the expansion of religious influence on the competitive acquisition of wealth through the possession of overseas territories and the acquisition of profit from the imported products. In order to form a nation, mercantilism became a crucial factor to encourage the Western to have both political and economic independence. This action of nation-formation is believed to have been reinforced by both internal and international developments. Colonialist practices, such as military coercion,

economic exploitation, and cultural incorporation to dominate other countries, affect the political and economic makeup of the controlling-nation itself (Kaul, 2009: 3). This is the time when the empire accelerated and increased its economic, cultural, and political function. As for Britain, it had to develop its power by increasing its naval capacity to compete in trade. As a result, cultural perception and national aspirations were reformed and the ambition to dominate other territories was increased. The actions that Britain took within its colonies affected not only the colonies in question but also Britain itself. Kaul (2009: 3) says in his book *Eighteenth Century British Literature and Postcolonial Studies*:

> The uncompensated extraction of colonial resources and labour as well as the genocidal replacement of native populations by Europeans in different parts of the world was crucial to the economic success and the domestic political and cultural consolidation of European colonial nations.

Hence, it is possible that the long-distance activities of the empire indirectly affected the domestic cultural sphere.

Imperialism established the idea of consumerism in the British society. The voyage and exploration of England encouraged merchants to expand their market to other terrains. The establishment of trading enterprises such as the East Indian Company had a significant role in remodelling the world. Moreover, the increase of print culture across the nation urged the society to become a reading community. It also acts as a guideline for the people in society to fantasise about the colonised countries. As mentioned, since the fifteenth century, the expansion of British territory was gradually increasing. A shift of the powerful nations in Europe enriched Britain's

wealth. For example, when Britain's East India Company conquered the Dutch in the war to dominate spice markets, they gained not only a new route for trading but also a new kind of knowledge which, later, created propaganda throughout their society. During the eighteenth century, new kinds of traveller began to emerge, not least of which were the scientifically informed travellers in search of new geographical and biological information (Ashcroft et al., 2013). These travellers were often sponsored by trading enterprises such as the East Indian Company to explore new territories for setting up their market. The phenomena which they encountered (considered 'exotic' to a British population) were brought back in the form of travel writing which later became a literary genre of great influence on the British culture.

Travel writings could be seen as one literary form of the apparatus for generating the 'greatness' of the nation. This was because it combined instrumental aims, ethnographic interest and the literary agenda in order to entertain readers while helping to propagate notions of patriotism in the society (Kaul, 2009). The accounts of voyage became a crucial factor that formed some new knowledge to the society. These literary texts carry information that was based on the reports and travelogues of the traders and colonists. Through their descriptive style, these travel writings also encouraged commerce and further settlement. Most of the texts described the landscapes, the production, and the goods that were available in the places depicted. They also described the local people and their lifestyles. Some contained maps and illustrations which portrayed everything from flora and fauna to the rituals of native people. Moreover, some writers included details about trading systems and bargaining with native people. Thus, these imaginative writings helped to create a new public knowledge and belief with regard to both domestic culture and the nature of the subjected 'Other'. In order to clarify the changing of British society according to the consequences of commerce at that time, Joseph Addison and

Richard Steele's *the Spectator*, Laurence Sterne's *A Sentimental Journey* and Jane Austen's *Mansfield Park* will be discussed.

Due to the growth of British trading, not only were the colonised countries affected, but the domestic economy also felt the effects. The enlargement of trade resulted in the creation of a domestic network of wholesalers and retailers (Kaul, 2009). The global connection, which was a result of imperialism, was enhanced by the consumer's economy. Newspapers and periodicals became common sources that people relied on to connect with the world outside. Through reading these kinds of works and the consequences of commerce and education, social perceptions were modified, particularly in relation to the ongoing expansion of the urban middle class. In order to show the effects of imperialism and commerce, Addison and Steel *The Spectator* is one of the sources that illustrate the transformation of British society in daily life.

The Spectator was a literary periodical, published daily from 1711 to 1712, and although its daily production amounted to only 3,000 copies, it was widely read. Its ubiquitous presence in coffee houses helped to ensure that it was read by an estimated 10% of the population of London, or 60,000 people. Its contents reflected many of the literatures, cultures, and societies of the time and can be considered a detailed criticism of these (Mackey, 1998: 1). Although the work seems to propagate the British economy and commerce at that time, with deeper reading, the authors can be seen to satirize the changing of British society and to reveal the consequences of their actions overseas. The majority of the essays focus on the non-literary subjects of the everyday life of men and women in the 'polite classes'. Mr. Spectator, who is a representative of the authors, observes the British society from a neutral point of view to authentically depict the behaviour and attitudes of the times. Mr. Spectator is neither a man of the lower orders nor a traditional landlord. Even so, he can effectively satirize the vanity of the upper class and the

foolishness of consumers. His character as a 'silence man' with philosophical, invincible and natural taciturnity allows readers to believe that he is trustworthy and unprejudiced (Bond, 1965: 13).

In issue no. 69, Addison talks about the effects of consumerism in the eighteenth century. He shows that the British society, under the consumerist system, has to rely on the colonised countries in many ways. He says,

> Nature seems to have taken a particular care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world with an eye to his mutual intercourse and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the several parts of the globe might have a kind of dependence upon one another and be united together by their common interest […] If we consider our own country in its natural prospect, without any benefits and advantages of commerce […] Natural historians tell us, that no fruit grows originally among us […] Our tables are stored with spices, and oils, and wine: Our rooms are filled with pyramids of China, and adorned with the workmanship of Japan: Our morning's draught comes to us from the remotest corners of the earth: We repair our bodies by the drugs of America, and repose ourselves under Indian canopies (Bond, 1965: 292-296).

Addison refers to the act of trading with other countries as 'traffic'. He realizes that imperialism and the trading system allow the British to exploit other countries. However, though the society received many material benefits from trading, the moral values of the society were becoming distorted, in inverse proportion to the increasing wealth of the nation. In the age that 'Our English merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold and exchanges his wool for

rubies' (Bond, 1965: 292-296), the material fortune becomes more valuable than morality or virtue. Addison also suggests "Trade, without enlarging the British territories, has given us a kind of additional empire" (Bond, 1965: 292-296). In this case, the 'additional empire' means the actual lands where the British set up their plantations and the countries with which the British traded. They expanded their territory with commerce and paid a price in consequence. Like Mr. Spectator's friend, Sir Andrew, who refers to France's vineyard as if it is his own personal garden. The British Empire spread throughout the world. Instead of making other people in other countries spend more money on their goods, it turns out that the one who spend more is the British themselves. In addition, the British gain not only the territories by the act of imperialism but also the growth of overseas plantation which promotes a new luxurious trend in the society by importing 'exotic' goods to the domestic consumers. In his article *Enslavement and Industrialisation*, Blackburn *(*2011*)* emphasizes the importance of importing these exotic products**:**

> The plantation colonies supplied the mother country with a growing stream of popular luxuries—dyestuffs, sugar, tobacco, then later coffee and chocolate as well—and cotton, a crucial industrial input.

The results of importing these luxurious goods lead to the creation of a new public sphere and a new class which influences later on the society to establish a classification and marginalisation of those who exist outside its confines.

In *the Spectator,* the readers will see how important a coffeehouse is for the urban society. Almost fifty coffeehouses are named in the essays and the opening of the essay lists several places which support the Spectator's social and cultural aims (Kaul, 2009: 92). Mackie

emphasises the effect of the coffeehouse in this period; it is believed to constitute a loosely defined public sphere of upper-class and bourgeois ideas, fashion, and culture. The fact is that after the seventeenth century, not only tea but also chocolate and coffee had become the common beverages of a well-to-do class in the society. Like the *salons* in France, the coffeehouses in England served as a place where the intellectuals and the aristocracy met. This new public sphere allowed these intellectuals in every field to gather together, from politicians and clergymen to authors and booksellers. Habermas (1992: 33) states in his article *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An Inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society*:

> The coffeehouse not merely made access to the relevant circle less formal and easier; it embraced the wider strata of the middle class, including craftsmen and shopkeepers[…] the 'wealthy shopkeepers' visited coffeehouses several times a day, this held true for the poor ones as well.

This statement stresses the importance of wealth and class to fit in with the society at that time. The coffeehouse is imagined as a place where all the patrons are men. Although there are no rules that prohibit women and other classes to participate in the coffeehouse, the topics they discuss (mostly related with political debate, business transaction, and educational topics) automatically forbid some groups such as women and the lower class to blend in with them. In addition, coffeehouses become the sphere for wealthy men since the topics they discuss are based on topics relating to the masculine gender. Only men in the privileged class are admitted to the coffeehouse society, and this is also depicted in *The Spectator.* In no. 49, Steel portrays the masculine ideal of the coffeehouse in the opening line:

> It is very natural for man who is not turned for mirthful meetings of men, or assemblies of the fair sex, to delight in that sort of conversation which we find in coffeehouses (Bond, 1965: 208-2011).

This statement shows that a common characteristic of coffeehouses was that they were promoted as places for male sociability (Cowan, 2001). Although they were public places, they implicitly discouraged the presence of women or lower-class citizens. Women were marginalised in both public and private spheres. Even though the *Spectator* suggests that there is a public place for women like 'the women's coffeehouse', the name denotes their separation. There was no way that women could be allowed to participate in the kinds of debate that the men in coffeehouse society attended.

The influence of the coffeehouse society created much more than the casual discussion. Although coffeehouses were primarily places of relaxation, they also established the "mock political" effect (Newman, 2005: 94). Habermas (1992: 37) suggests that

> The issues discussed became 'general' not merely in their significance, but also in their accessibility: everyone had to be able to participate. Wherever the public established itself institutionally as a stable group of discussants, it did not equate itself with the public but at most claimed to act as its mouthpiece, in its name, perhaps even as its educator—the new form of bourgeois representation.

The discussions in the coffeehouses often degraded to the lowest common denominator as it was necessary to allow everyone to participate in the conversation. This effect can be seen in *The Spectator* no. 49. In this essay, Steel presents the coffeehouse in the figure that might be called ‘mock-political’ (Newman, 2009: 94). He says, "In every Parish, Street, Lane, and Alley of this Populous City, a little Potentate ... has his court" (Bond, 1965: 208-211). As coffeehouses were places in which people could freely express their opinions on any subjects, the points of view capable of affecting general opinion in Britain emanated from there. Therefore, it was possible for the new bourgeois public spheres such as the coffeehouse to allow the opinions of the people to help facilitate the ideological construction of the society. The wealthier classes became crucial in the ordering of British society. In addition to their spending power, their actual life-styles helped to shape the society they lived in.

Another consequence of the activities of ‘coffeehouse society’ was the promotion of a reading culture since most people who participated in the debates needed to digest the facts and details of current affairs. The changing of social trends and the sudden increase of economic status encouraged the people of the middle classes to follow current affairs. Periodicals, newspapers and other forms of writing influenced on the thought of the bourgeoisie which in turn influenced on the beliefs of the society itself. Hence, it led to a surge of publishing.

During the eighteenth century, many travel writings appeared. All of these followed the same pattern; depictions of exotic lands in which everything is radically different from Britain. This juxtaposition of the exotic and the familiar environment helped to set up a binary opposition in the minds of the readers. The comparisons between savage and civilized people are often highlighted in these texts ostensibly to show how exciting and interesting the other worlds were.

Exploration and travel writings in the period helped to create a new perspective toward the British identity in comparison with the 'Other'.

Apart from the obvious material increase, Imperialism and the printing culture also helped to change in more subtle, ideological ways. 'The fashionable society' which emerged not only created a new self-image for the British populace, it also worked to suppress any sense of guilt about the treatment of the oppressed and the colonised under the mask of civilized, 'noble' men.

Mackey (1998: 11) says in her book *The Commerce of Everyday Life: Selections from The Tatler and The Spectator*:

> Fashionable society too often neglected virtue, true honour, common sense, and good taste in favour of the patently illicit code of conduct followed by the libertine and the ostentation of the modish fop and coquette.

This statement emphasizes the negative consequences of the emergence of 'fashionable society'. The changing of society's value leads to an oppression of other classes. In this period, the notion of masculinity and femininity is obviously shown. The rise of the middle class, the transformation of political economy and the change of cultural occasions lead to the emergence of women's subjectivity in this period (Ellis, 1996). Imperialism utilizes a patriarchal society which insists on men as the administrators of both the domestic and the public spheres. Women are not only excluded from the right to determine their fate but are also considered the 'property' of men to be traded like products. In the other words, the English women are considered to be similar to the slaves of the plantations in the colonies. They both face the

conditions of a kind of ‘double-colonization’ by their contexts within their respective socioeconomic systems and by the male gender. Laurence Sterne’s *A Sentimental Journey* (2005) and Jane Austen’s *Mansfield Park* (2000) illustrate many of the common beliefs and behaviours of the time.

A Sentimental Journey manifests many aspects of Britain’s perceptions of the nation and its sense of identity in the eighteenth century. At a time when people were influenced by the idea of voyaging to unfamiliar places and gaining new knowledge and experience, Sterne chose to satirize this trend by writing about a trip through France and Italy. Paul Goring draws attention to the importance of Sterne’s travel writing in the eighteenth century by stating:

> At that time travelling to Europe became an increasingly popular pursuit for the British educated and moneyed classes and the book market catered plentifully for this expanding interest (Sterne, 2005: XVII).

This kind of work "satisfied the need and interests of men and women planning tours, of returned travellers and of readers keen to know more of the world beyond Britain but the men’s to travel themselves." (Sterne, 2005: VII) Sterne often lampoons the actions of these middle class travellers by pointing out their hypocrisy. He portrays the character Mr. Yorick as a ‘model Englishman’ of considerable education, status, and manners. However, the author uses Yorick as the unwitting mouthpiece of his own satire. Sterne, for example, allows Yorick to list the categories of travellers according to his own observation. He then adds himself to this list as a ‘Sentimental Traveller’ – implying a superior kind of travellers who can absorb the experiences of travel with a greater degree of ‘sentiment’. This emphasis indicates Sterne’s thoughts toward

the travel writings of that period and also suggests a new way to render this kind of writing which describe every detail of the landscape and the architecture. Through his playful and ironic story-telling style, Sterne's work can be read as a reflection of British society at that time well. Although Yorick seems to offer a perspective that is different from that of other British travellers, the reader can see a parodic reflection of the same prejudices in his hyperbolic and self-consciously responses.

'Sentiment' is generally defined as a thought or a reflection which is produced from or informed by emotion (Sterne, 2005: XCI). However, in *A Sentimental Journey*, the reader will understand that Sterne is saying that to have a 'sentimental' feeling is to be capable of transforming this sentiment into moral reflection. Yorick claims that to have a capacity for sentimental feeling is crucial in order to produce the inner qualities of sensitive, well-mannered, and perhaps even 'civilized' ladies and gentlemen. However, his own 'sentiment' is heavily ironized by Sterne, revealing a supercilious heartlessness.

Even though Yorick thinks of himself as distinct from other types of traveller, the reader can see that his perceptions towards other societies are the same as those of the common travellers he comments on. He does not want to just 'know' the country; he wants to 'connect' with it. The character of Yorick represents a version of the biases British men. He constructs his views of people who are foreign to himself from observations that are fundamentally discriminatory. For example, in the chapter 'The Dwarf', Yorick agrees with the view of Mr. Shandy:

> Children, like other animals, might be increased almost to any size, provided they came right into the world; but the misery was, the citizens of Paris were so coop'd up, that they had not actually room enough to get them. (Sterne, 2005: 56)

In this circumstance, there are two issues that are satirized in this sentence. It shows a typical English view about other countries. France is as 'civilized' as England; however, Yorick manages as usual to consider it and the French themselves inferior and, of course, hilarious. His depiction of a 'tall corpulent German' who is obscuring the view of a dwarf at a performance at the Palais Royal manages to make great stereotypical comedy of both these figures. He depicts the Other as something inhuman in order to persuade readers to sympathize with him and to consider his actions appropriate. Moreover, when he drives Madame de Rambouliet to her home, Yorick shows his stereotypical thinking and depicts the foreigner as fundamentally lacking in 'proper' manners. He says,

> In our return back, Madame de Rambouliet desired me to pull the cord. –I ask'd her if she wanted anything… Grieve not, gentle traveler, to let Madame de Rambouliet p–ss on. –And, ye fair mystic nymphs! go each one *pluck your rose,* and scatter them in your path– for Madame de Rambouliet did no more. –I handed Madame de Rambouliet out of the coach; and had I been the priest of the chaste CASTALIA, I could not have served at her fountain with a more respectful decorum'. –*Rien que pisser*, said Madame de Rambouliet… (Sterne, 2005: 60).

The act of Madame de Rambouliet urinating in front of him is depicted in a manner that

emphasizes how shameless and 'uncivilized' she is. Yorick's description, with its overblown classical references, renders Madame de Rambouliet (and, by extension, the French in general) both ridiculous and vulgar.

Throughout *A Sentimental Journey*, we witness an association between discrimination and wealth itself**.** When Yorick is about to part with money, he seems to hesitate**.** Even when that money is required for charitable purposes, he refuses to give it to a monk**.** Although he later exchanges his snuffbox with the monk, even this act of very slight generosity functions purely to soothe the guilt he feels about his earlier meanness**.** Yorick, though he is often thrifty, seems very willing to spend his money on luxuries**.** He watches opera, lives in a grand hotel, and hires a servant**.** His fortune is large**.** Moreover, as a typical bourgeois, he does not hesitate to spend money on unnecessary items and activities in order to maintain his status in society**.**

Jane Austen's *Mansfield Park* also displays the effects of imperialism on the British culture of that time. Although Austen's novels are popularly seen as dealing with romance, a close reading of this work reveals a stark picture of class and gender discrimination and of the particularities of colonialism itself. Apart from revealing much of the moral attitude of the eighteenth century in Britain, *Mansfield Park* too displays the effects of imperialism and commerce on the domestic sphere. Beneath surface of a love story, it can portray the discriminatory treatment of women against an implicit background of slavery.

Edward W. Said (1993: 107) says that "according to Austen, we are to conclude that no matter how isolated and insulated the English place, it requires overseas sustenance." The situation within Mansfield Park clearly illustrates the parallel conditions of British society and its colonies. When the ten-year-old Fanny Price arrives at Mansfield Park, the income of the Bertram family is depleted, and it shows in the condition of the house. One part of the house is

being renovated. Moreover, although its regular occupants live in normal conditions, the outsider Fanny is forced to live, read, and work in a small room with no fire. The family concerns itself with the improvement of the estate and discusses running a new business together. After Fanny and her four cousins have grown up, Sir Thomas leaves for the Antiguan plantation on business, a journey which we are told is 'expedient'. In short, by a series of intermittent details, the decline of the Bertram wealth is conveyed to the reader. Although the exact nature of these problems is unspecified in the novel, Said (1993: 107) says of this period that

> Revolutionary ideas were being exported there [the plantations in the Antilles and Leeward Islands], and there was a steady decline in British profits; the French sugar plantations were producing more sugar at less cost.

This may throw some light on at least one situation affecting the commerce of England during Jane Austin's time. The year-long absence of Sir Thomas indicates an urgent situation that needs management. Also, it may reflect a structural change in the power-balance at the upper levels of business (Said, 1993: 107). A new generation of merchant was about to replace the old class represented by Sir Thomas, which is the reason for Sir Thomas' desire to have his son Tom inherit the family plantation. Also, in *Mansfield Park*, we witness the marginalization and commodification of women, underlining striking similarities between women in Britain and women subjected to literal slavery in the colonies. The process of 'improvement' and the patriarchal system dehumanises and oppresses them in order that they might take their places within the socio-economic system of the time. Fanny is a good example of this. When she first arrives, she is an outsider who exists in a liminal space somewhere between the servants and the

family itself; she is 'Other' to the Bertrams in spite of her noticeably fine qualities. Seeing the potential of the girl, Sir Thomas decides to 'invest' in Fanny. However, as the years pass and nothing changes, Sir Thomas decides to get rid of her and suggests that she goes to live with her aunt. Of Sir Thomas' thinking we are told,

> by some recent losses on his West India Estate, in addition to his eldest son's extravagance it become not undesirable to himself to be relieved from the expense of her support, and the obligation of her future provision (Austen, 2003: 19).

Similarly, to the black workers on Sir Thomas' plantation, Fanny, an individual without autonomy, is an investment, but one that has failed to show a return. When she first arrives at Mansfield Park, Fanny is forced to live in the old governess's room. Beck (2009: 16), referencing other critics, says

> Fanny is what Selden et al. would call a "subaltern," "those of inferior rank without class consciousness...this colonized non-elite, in Spivak's usage, cannot speak" and Fanny plays a role which critics such as Boulukos and Ferguson have dubbed the "grateful slave" or "grateful negro".

Marcus Wood indicates his view on the notions of improvement, slavery and trading in his book *Slavery, Empathy and Pornography.* For him, Fanny seems to be a kind of product which the patriarchal society will attempt to 'improve' for later profit. Wood (2002: 308) says,

> Sir Thomas' time spent on Fanny is literally money and the investment must be returned...He expects a physical return for his outlay, he wants his property to 'improve' its value and for a young woman this means becoming more attractive, more capable of the social display of her beauty.

This physical improvement, geared towards marriage ability, represents the increase of "sale potential". As a merchant, Sir Thomas wants his goods to be perfect so that their value may increase and benefit him in the end. Fanny's 'value', both current and potential, is alluded to from the very earliest stages of the book. Initially, her goodness and delicacy represent her main 'capital'. Later, as Sir Thomas notices physical changes in the girl and praises her beauty, her 'value' increases so that men outside her family begin to notice it. When Crawford comes to visit Fanny, he also acknowledges her improvement and is fascinated by it (Austen, 2000: 413). Fanny's material potential is on the increase. When Fanny attends a ball, parallels between this highly formal English social ritual and the slave auctions in the colonies are quite apparent. Fanny's original entry into Sir Thomas' process of 'improvement' has been made possible by the Bertram family's wealth while it, in turn, has come from profits gained through work carried out by dispossessed slaves in the Antiguan plantation. At the ball, she is dressed up to attract the attention of a prospective husband, a 'buyer'. Nor does she attend the event willingly; she does so in obedience to Sir Thomas. This episode illustrates the kind of 'double-colonization' mentioned earlier in this paper. Fanny's original position as an outsider from an inferior economic order leaves her fundamentally estranged. However, outwardly accepting the family may at times appear to be. Added to this, the patriarchal system, which is expressed in the household, requires that she obey her uncle without reservation. Eventually, she marries and

moves away from Mansfield Park, the family continuing to live with the expense of the plantation. Moreover, they still refusing to admit the situation they must confront.

To conclude, the expansion of voyage and exploration in the eighteenth-century Britain, the growing rate of trade and the increase of printing as a popular medium had an impact on societal beliefs and values and on the overall culture in consequence. Although the native people of the colonies themselves were changed (and suffered) more obviously and more radically, it can be seen that the culture of Britain itself was profoundly changed by its collusion in the moral darkness of material acquisition through colonization.

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English Teaching in Ethnic-minority Regions of Yunnan Province in China

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Abstract

The population of ethnic minorities in China has accounted for 8% only , but the residence is distributed for 60% of the land. They mainly settle in the west of China, including the only ethnic minority regions, and Han Chinese nationalities mixed area, it has been known as ethnic minority areas. Yunnan, is a typical ethnic minority areas, which includes 51 ethnic minorities (totally 55 among the mainland), accounting for 33.4% of the total population of the ethnic minorities, and accounting for 13.5% of the national minority population.

The development of English teaching in ethnic minority areas is diversity in Yunnan province. Most of junior middle schools had opened the English class after the implementation of compulsory education. Hence, the situation of English teaching in ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province represents that of the majority situations of ethnic minority areas among the west or even the whole mainland of China.

This paper will be discussed in three parts: the present situation of English teaching and learning in ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province; status quo of reaction; and the corresponding suggestions. Furthermore, the analysis of current situation of English teaching is based on the sampling survey by some researchers in ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province .

Key words: *ethnic minority areas, local languages , English language learning and teaching.*

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Background

The population of minority in China has accounted for 8% only, but the residence is distributed for 60% of the land. They mainly settle in the west of China, including the only ethnic minority areas, and minorities-Han nationalities mixed area, known as ethnic minority areas. Yunnan, is a typical ethnic minority area, which includes 51 ethnic minorities (totally 55 among the mainland), accounting for 33.4% of the total population of the ethnic minorities, and accounting for 13.5% of the national minority population.

The development of the English language teaching in ethnic minority areas is diversity in Yunnan province. Most of the junior middle schools had opened the English class after the implementation of compulsory education. Hence, the situation of English teaching in the ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province represents that of the majority situations of ethnic minority areas among the west or even the whole mainland.

This article is divided into three parts: the present situation of English teaching and learning in ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province; status quo of reaction; and the corresponding suggestions. Furthermore, the analysis of the current situation of English teaching is based on the sampling survey by some researchers in the ethnic minority areas in Yunnan province.

Current Situation

The study has been carried out in the minority areas in Yunnan province, and the stratified sampling method is used to select samples. 100% of the state ethnic middle school, 50% of the provincial county of national high schools and 64.7% of county middle school involved in the survey. Therefore, the samples have representatives of the school in the ethnic areas. Among them, the minority of students accounts for 71.1% of the total sample, which belongs to more than 20 minorities. The main findings can be classified into the following

statistics.

Table 1. Vertical Lifting of Ordinary Middle School Students' English Level (Zhang & Chen, 2012)

Types			**Listening**		**Grammar**		**Cloze**		**Reading**		**Writing**		**Total**	
Points			20		30		20		10		20		100	
		No.	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	**PR**
2008	**SW**	727	14.8	74.1	19.7	65.8	13.1	65.5	8.1	81.0	12.1	60.7	66.8	**66.8**
	YN	56	9.4	47.0	17.6	56.7	11.1	55.5	7.7	77.0	8.5	42.5	55.3	**55.3**
2014	**SW**	1299	11.9	58.5	20.3	67.7	13.4	67.2	8.9	89.0	14.6	73.0	69.2	**69.2**
	YN	65	11.9	58.5	20.5	68.3	12.6	63.0	8.2	82.0	13.2	66.0	66.3.	**66.3**

Note: SW---Southwest of China YN: Yunnan province
AS---average score; SA---scoring average; PR---pass rate.

Table 2. The Test Score Statistics of Ethnic Minorities Students and Han Nationalities Students. (Zhang & Chen, 2012)

Types		**Listening**		**Grammar**		**Cloze**		**Reading**		**Writing**		**Total**	
Points		20		30		20		10		20		100	
	No.	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	**PR**
Total	1361	12.1	60.5	20.7	69.0	12.8	63.8	8.3	83.0	13.4	67.0	67.1	**67.8**
Minorities	967	12.1	60.5	21.0	69.9	12.9	64.4	8.3	83.0	13.6	68.2	67.9	**71.1**
Han nationality	346	12.1	60.5	20.1	67.3	12.5	62.6	8.2	82.0	12.9	64.6	65.9	**67.1**

Note: SW---Southwest of China YN: Yunnan province
AS---average score; SA---scoring average; PR---pass rate.

Table 3. The Statistics of Test Scores in Different Types of Schools. (Zhang & Chen, 2012)

Types		**Listening**		**Grammar**		**Cloze**		**Reading**		**Writing**		**Total**	
Points		20		30		20		10		20		100	
	No.	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	SA	AS	**PR**
Key Middle School	94	14.2	71.0	22.9	76.4	15.2	75.8	9.2	92.0	16.6	83.0	28.1	**92.6**
County Ethnic middle school	213	11.1	55.5	19.1	63.6	10.9	54.7	7.5	75.5	12.7	63.5	61.1	**47.4**
Township Middle school	91	10.2	51.0	18.4	61.4	11.9	59.3	7.6	76.0	10.6	53.0	58.5	**50.6**

Note: SW---Southwest of China YN: Yunnan province
AS---average score; SA---scoring average; PR---pass rate.

Table 4. The Statistics of the Value of English Learning

		Type A students	Type B students
Functions	The attitude of parents	95.6	86.2
	For the local construction services	47.3	50.4
	For entering a higher grade school	8.8	17.8
	Conductive to personal development	29.7	22.7
	For finding a good job	4.8	5.8
	For Enhancing the understanding of international situation	55.0	50.8

Table 5. The Statistics of the Learning Environment

Contents	Options		Students
1. The situation of English using	A. Home	Chinese the ethnic language English	67.0 33.0 **0.0**
	B. Community	Chinese the ethnic language English	71.0 28.0 **0.0**
	C. School	Chinese the ethnic language English	96.0 0.01 0.03
2. The situation of English learning in local	A. Have learned before, but pay attention less; B. Have not learned before, but can realize the significance; C. Both these two situations are rare; D. Both these two situations are common.		15.9 29.7 46.8 6.5
3.The books and newspapers in local	A. Reading the ethnic language books and newspapers only; B. Reading English books and newspapers only; C. Both of them D. Reading Chinese books and newspapers only.		3.2 28.5 31.2 34.7
4. The categories of English materials outside the classroom	A. English-Chinese dictionary; B. English magazines; C.English newspapers; D.English workbooks; E. Grammar books.		52.1 34.6 50.4 66.5 43.2

Situation Analysis

It is argued that the minority students or students living in minorities, cannot learn English as well as other students outside the ethnic minority regions

English teaching in ethnic minority areas has made progress.

It can be seen in the longitudinal comparison that the average score of students in ordinary high school is only 55.3 points in Yunnan province, 2008; however, the average grade has increased to 66.3 points in 2014, which is almost flat with the ordinary middle school in the southwest.

Although it only shows that the achievement had obvious progress compared to what it was four years ago in the southwest area, but it is delighted in the minority regions. English learning has improved with the development of the school construction and the raise of the level of teachers in the ethnic minority areas.

There is no obvious gap between the ethnic minority students and Han nationality students.

Form 2 illustrates that the average score of the ethnic minority students is 67.9 and for the Han nationality students, it is 65.9. The latter is slightly higher than the former. Furthermore, the pass rate of the ethnic minority students is higher than the Han nationality i.e. around 4%. Therefore, it shows that the minority nationality students can learn English well the way Han nationality students can.

English teaching in ethnic minority areas affected by the local economy and the unbalanced development of education.

Table 3 expresses that the test scores are more highlighted in the key middle school, which are located in the capital of Yunnan province, Kunming. Therefore, conditions and the environment always play an important role in promoting or hindering English teaching. Combined with the analysis of table 2, it can be seen that the reason that lagging in English learning of the ethnic minority students is not in terms of the lacking of the qualifications to learn English, but in terms of the poor teaching environment.

1. In our English teaching practice, however, there are generally three misunderstandings. Firstly, the ethnic minority students have lack of talent, they are

not good at learning Chinese. Hence, it is believed that they cannot learn English well. Secondly, it is believed that the minority have been localized, it is not necessary to distinguish between them in English teaching; Furthermore, it is believed that English teaching must be lagged behind in ethnic minority regions based on their geographic situation. As a consequence, English teaching cannot get adequate attention based on these conceptual deviation in the ethnic minority areas.

2. The understanding of the value of English needs to be improved. The result indicates that most of the students prefer to pay attention to the practicality of English. Most of the students have recognized the functions of English, such as, to extend cultural knowledge, to increase international understanding, etc. However, only 22.3% of the students have recognized the main function of English which is beneficial to their personal development. Besides, 54% of the students think that the role of English is for the economical construction, they have paid more attention to the practical function in the future. Furthermore, 63.1% of the students admitted that the reason they learn English for is to enter a higher grade school. To some extent, most of them have admitted that they regard English as a course, which they must learn for higher schools.

3. The learning characteristics of the ethnic minority students are ignored.

The characteristics of the "three language teaching" are ignored.

In the recent years, the positive and negative influences of the ethnic minority students on learning English are ignored or paid less attention to. During the process, English language got affected by Chinese and their own ethnic language.

Firstly, the unique cultural background and living environment of the ethnic minority students are different from others, and they own special language system and mode of thinking. That is, they speak their own language at home, but they are bilingual during

daily life (native language and Chinese); when they have to learn a foreign language (English). Therefore, a larger cultural span had been formed, it increased the difficulty of their psychological adaptation during the learning progress.

However, in the present system, the syllabus less considers the particularity of the learning circumstance in our multi-ethnic country. The design of most of the textbooks also ignores the characteristics of 'three language learning'. Some of them are not related to the real life of those students who live in ethnic minority areas, and the learning process is not based on their characteristics. It is a considerable issue for both teachers and students.

Secondly, the lack of English learning experience of the ethnic students, which is far away from the Han nationality students in the mainland. Some teachers who teach in the ethnic minority regions have found that their students feel confused when they learn English. The reason should be concluded as following. Firstly, minority students' English learning starts late, unlike the students in mainland, who have generations of experience in learning English. On the other hand, it is difficult for these students to gain successful learning experience due to the information occlusion and traffic Inconvenience. Hence, these students are required to learn pronunciation, grammar and words without any direction. Compared to them, the students who live in mainland, have more opportunities to them to straight their way in English learning.

Suggestions

To develop a specialized English curriculum standard for ethnic minorities areas, and formulate corresponding English curriculum resources, such as textbooks and related teaching materials. For instance, some special teaching materials are designed for English major students in the Honehe University. It is located in the south of Yunnan province, and most of the students are from the ethnic minority regions. One series of the course books is named 'The local cultures and traditions' (translation 1 & 2). They are applied to the

translation classes. The contents of the books are related to the local traditional cultures, human geography, traditional arts etc. Most of the contents are connected with the living circumstance of local students. Compared to the traditional course books of translating subject, the new materials are more acceptable by students, due to the consensus between the English learning and their own cultures.

For the primary and secondary high schools, the abilities of teachers should be paid more attention to. It is not only in terms of the English professional knowledge, but also in terms of three language competence. Namely, training English teachers among minority students in universities and colleges becomes increasingly important. That is, they are minorities, and they can speak Chinese, English and their own languages, which is conductive to make a connection between different languages during the language learning process. To some extent, those teachers can understand the local language and cultures compared with Han nationality teachers, which will improve the English teaching in ethnic minority areas.

Besides, the government and the Ministry of Education should improve the professional evaluation system. The welfare of English teachers in ethnic minority areas should be guaranteed, such as conferring of academic titles and increasing of the wages. To some extent, these actions will maintain the English teachers who have higher level in teaching in ethnic minority areas. And it will probably prevent these teachers from getting attracted by the schools of the coastal area.

The fund and policy should be supplied by the government, which will improve the teaching environment of the ethnic minority areas. For instance, teaching equipment and classroom environment. In fact, there are no computers, CD players, projectors or other basic teaching equipment in some remote areas in Yunnan province. These students, who learn English basically rely on the teacher's oral teaching; furthermore, there are no opportunities

to listen to English tapes, watch English videos, and they even cannot understand what the standard English pronunciation sounds like. Compared to students in coastal areas and inland areas, these students can only learn reading and writing based limited materials, speaking and listening skills are seldom involved. Hence, the equipment is increasingly significant during a teaching process, it can not only improve the efficiency of teaching, but also can provide students good conditions during a learning process.

The collaboration and co-operation between coastal schools and local schools, local schools and foreign schools should be developed. The cooperation will provide more communication opportunities for students, such as a summer camp and an exchange of students. Furthermore, it provides opportunities to students to experience foreign cultures, improve their learning motivation, promote English learning and build their own perspectives. For instance, there are different collaborative projects in Honghe University. There are two main exchange subjects for the grade two students. One of them is the programme of exchanging students between Payap University in Thailand and Honghe University in China. These students are provided with an opportunity to study abroad for 6 months. They speak English and have classes totally in English, which is different from the learning environment in China. Moreover, their learning motivation is improved, because they are required to communicate in English, which pushes them to improve their English skills. During the process, they experience the use of English, which is really significant. Besides, another programme is for working and traveling in USA. Students are provided work opportunities and they can travel after working for 3 months. It is related to the cultural experience. Students experience different cultures and ethnics which are mentioned in course books. As the well-known Chinese proverb says, read 10,000 books and travel 10,000 miles and learn as much as you can and do all you can.

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EFL Classroom and Translanguaging

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Abstract

Based on the sociocultural theory of Vygotsky this paper looks at the use of translanguaging in the classroom with the main focus on the EFL classroom in Thailand. The argument is that language is learned not *through* interaction as such but *in* interaction. Learning is co-constructed to attain some form of self-regulation (or control) in the learning process. In the Thai-English class this means using moving away from seeing the two languages as separate entities, but rather recognizing that we have one linguistic repertoire at our disposal. Translanguaging has been described as a fluid linguistic tool that is shaped according to the socio-cultural and historical environment where the communication is being practiced. It is about the way language can be used to empower students by understanding how, choice shapes language and language shapes choice. Translanguaging, therefore, stems from the concept of 'languaging', namely a process whereby individuals *do* languages, rather than *have* language. Examples are given of translanguaging at work in such domains as the home, classroom, workplace and the internet to illustrate that this way of communicating in more the norm than the exception..

Keywords**:** *sociocultural theory, translanguaging, interaction, English, Thai, classroom, technology*

Introduction

Sociocultural theory of Vygotsky.

The main focus of this paper is that there is an important relationship between classroom talk, interaction and collaboration, a relationship that needs to be understood in order to maximize and enhance language learning. Language classrooms are highly complex, fast-paced multi-party social contexts where talk and interaction are central to all activity and this is particularly true of the second language classroom (Walsh and Li 2016). In a language classroom learners access and acquire new knowledge and skills through talk, interaction and collaboration. There are strong connections between language learning with language playing a meditational role following the sociocultural theory (SCT) of Vygotsky (1978). Indeed, Ellis (2000: 209) wrote that 'learning arises not *through* language interaction, but *in* interaction'.

The basic principles underlying the Vygotskian framework can be summarized as follows:

1. Learners construct knowledge, that is, cognitive construction is always socially mediated. The things teachers point out to their students will influence what these students construct.
2. Development cannot be separated from its social context as it molds the cognitive processes, while it is also part of the developmental process. For example, the learner whose teacher emphasizes learning and gives some form of explanation will help the learner to think in a different way from the learner whose teachers issuing direct commands and has limited verbal interaction with the learner (Luria 1976, Bernstein, 1996).

3. Learning can lead development because unlike the behaviorists who believed that learning and development is the same thing, Vygotsky argued that there are qualitative changes in thought not necessarily accounted for by the accumulation of facts or skills. Vygotsky believed that a learner‘s thinking gradually becomes more structured and deliberate and maturation is necessary for specific cognitive accomplishments. For example, learners could not learn logical thinking without having mastered language.
4. Language plays a central role in mental development, that is, learners learn or acquire a mental process by sharing, or using it in interacting with others. Only after this period of shared experience can the learner internalize and use the mental process independently.
5. Every instance of new learning takes place within a zone of proximal development (ZPD) for the learner: The notion of a ZPD is a powerful concept related to the conditions under which learning happens or is possible. In simple terms, the notion refers to the idea that learning can only take place when we are presented with a new task or knowledge and understanding that is just beyond our present ability or knowledge and understanding. (Foley 2012)

Learning moves from the inter-psychological (i.e. between minds of people) to the intra-psychological (within the individual’s mind): That is to say, learning always begins on the social level, before moving on to the psychological – it starts with what happens between people, before it carries on in the mind of the learner. Each ZPD is a stage between what Vygotsky calls actual and potential development. By 'actual' development, Vygotsky means the existing capabilities that a learner possesses – for example, as measured by an IQ test or by the successful accomplishment of a task independently. 'Potential' development, on the other hand, refers to the next step the learner is capable of achieving, often seen by what he or she can understand or do

with the help of, or in collaboration with, for example, an adult or a more expert peer. For Vygotsky, learning is about bridging this gap between actual and potential development through instruction, formal or informal, and the 'teacher' imparts the tools of society to the child to achieve this: what the child can do with the help of others today, he or she can do on his or her own tomorrow. This is what mediation is about. Moving from the inter-psychological to the intra-psychological plane of learning requires mediation: the individual‘s learning requires outside intervention or guidance‘. Such mediation can come from the social environment around the learner (i.e. what the learner sees or hears in the home, school and society around him or her) or from significant others that is, people who matter in some way to the learner (Foley 2012).

Vygotsky observed that every individual's actions and thoughts are regulated or controlled in three ways: by things and activities in the environment, e.g. social and cultural artifacts, rituals and cultural practices, (*object-regulation*), by other people, e.g. a teacher or parent (*other-regulation*) and by oneself, through self-directed 'speech' (*self-regulation*). Vygotsky argued that every cycle of learning or development involved moving from object-regulation to other-regulation to self-regulation. We begin all our learning in the inter-psychological phase through being object-regulated – for example, by following or observing rituals and practices around us, or imitating how something is said or done. However, we then need the help of more ‘experts’ (other-regulation) to understand better how and why such rituals and practices are carried out, or how and why things are said or done the way they are. In time, this enables learning to become intra-psychological, when we begin to take control of or self-regulate our own understanding and actions, through internal self-talk that enables us to manipulate ideas or make decisions about how to perform a task (Daniels, 1993, Foley, 2012).

From a sociocultural theory (SCT) perspective, language teaching may generally be interpreted through three basic approaches: objectivist, interactionist and transformative Negueruela-Azarola and Garcia 2016). An *objectivist* approach is based on the idea that language teaching such as English is the teaching and learning of a static system that has morphology, syntax and lexicon. In other words, in this approach, explaining forms is explaining language. Alternatively, an *interactionist* approach highlights interaction in communication. Language as interaction is taught through promoting communicative transactions where meaning is central (Omaggio, 2001). Howatt with Widdowson (2004) viewed communicative language teaching (CLT) as communication leading to learning rather than learning leading to communication. For SCT, communicative approaches are needed in the classroom and participation in the communicative events is crucial to developing proficiency in a second language (Hall, 2002). The *transformative* teaching which is SCT inspired is the activity of promoting conceptual reflection, that is the internalization and thus transformation of new ideas through thinking on and about these new ideas through communicative activity. From this perspective, language teaching is essentially about personal transformation or what Vygotsky would have termed *self-regulation* which can be defined as a degree of control based on conceptual development for learners and teachers (Negueruela-Azorola and Garcia, 2016).

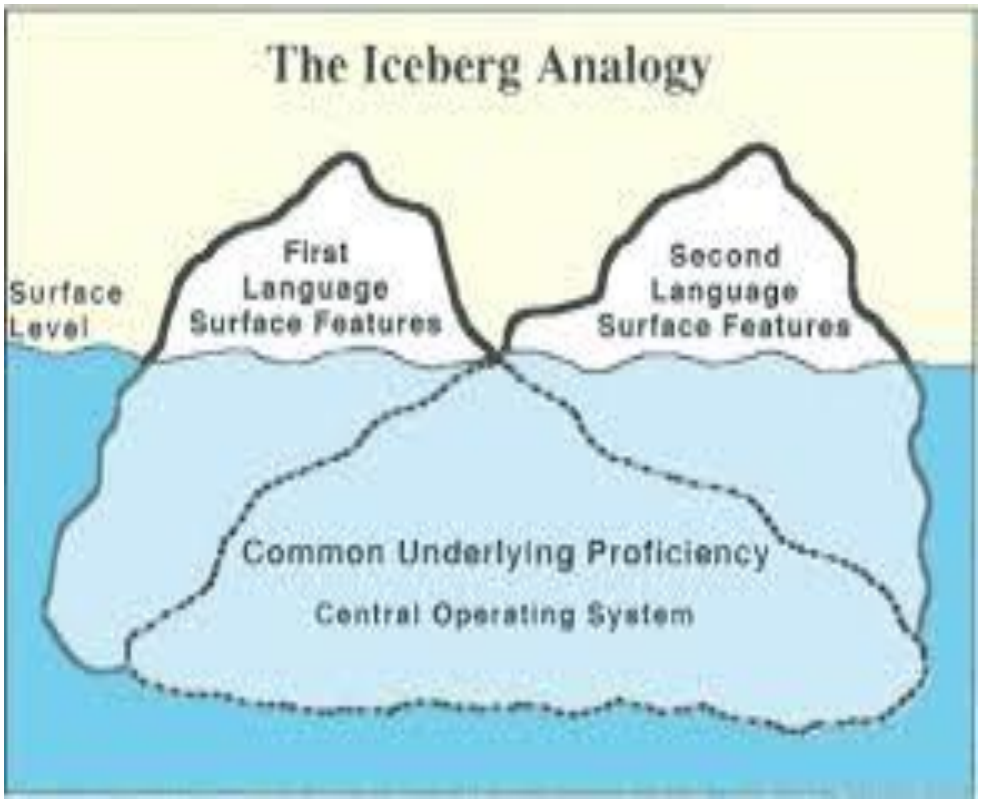
Translanguaging.

Translanguaging, an umbrella term which is more than hybrid languaging, can be a major language tool to achieve self-regulation.. Researchers such as (Garcia and Li Wei, 2014; Canagarajah, 2011; Beres, 2015) in examining the nature of language as a tool for communication and learning see translanguaging as more than simply switching between codes or language mixing. It involves an individual's full range of linguistic repertoire to convey

meaning. The term is the equivalent of the Welsh word *trawsieithu* , first used by Williams (1994) to describe a teaching method in Welsh schools using English and Welsh. Baker (2011) translated this Welsh term as translanguaging. More recently, Garcia and Li Wei (2014) have argued for less rigid criteria of the proficiency in two languages than as used by Williams with a focus on students growing flexibility in their use of their entire linguistic repertoire. Garcia argues in favor of moving away from seeing the two languages as separate entities, recognizing that we have one linguistic repertoire at our disposal. Hence students should be allowed to flexibly draw from it in order to choose the aspects that enable them to meet their complex communicative needs. For example, translanguaging can be used effectively to achieve proficiency in English and use other languages as well to advance their academic attainment. For Garcia and Li Wei translanguaging is a process whereby individuals use various meaning making signs in order to adapt and actively participate in different societal and linguistic situations. It enables people to develop new understandings of interaction between people and create a free and equal environment in which everyone is given a voice.

However, there is no fixed structure to translanguaging; it is not simply a standard code-system as often presented when we teach languages as if they were simply parallel forms of communication. The fact is that translanguaging is a normal, natural process we do where more than one language is in use. Creese and Blackledge (2010) describe translanguaging as a fluid linguistic tool that is shaped according to the socio-cultural and historical environment where the communication is being practiced. It is about the way language can be used to empower students by understanding how, choice shapes language and language shapes choice. Consequently, the use of translanguaging in education has a major role to play in changing how teachers and students view ‘language’ not as separate and parallel forms of learning languages but as making

up the students complete language repertoire. Garcia and Li Wei (2014) suggested moving away from seeing two languages as separate entities, recognizing that we have one linguistic repertoire at our disposal. This is the 'Iceberg Analogy' applied by Foley (2016) to the concept of translanguaging.



Traditionally, ELT has tended to establish a dichotomy between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNs) and been responsible for the persistent disempowerment of NNs with the profession. Recently, researchers, (Davis 2003, Llurda 2016) have been concerned that

behind the term ‘native speaker’ there is a stigmatization of individuals who do not fit the socially established pattern of the ‘ideal native speaker’. This pattern is often determined by a speaker’s place of birth and his or her physical appearance rather than by linguistic or pedagogical competence. There are, therefore, strong arguments that trained local teacher are able to empathize with their students in their attempts to learn a new language, act as suitable model roles, understand the educational and cultural roles of students in their communities. One reason why untrained native speaker teachers remain in such demand is the belief that they speak some form of ‘Standard English’ and thus provide appropriate linguistic models for their students. Standard English’ exists but mainly in grammar and to a lesser extent in lexis. It is more of an *idealized* language in the written form. In fact the English spoken by untrained native speaker teachers is likely to be a regional variety and one that differs, particularly phonologically, from any idealized version.

This leaves us with a fairly fundamental question of identity. When we speak a language, we are telling a story about ourselves, how and why we talk, why we talk as we do, and ultimately who we are. How we are like others, and how we are different. The very existence of language and languages is bound up with identity. Mufwene (2001) made the point that language develops through contact and accommodation. He has suggested that the development of new varieties of a language may come from a process of selection from a ‘linguistic gene pool’. That is to say, individuals will develop their language from the forms of the languages around them. However unconscious the use of this developing new variety may be for the individual, it is controlled by the changing needs of the individual within a society. *Linguistic evolution* or linguistic change is seen as a consequence of the way people use language in the interaction of individual speakers as they adapt their communicative strategies to new needs and new

surroundings. We are currently witnessing the emergence of the concept of international or global English, which more than anything else creates a set of attitudes about correctness and values concerning culture, technology and economic politics. One major consequence of such an argument is that because language learners' identity and personal profiles differ from individual to individual, it can no longer be assumed that a uniformed endpoint represents the goal of everyone's language learning.

Translanguaging at work.

In a society where more than one language is in use, the learning of an additional language starts with help from external sources (object regulation). The language learner has, models or examples of language as it is used to listen to or to look at, and then is given explicit or implicit guidance from other people who are more expert users of that language (other regulation). In this giving and receiving of guidance, both the language learner and the more expert 'other' need to talk *about* the language. In other words, language *about* language is used. It is in this context that Li Wei (2011) sees translanguaging as stemming from the concept of 'languaging', namely a process whereby individuals *do* languages, rather than *have* language.

Examples of the use of translanguaging in a multilingual environment are the norm in communication.

Translanguing used in the home.

Soon Ping (SP) who was 4 years 6 months at the time of the recording has been exposed to English (colloquial Singapore English), Mandarin and Hokkien. LL was one of the investigators.

- LL: Some more? I very hungry you know. What else are you giving me?
- SP: Egg, nah, egg *hai yo [and]... coffee.*

- LL: *Hai yo leh?*
- SP: *Hai yo, nah coffee.*
- LL: Oh, not enough. I want something else. I very hungry you know.
- SP*: Ni yao nah shen mo fang shen mo fang ice yao bu yao ?*
- [What do you want, do you want ice?]
- LL: Huh? Coffee *fang ice [Coffee with ice]*
- SP: ((nodding his head)) Ah
- LL: ((laughs)) Ice coffee ah?
- SP: Ah
- LL: Ok loh, anything.
- SP: ((finishes making coffee)) *Hao le nah, nah, nah.*
- LL: Ok, what else you give me?
- SP: ((Thinking)) Ah...
- LL: *Chui-kuch ((Hokkien term for a cake normally eaten for breakfast))*
- ((laughter)
- SP: *Zhe mo tuo dong xi ya? [So many things?]*
- LL: Ah loh, very hungry.
- SP: Ok. Nah, nah, nah ((pushes food‘ to LL)) *Hao le [It‘s done]*
- (Foley, 2012:126)

What this extract illustrates is the development of knowledge through interaction which involves three languages in a social context. Clearly the child has the ability to interact and maintain a conversation, while the adult adjusts her language to fit the situation.

Another example is Saffiya (S) a 5 year old English- Malay girl who is interacting with her Mother (M) in English and Malay.

- S: Mama tell something dough dough dough dough flour lah flour flour
- N: Then what are you making the flour into?
- S: Make people
- M: *Saffiya tengah buat apa? [Saffiah, what are you making?]*
- S: Er...*buat orang [make person]*
- M: *Buat orang? Tengah main dangan apa itu? [What are you playing with?]*
- S: Dough
- M: Dough *dalam Bahasa Melayu apa? [What is dough in Malay?]*
- S: *Tak tau [Don't know]*
- ((S is encouraged by M to describe what she is doing))
- S: *Sekarang buat rambut [Making the hair now]*
- *Sekarang buat buat rambut*
- *Panjang rambut [long hair]*
- M: *Taruh rambut atas kepala [Put the hair on the head]*
- S: Oh huh

(Quoted in Foley 2012: 127)

In this extract language is used as a tool, not just to communicate but also to develop the cognitive abilities of the child. The immediate contexts in which the child participates are constantly providing linguistic challenges that the child needs to gain control (self-regulation) over in an ever expanding range of domains.

Translanguaging used in an English class.

The common assumption that only the 'target' language is to be used in language education programs, and of strict language separation, has become increasingly questioned as globalization has encouraged movement of people and information. If we let our students express themselves and present their ideas in their primary language (s), we give them the opportunity to continue the development of their thinking. Emilia's (2011) study in West Java surveyed the English *only* policy in Indonesian EFL classrooms and asked if it was desirable. The conclusion she drew was that the majority of students (primary, secondary, university) thought that the use of, for example, Bahasa Indonesia can help them understand the teaching materials more easily while the use of English can increase their capability in using English. Other studies by Siregar, (2013) in Maranatha University, Floris, (2013) in Surabaya and Padmadewi (2013) in Singaraja have also researched the role of English in these multilingual, multicultural contexts and come to similar conclusions.

In fact, despite language education policies that strictly separate languages, students and teachers, constantly move from one language to another as the situation may require. This is illustrated in this extract from an English class in Thailand.

S.1: Computer games *de krab* (good)

S.2: *chai krab. anni sanuk krab*. (Yes ……it is fun)

S.3: *chill chill* (relaxing) *Laio* share idea *da*i (It can share ideas)

S.2: *the wa ari na*. (What do u say?)

S.3: It is relax …….can exchange ideas

S.2: I think it improves thinking skill, *Khun Kie*

S1: Computer games are not good= Computer game *mai di*

(Lwin 2015)

A recent study into the use of computer tablets for teaching English in primary education in Thailand (Vungthong et al 2015), indicated that although both teachers used the same ‘app’, they taught the EFL content in a different way. Both teachers asked students to access the content and used the instructional register primarily to give the students step by step instructions. One teacher’s questions reflected the content and first asked in English and then in Thai. The repetition of each question in Thai helped to support the students in recalling information from the lesson they had read on the app. More importantly, it revealed the teacher’s focus on supporting and testing their comprehension of the lesson.

The other teacher did not talk or ask questions about the overall content of the lessons on the app. The teacher spoke in Thai and asked questions aimed at testing the students’ ability to translate individual words used in the lesson into Thai. The first teacher uses translanguaging as Gracia and Li Wei 2014 envisaged it as supporting the children’s emerging ability to communicate in English while the other teacher was simply using translation.

Translanguaging used ‘outside’ the classroom.

The following transcript involved a transaction between a financial officer <S01> and Burmese students <S02, S03, S04> one of whom wanted to pay the tuition fee:

[Student submits staff with ID
card and petition form]

<S 01> You pay cash ไหม?

(Mai)(Right)

Cash? You,You pay cash
right?

<S 02> Yeah

<S 01> How much do you pay today? How much?

อันนี้คือ(An Nii Kuu)(This one)miss อันนี้คือ (An Nii Kuu)(This one)

[staff talks with her colleague in Thai]

This is the first time right?

First time, today for pay tui(tion)…

Ah on credit, how much today…how much you will pay?

<S 02> Pardon

<S 01> How much you will pay…today?

<S 03> All are scholarship student

<S 04> scholarship student

<S 02> I just scholarship

student [studentis speaking with her friends in Burmese]

[staff is talking with her colleague in Thai]

<S 01> Who are you talking to? So what would to do it, for now?

[4 sec][staff is talking with her colleague in Thai]

<S 02> for student,scholarship student ใช่ค่ะ(Chai ka)(yes mam)

<S 01> อ่าใช่(Ah Chai)(Ah yes)…I know, yeah I know [6sec]

[both are talking with their friends in their own language]

your name, you are miss?

<S 02> How much?

<S 01> your government

will pay

เหรอ(Rh*əə*)(right?)

your government, because

<S 02> yes government

directly paid,

(Pradaphon, 2016:136)

Translanguage: Internet.

The Internet is another major source of translanguaging as a natural form of communication. The examples *Yahoo Singapore* and *Yahoo Philippines* are open source platforms where people can share their views and reactions to various topics.

Discussing foreigners currently studying in the Philippines.

- Yes its a choice, ur ryt.... **Although my mga free schools tau for scholars**, still my **miscellaneous expenses din yan** My only point is regarding this article, dont focus on increasing numbers of foreign students but be proud if majority of the poor people are studying..... peace out people. just an opinion..... R u people graduated already????
- Translation:[*Although we have free books, still there are other miscellaneous expenses.*]

Singapore universities and junior college students discussing foreign students.

Bravo to William's comment.I fully agreed with you.they should pay the amount only rich foreigners can afford it. **Pay until they "lao sai"** (diarrhea)

why foreigner got so many 好康？ (grants)

why local pay full fees?

(see Deocampo, 2014:179 ss)

Conclusion

Translanguaging challenges the idea still popular in many parts of the world according to which non-native students have somehow deficient skills due to their lack of proficiency in their L2. It was this view that was behind the idea of students *only* using the target language in the classroom and the NS teacher was the preferred choice. This can create a feeling of exclusion or even failure because of students lack the skills that enable them to fully express themselves in the target language (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011). There are a number of reasons to advocate the use of translanguaging in the classroom depending on the context:

- the message of the teacher is more easily conveyed and understood by the students,
- students can communicated in any language in order to get their point across,
- an increase in student motivation,
- an increase in student participation in class discussion,
- brain-storming using different languages,
- make connections between words, in the Thai and English,
- reading in Thai and then writing the same story for example in English,
- translanguaging enables permeability between languages.

  (Cresse and Blackledge 2010).

This ability to use two or more languages to express meaning enables students to fully participate during lessons as they do not feel constrained by the disproportionate gap between the two languages (Park, 2013). This would involve creating an atmosphere where translanguaging

is accepted as the norm**.** 'Language and communication have come to be seen as part of a wider mobilization of semiotic resources. Languages start to be seen not so much in terms of systems as in terms of practices, as something we *do*, not as *an object* in the curriculum but as an *activity*' (italics in the original, Pennycook, 2014: 1-2). In terms of addressing learner participation in the classroom, the biggest challenge is the need to change the interactional structure of the lessons so that learners might play a more equal role in classroom discourse. In many Thai classroom interaction between teacher /student and student/student is often very limited. There is a need for more equal roles in which learners and teachers collaborate in the process of co-constructing meanings. It is also impossible to consider future challenges without acknowledging the place of technology in classroom discourse. The Thai government project to use 'tablet' applications in the primary school EFL classroom has been well documented (Vungthong et al 2015). Technology enhanced learning and the need to understand the ways in which technology through interaction, mediates learning are key changes for the future (Vungthong et al in press). Appreciating the centrality of classroom discourse using all the language resources available to both students and teachers in the future will help to maximize classroom talk, interaction and collaboration in the classroom in general but it is especially important in the EFL classroom (Walsh and Li 2016).

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A Conversational Analysis of Classroom Interactional Competence of Thai Students at a Tertiary Level

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Abstract

Conversational Analysis (CA) has an important role to play in classroom research together with English as a lingua franca. With the increased interaction between non-native and native speakers, this study focuses on a pilot study to find out how classroom interactional competence (CIC) works in our classrooms and to examine student-student interaction in a spoken language without teacher intervention.

Conversational analysis was used to examine student interactional competence in English. The participants were two different groups of Thai students who took a General English (GE) course at university. Data was transcribed and analyzed. The initial findings of the study are presented in this paper.

Keywords**:** *conversational analysis, classroom interactional competence, tertiary level, teacher intervention*

Background

The English language plays a crucial role in the national as well as international settings as a medium or a tool for communication among people from different countries and cultures. It has underscored the importance of developing English language communication ability for people willing to interact or communicate with our ASEAN neighbours and speakers of other languages. As a result, interaction in English as a lingua franca for communication has involved non-native speakers in everyday conversation occurrences global lingua franca (House, 2003). For these reasons, many Thai university students have high communication abilities but they have less opportunity to interact with other people. This may result in L2 opportunity for learning which is related to classroom interaction. Due to the fact that social interaction is necessary in the development of classroom interactional competence, it is crucial to understand the talk in interaction that Thai students typically experience at Thai universities, as well as their perceived learning needs.

This paper is concerned with student participation in terms of competencies in classroom interactions to enhance the ability of university students in Thailand and to develop spoken English. This is especially relevant for communication skills in the target language with regard to conversational analysis. To support high communication ability, and less chance to interact of Thai university students, the instructor needs to pay attention to English language teaching and learning focusing on classroom interactional competence (CIC). By understanding a classroom discourse, language teachers may improve the quality of their professional practice and thereby improve students' learning.

Interactional Competence

In the area of classroom interaction and language learning between the teacher and learners have been mostly discussed topics not only classroom research but also second language acquisition research (Wu, 1998) cited in Khamwan, 2007). There are three types of

classroom interaction: teacher-student, student-student, and student-text. Several researches on classroom interaction have much consideration on learners' spoken language on both the language learners' reaction to the teacher and their conversation with peer and interaction (Tsui cited in Carter& Nunan (2001)). This study emphasizes student-student conversation or interaction because it is one of the classroom discourse problems of EFL students who learn English but have less language interaction in their classrooms.

According to Sun (2014), "Interactional competence differs from communicative competence in its focus on interactions from a constructivist approach to the development of spoken English—they believe that conversational competence is co-constructed by speakers involved in the conversation." In this study, IC is not just the ability of an individual to use those assets in any of social associations but also the knowledge or the possession of an individual person, in co-constructed local nature of the language ability.

Co-construction is defined as — "the joint creation of a form, interpretation, stance, action, activity, identity, institution, skill, ideology, emotion, or other culturally meaningful reality (Jacoby & Ochs 1995, p.171)". Language knowledge towards interactional competence is "jointly co-created by all participants in interaction (He and Young 1998; Young 1999)". Therefore, the co-constructed means the process by speakers involved in the conversation.

Classroom Interactional Competence

The concept of classroom interactional competence (CIC) is defined by Walsh (2011) as "Teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (p.158). As mentioned above, this study focuses on student-student interactional competence to use interaction as a tool for conversation and language learning. The extract below shows CIC on the understanding of student-student interaction and learning opportunity.

In accordance with Walsh (2012) who studied the conceptualizing classroom interactional competence and examined the strategies open to both teachers and learners to enhance interaction opportunities for learning. He found that the key concepts of CIC for student-student interaction are turn-taking, repair, overlap and interruptions, and topic management.

Research Purpose

The researcher conducted two studies in May 2015 and January 2016 as a guideline to design classroom interaction to promote students' spoken language interaction at a tertiary level in Thailand. The purposes of these two studies were: a) to find out whether this method works or not b) to examine student-student interaction on spoken language without teacher intervention or / and teacher assistance. With a better understanding of classroom interaction processes, teachers may improve the quality of their teaching and thereby improve students' learning.

Research Questions

1. Does this the method of using classroom interactional competence work for Thai students at a tertiary level?
2. What are student-student interactions on spoken language without teacher intervention or / and teacher assistance?

Methodology

Selecting subject.

This study was employed as a purposive sampling. The samples were for the second of undergraduates at Srinakarinwirot University (SWU) in Thailand. They were groups of students enrolled in General English (GE): English for International Communication II (SWU124) which is an upper-intermediate level course wherein the teacher works with them. Samples were selected based on their SWU124 mid-term score. The researcher divided

students into groups consisting of 6 students each. This favored the characteristics of a mixed-ability class, (high, mid, and low abilities).

Procedure.

The study was conducted after a regular class. Groups of students were asked to stay and participate in a conversational activity for one topic. All groups got the same topic. By observing the same topic, the researcher was able to watch student-student spoken language interaction in the same direction and language use. The topic of tasks that students do during student-student interaction is the real world language use. The teacher was eliciting responses from the class about interesting places in Thailand**.**

The teacher asked students to sit in groups of six divided as per their SWU124 mid-term score. Then the teacher elicited responses from the class about interesting places in Thailand. The teacher gave students five minutes preparation before the interaction. Therefore, six students in one group with 5 minutes to prepare themselves should be enough for the information that they would provide the information.

Collecting data.

This study was conducted to gather the data on student-student spoken language interaction. The researcher used a tape recorder to record the classroom interaction for student-student spoken language interaction. The researcher asked students in each group to record the tape. After finishing recording, students sent the audio file to the research via Facebook message. This is because Facebook is one of the channels that the researcher uses to communicate with students. Students could also send the recording file to the research's personal e-mail ID.

Analyzing data.

The extract 1shows a group of non-native speaking English and non-major of English language course at a Thai university.

Extract 1

1. L1: What's wrong with you?
2. L2: I don't have anything to do this summer
3. L3: =do you want to go to shopping at Future Park=
4. L4: I don't think so. I think swimming is more interesting=
5. L5: then let's go to Maldives
6. L6: oh! it's so far and so expensive
7. L3: what's about Nepal
8. L6: do you go swimming at Nepal? Sure
9. L1: but I think Samui
10. L5: Pha Ngan
11. L2: Atlantic
12. L4: Krabi
13. L3: Phuket
14. L2: shut up! I want to go Kha Pha Ngan
15. L1: ok [
16. L5: [ok=
17. L6: =it's up to you
18. L1: let's do something fun
19. L3: I ever heard that full moon party is there
20. L5: there have a lots
21. L2: activities=
22. L5: =activities
23. L6: =there is a lot of foreigner. They is so perfect shape
24. L5: they have almost fun activities all night

25. LL ((Laugh some speak Thai))

26. L2: How do you go there

27. L1: by plane?

28. L6: no! It's so expensive I have no money

29. L4: why don't we walk

30. L2: walk [

31. L3: [walk but you're old more than walking

32. L6: Pha Ngan, walk (laughs)

(4)

33. L5: by van at victory monument. It's convince and (.) convince

34. L2: =ok! good idea. let's go, let's go

35. LL ((laugh))

This conversation illustrates the features learnt by students: different topic management (introducing topic, topic shift, and ending topic), adjacency pair such as greeting and conversation closings, turn-taking by using overlap, repair to clear any misunderstanding or mishearing, moving into leaving taking.

In this extract 1, it is possible to see that EFL students have a few mistakes during the conversation. This might be because these students were put at a high level ability of English. Students were asked to talk about interesting places in Thailand that they would like to suggest in line 3 the topic is launched with a question by L3 and an extended response by L4 in line 4. In line 5, L5 is making the point of interesting places but L6 tries to break down the sentence. L3 takes a step to repair the trouble which brings back L6 to move into the topic. As in line 29, L4 invites to check understanding. Line 9-13, L1, L5, L2, L4, L3 take turn to share ideas of the interesting places. Until L2 gets annoyed by saying shout up in line 14. At line 16, L5 echoes L1 as well as in line 21-22, L5 echoes L2. In line 26, L2 attempts

to shift the topic after all laugh and additional unbreakable in the overlapped confirmation by L3 in line 31.

Then the two students move in to closing by producing “by van at Victory monument. It’s convince and convince”. At line 34, after the uttering “ok good idea. let’s go. let’s go”, moves into leave-taking by L2.

According to the interactional competence confirmed in this extract, we can make sure about the interactional resources used and their impact on the overall flow and consistency of the discussion: topic management, adjacency pair, turn-taking and repair.

1. Topic management (introducing topic, topic shift, and ending topic), we can see that the introducing a topic of interesting places begins in line 5 by L5 to develop the discussion in which student attempts to switch the topic in line 14.
2. Adjacency pair such as an initial greeting and conversation closings.
3. Turn-taking, it is appeared that all six students manage the turn-taking very well and are able to keep the conversation continue with a few breakdowns in the conversation. Students wait for their turns to speak and avoid interrupting another person.
4. Repair, errors do occur in many ELF contexts where English is used as a lingua franca, students ignore errors sometime ‘let it pass’.

From this study, it is clear that with the purpose of enhancing learning opportunity, students should begin developing their own interactional competence. By adopting specific interactional features: topic management, adjacency pair, turn-taking and repair; which will initiate a more comprehensively understanding of learning practices in language classrooms, since students are in capacity to control turns, hold the floor, and make transition to the discussion.

Conclusion

The result shows that the students are capable to use English and they are able to interact without teacher assist. The results help in raising students' awareness of norm of spoken interaction and helping them to become more effective conversationalist. That is to create the classroom interactional competence and learning opportunity students need to improve their interactional strategies in terms of topic management, adjacency pair, turn-taking and repair respectively as the result from the extract 1.

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Writing Strategies Used in English Essay Writing of Thai Undergraduate Learners Majoring in English at Srinakharinwirot University

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Abstract

The research has shown that writing strategies play an important role in writing processes and writing quality. Many researchers claim that writing strategies are important because they primarily differentiate proficient from less proficient writers. This study was conducted to investigate the writing strategies employed by undergraduate students majoring in English at Srinakharinwirot University in Thailand. It specifically emphasizes the differences in the use of writing strategies between proficient and less proficient students, and the writing strategies employed in four different types of English essay writing: narrative, descriptive, cause and effect, and argumentative. The participants of the study consisted of 73third-year English major students; all enrolled in EN331- Composition 3 course. The main research instrument used for exploring the participants' writing strategies was the Writing Strategies Questionnaires. In order to triangulate across the data obtained from the questionnaire, a semi-structured interview was conducted after the completion of the questionnaire. The results revealed that the students used four main types of writing strategies at a high level; the most frequently use of the writing strategies fell into the Metacognitive strategies, while the least frequently use fell into the Cognitive strategies. Additionally, no significant difference was found in the use of writing strategies between the proficient and less proficient students. However, of all four strategies, the proficient students used writing strategies at a higher level than those of the less proficient students except for the Rhetorical strategies. Concerning the use of writing strategies in different types of essay writing, the analysis of students' journal entries the Metacognitive strategies were used the most in writing a narrative, cause and

effect and argumentative essays, but the students used the social / affective strategies the most in descriptive essay writing. Based on the findings, it is recommended that writing strategies the proficient students used, particularly Metacognitive strategies, should be integrated in EFL writing classes to help students in controlling their overall writing processes leading to their success in academic writing**.**

Key Words: *Writing strategies, Cognitive strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, Writing processes*

Background of the Study

In the light of the 21st century demand, writing is one of the most powerful means for communication. It is a powerful means to communicate precisely. Writing is not only a communicative tool, but also an essential part of learning, thinking and organizing knowledge in academic area (Brunning & Horn, 2000; Chen, 2002). Writing is also an essential skill in all EFL contexts, particularly in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes where students at higher education must master different writing genres essential for communicating in a university or other educational goals: assessing knowledge, promoting critical thinking, stimulating creativity, encouraging discourse as part of a professional community and supporting cognition (Bandura, 1993; Raphrael, Kirschner, & Englert, 1988 as cited in Hammann, 2005) Undergraduate and graduate students are frequently required to write academic papers and research projects. In addition, the demand of good writing ability is necessary for anyone to become successful in their future career as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) state that formal writing is essential in the workplace. Indeed, writing is very integral to students learning experience at university, for further studies and future career.

In Thailand, English has been taught as a foreign language, and the Ministry of Education of Thailand has established English as a compulsory subject in all educational levels from primary and secondary schools to a university level courses. The aim of learning

English is to provide learners with the four basic skills of English: listening, speaking, reading and writing to enable them to communicate for different purposes and in various situations (Ministry of Education, 1999). Mastering writing skills is the main concern in EAP setting similar to those countries learning English as a foreign language. However, during the past decades, English instructors at a university level have been questionable why Thai students could not learn to write successfully, and they have never mastered writing skills although they have studied and practiced writing for more than 10 years from schools before entering a university (Boonpattanaporn, 2008).

It is apparent that there is an emergent need for English writing instructors, curriculum developers and the Ministry of Education to critically think about this issue and find ways to increase students' English writing proficiency. Comparing to Asian and neighboring countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Vietnam or China, Thai students' English proficiency is ranked at a lower level. Therefore, Thai students need to improve their English writing ability. Theoretically, writing has been a difficult skill for EFL students to learn, and the development of EFL writing is a complicated process which involves various factors. Writing is a highly complex process involving cognitive and meta-cognitive activities including brainstorming, planning, outlining, organizing and revising (Flower & Hayes, 1987; Negari, 2011). Based on the process approach, writing is viewed as a recursive process and cynical nature which concerns planning, generating, translating, and editing (Flower & Hayes, 1981, 1987), as well as the demand for knowledge transforming (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). For EFL students, besides the complex process and meta-cognitive ability of writing, they encounter important aspects of writing, particularly, linguistic problems and rhetorical conventions different from their native language as Chen (2002) states:

> In their composition classes, we often observe students' struggling to transform thoughts into words and put them on paper. Students are confused with word usage, sentence structure, and are constrained by a shortage of vocabulary, alternative expression and cultural knowledge. They are limited to almost every level from lexical to syntactic, from pragmatic to social-cultural level (p. 59).

The excerpt above reveals students' problems in EFL writing context observed by EFL writing teachers. Mostly, EFL students face linguistic problems, as well as the complication of the writing processes.

. Numerous studies have pointed out factors affecting process of writing and writing proficiency. Angelova (1999 as cited in Sadi and Othman, 2012) states that factors affecting the process and product of ESL writing proficiency includes L1 writing competence, the use of cohesive devices, meta-cognitive knowledge related to the writing task, writing strategies and personal characteristics. Among those factors, many researchers agree that writing strategies seem particularly remarkable (Arndt, 1987; Beare, 2000; Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1982). It is claimed that writing strategies are important because they primarily differentiate successful from less successful writers. This corroborates with Sang Hee's finding noting that proficient learners used strategies in more flexible ways on writing task types, and focused more on global picture rather than details. In addition, according to Hsiao and Oxford (2002, as cited in Mu, 2005) writing strategies can "pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation" (p.372). Negari (2011) supports the use of explicit instruction of writing strategies, namely concept mapping to help EFL learners improve their writing performance. Sadi and Othman's study (2012) revealed the differences in employing certain writing strategies among EFL writers with different writing proficiency. Chien's study (2007) conducted with Chinese EFL college students majoring in English showed similarities and differences in writing strategies used by high-and low-achievers. High-achievers focused

on producing more texts, making meaning changes, and fixing grammatical and spelling errors while the low-achievers paid more attention to generating ideas, but would never write down in their papers.

In summary, an in-depth investigation of what strategies students use and how they use them in English writing may contribute to teaching and developing them to use writing strategies more effectively and help them become more effective writers. To the best knowledge of the researcher, a very few in-depth studies on EFL writing have been reported in writing strategies of Thai university students, majoring in English. Therefore, the main purpose of the present study was to investigate writing strategies used by undergraduates majoring in English in Srinakharinwnirot University, with a view at understanding similarities and differences of strategy use by proficient and less proficient student writers. The findings would also be useful pedagogical implications for a process-based approach of writing instruction in Thai EFL classroom and other similar contexts.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of the study were as follows

1. To investigate the writing strategies that students use in their English essay writing
2. To investigate the differences in using writing strategies by proficient and less proficient students
3. To investigate whether students' writing strategies vary in accordance with the types of essays, namely narrative, descriptive, cause and effect and argumentative that they engage in.

Research Questions

This research has been designed to answer the following research questions.

1. What writing strategies do the third-year English majors report using in writing

their essays in English?

2. Are there any significant differences among Thai EFL student writers, with different levels of writing proficiency level in relation with the number of writing strategies or strategy types?
3. Do students' writing strategies vary in accordance with a type of discourse features that they are engaged in?

Review of Related Literature

Process approach of writing instruction.

Many writing experts have reached the consensus that there are different processes writers go through in their writing process. Kroll (2001 as cited in Hasan & Akhand, 2010) emphasizes several stages of the writing process in which the writer needs to engage in while performing the writing tasks starting with drafting, receiving feedback on the first draft, revising stage before the writer completes the written products. Hedge (2000) draws a conclusion from the model of the writing process proposed by Flower and Hayes (1981) stating that writing is the result of using strategies to manage the composing process in which writers produce a text; writing, therefore, involves a number of activities: setting goals, generating ideas, organizing information, selecting appropriate language, making a draft, reading and reviewing, and revising and editing. These writing activities characterize the writing process. In short, process writing may be a more effective method of teaching writing as it helps student writers to focus on the process of creating text through various stages of generating ideas, drafting, revising and editing. (Hasan & Akhand , 2010).

Skilled and unskilled writers' writing behaviors and strategy use.

Many researchers and writing experts have supported Bereiter and Scardamalia's model (1987) concerning the differences between skilled and unskilled writers, both in ESL and EFL contexts. For example, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) argue that ESL skilled writers are

different from unskilled writers in terms of task difficulty. According to Grabe and Kaplan, skilled writers employ substantially different and more refined writing strategies than those unskilled writers. In addition, skilled writers pay more attention to content and rhetorical problems for difficult writing task than some other unskilled writers. Raimes' (1985) and Zamel (1983) state that L2 expert writers did more planning whereas novice writers tended to construct less global plans. While unskilled writers showed little planning behavior; they reread small elements of their written texts both before and during the drafting of their essays; their first draft tended to be the final one, and they had a very narrow conception of what writing comprises. Sasaki (2000) reported that EFL expert writers spent longer time planning overall organization in detail while unskilled writers did less global planning. The findings of the study by Chien (2008) agree with Sasaki's (2000) in explored writing strategy use in Chinese EFL students in relation to their achievement in English writing. The results showed that high-achieving student writers focused more on clearly formulating their position statement in planning, generating texts, and revising and editing such as making meaning changes, and fixing grammatical and spelling errors during reviewing. Xiu and Xiao (2004), investigating Chinese EFL students' writing strategies, found that skilled and unskilled writers showed differences in two writing strategies, namely organizing ideas and transcribing. The results from an analysis of the quantitative data in Gnuyen (2008) revealed that the successful writers not only generally used writing strategies more frequently but also made more frequent use of meta-cognitive, memory, compensation, and cognitive strategies than their less successful counterparts. A number of writing strategies which were most and least frequently used by the writers were identified. Regarding individual writing strategy use, the research found that the successful writers were different from the less successful ones in that they wrote more drafts, used editing strategies more frequently, and used a dictionary to check unsure things Recently, in the Thai EFL context, Boobpattanaporn (2008) conducted

a study of English essay writing strategies and difficulties as perceived by university students majoring in English in a private university. The findings showed that between high and low proficiency groups, there were significant differences at 0.05 level in all steps of the writing process. Very recently, Sadi and Othman (2012) examining Iranian EFL undergraduate learners, demonstrated that both good and poor students employed writing strategies in combination and in a recursive fashion, but the two groups found to be different in their strategy use in planning, drafting, and reviewing.

In short, both ESL and EFL studies on writing strategies use and writing performance of the skilled and unskilled writer have had the same conclusion. The proficient students or skilled writers employed a variety of writing strategies such as meta-cognitive strategies, memory, compensation, and cognitive strategies and they used these strategies more frequently than those of the less proficient students. While the skilled writers have had the global concerns on their writing tasks, and they revised their papers many times in all aspects of writing, the unskilled writers did not process these characteristics.

Taxonomies of writing strategies.

Many studies have attempted to investigate ESL / EFL writing strategies to provide useful guidance to ESL / EFL writing teachers. Mu (2005) and Mu and Carrington (2007) classified writing strategies in four main types including Rhetorical Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, and Social / Affective Strategies. In this study, the description of four main writing strategies are described based on Mu and Carrington's concepts (2007, p.7). First, Rhetorical Strategies have been defined as the strategies referred to as the strategies that students use to organize and to present their ideas in writing convention acceptable to native speakers of English including organizing strategies, cohesion strategies, and genre awareness. In addition, Cognitive Strategies refer to the strategies that students use to implement the actual writing performance including generating strategies,

revising strategies, self-questioning and imitating strategies. Meta-cognitive Strategies are strategies students use to control their writing process consisting of planning strategies, monitoring strategies and evaluating strategies. Finally, Social / Affective Strategies are referred to as the strategies students use to interact with others to clarify some questions and to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes in writing. The Social / Affective Strategies consist of appealing for clarification, getting feedback from teachers and friends, reducing anxiety, and drawing on previous experience.

Research Methodology

Participants and context of the study.

A total of 73 third-year English major students were purposively selected to participate in the study. The students are all Thai students taking the English composition courses in each semester of the whole 2012 academic year at Srinakharinwirot University located in Bangkok, Thailand. The reason for selecting the third-year English majors was that they enrolled in three composition courses which are compulsory subjects for students majoring in English. The composition courses consist of Basic Writing (EN 131), Composition 1 (EN231) and Composition 2 (EN331). These students therefore have some English writing skills and experience writing in English ranging from paragraph writing to the ability to write essays. It was assumed that these students have had some repertoire of language learning strategies, specifically writing strategies. Therefore, they could give rich information and data for the study. The study was also intended to examine whether there was any difference in the use of writing strategies between proficient and less proficient students, therefore, the criteria, the grade point average (GPA) and grades of the previous writing courses, for classifying the students were applied. The researcher asked for permission from the department and the students to report their grades anonymously.

Instrumentation.

The research instruments used to collect data consisted of Writing Strategies Questionnaire, semi-structured interview questions and journals. The following section details the instruments.

***Writing strategies questionnaire*.**

Writing Strategies Questionnaire was employed as the main research instrument to elicit writing strategies used by the third-year English major students in writing their essays. The questionnaire was developed by the researchers and adapted from the previous studies (Wenyu & Yang, 2008, Nguyen, 2009, O'Malley & Pierce, 2005, Sang-Hee, 2002, Oxford, 1990). There were four factors related to writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies, and Social / Affective Strategies (Mu, 2005; Mu & Carrington, 2008). The questionnaire was a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Never or almost never true of me, 2 = Usually not true of me (less than half of the time), 3 = Sometimes true of me (about half of the time), 4 = Usually true of me (more than half of the time), and 5 = Always or almost always true of me. The reliability of the Writing Strategies Questionnaire was checked by using the Cronbach alpha coefficient with an assistance of the SPSS after pilot testing with 33 third year English major students enrolling in the EN331-Composition 2 course. The results revealed that the reliability value was .90 showing that the questionnaire was reliable and obtaining the data.

***Interview questions*.**

The semi-structured interview was conducted to triangulate the data obtained from the questionnaire. The interview data would ensure the actual writing strategies reported from the questionnaire. Some items of the Writing Strategies Questionnaire were selected as interview questions and writing strategies employed in three main writing processes: pre-writing / planning, drafting / writing, and reviewing as well as four main writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies.

A guided journal.

To investigate whether students' writing strategies use of students varies in accordance with a type of essay writing, students in Composition 2 class consisting of 43 students were assigned to write a guided journal at the end of each class to reflect the practice in writing each type of essay which lasts for five weeks. Therefore, there were 172 journal entries in total. Journal entries were used to elicit reflective data on writing strategies employed in writing a narrative, descriptive, cause and effect and an argumentative essay, and allow students to write independently about their writing experience in writing classes. The guided questions in journal writing were derived from the literature (Chaya, 2005, 2010) and the students also described how any activities and strategies involving their writing tasks in the pre-writing stage, writing / drafting, and post-writing (revising).

Findings

Writing strategies used by English major students.

The main purpose of the study was to investigate writing strategies employed by the third-year English major students in writing their essays. Responses from the questionnaires were analyzed in terms of four main writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies, as well as, the individual strategies of writing strategies used in the processes of writing: pre-writing, drafting / writing (while-writing), and revising. The results revealed that the overall of writing strategies was at a high level. Also, the use for all the four main sub-categories of writing strategies was at a high level. Table 1 demonstrates a summary of four main categories of writing strategies use in essay writing.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations and Level of Writing Strategies Used by English Major Students in Writing Their Essays

Writing Strategies	English Major Students

	(*N* =73)		
	M	*S.D.*	Level
Rhetorical Strategies	3.55	0.40	High
Cognitive Strategies	3.54	0.44	High
Metacognitive Strategies	3.63	0.52	High
Social/Affective Strategies	3.55	0.45	High
Overall writing strategies	**3.57**	**0.38**	**High**

The results revealed that the overall mean of writing strategies is 3.57 and according to Oxford (1990) the mean is at a High Level (H). This showed that the overall use of writing strategies by the third-year English major students in writing classes was at a high level. In terms of four main categories of writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies, Social / Affective Strategies, the findings showed that the students used all four writing strategies at a high level when Meta-cognitive Strategies were used the most, followed by Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies.

Differences and level of writing strategies used by proficient and less proficient students in essay writing.

The second research question was aimed at investigating the differences in writing strategies use between proficient and less proficient of the third-year English major students when writing different types of essays. The data, obtained from the Writing Strategies Questionnaire reported by the proficient and less proficient students were analyzed and calculated for the mean scores and standard deviations. The mean scores of the self-ratings of each type were then compared to determine if they were statistically differences. The results were illustrated in Table 2

Table 2. The Overall Means, Standard Deviations, Mean Differences and Level of Use of Writing Strategies Used by Proficient and Less Proficient Students

Writing Strategies	Proficient Students (*N*=16)		Level	Less Proficient Students (*N*=16)		Level	t-value	p
	M	*SD*		*M*	*SD*			
Rhetorical Strategies	3.49	0.38	M	3.59	0.44	H	0.693	0.493
Cognitive Strategies	3.64	0.40	H	3.48	0.51	M	-0.948	0.351
Metacognitive Strategies	**3.70**	0.53	H	3.54	0.56	H	-0.864	0.394
Social/Affective Strategies	3.56	0.39	H	3.38	0.39	M	-1.315	0.198
Overall	3.60	0.37	H	3.50	0.41	H	-0.733	0.469

Table 2 shows that the proficient students used Meta-cognitive Strategies the most, and at the high level with the mean of 3.70, but they used the Rhetorical Strategies the least (*M* = 3.49) For the less proficient students, they used the Rhetorical Strategies the most and at the high level (*M* = 3.59) while the Social / Affective strategies were used the least at the moderate level (*M*= 3.38). Interestingly, the less proficient students used Rhetorical Strategies at the higher level than the proficient students. When comparing the differences in the use of four writing strategies between the two groups of students, no significant differences were found among those four main strategies at the .05 level when the proficient students reported the use of writing strategies at the higher level than those of the less proficient students except for the Rhetorical Strategies.

The proficient and less proficient students' writing strategies identified from the interview.

The researcher further analyzed the interview data so as to triangulate the data from the Writing Strategies Questionnaire reported by the proficient and less proficient students (16 proficient and 16 less proficient students). Five proficient and five less proficient were selected to participate in the interview session, lasted 15 minutes. The analysis of the interview data revealed similar findings to the results from the Writing Strategies Questionnaires. Table 3 summarizes the number of the proficient and less proficient students who reported the use of four types of writing strategies in their essay writing.

Table 3. The Use of Writing Strategies by the Proficient and Less Proficient Students Identified in the Interview

Writing strategies	Students			
	Proficient Students (n=5)		Less Proficient Students (n=5)	
	Use	No use	Use	No use
Rhetorical Strategies	3 (PS1,2,,5)	1 (PS2,3)	4 (LPS1,3,4,5)	1 (LPS2)
Cognitive Strategies	4 (PS2,3,4,5)	1 (PS1)	3 (LPS1-9)	2 (LPS1-9)
Meta-cognitive Strategies	5 (PS1,2,3,4,5)	-	3 (LPS2,3,4,5)	2 (LPS1)
Social / Affective Strategies	4 (PS1,3,4,5)	1 (PS2)	3 (LPS1,2,3,4)	2 (LPS5)

As presented in Table 3, the Rhetorical Strategies were identified in 3 proficient students, while four less proficient students reported the use of these strategies when writing their essays. In addition, the proficient students said that they frequently used Cognitive Strategies, four of them reported the use of these strategies, whereas, the less proficient students used Cognitive Strategies less frequently than the proficient students, three of them reported the use and two students said that they did not use the Cognitive Strategies. Moreover, the use of Meta-cognitive Strategies was reported in all five proficient students while three less proficient students said that they used Meta-cognitive Strategies. Finally, the Social / Affective Strategies were found in both groups, but the proficient students (4 of them) used these strategies whereas three less proficient students reported the use of these strategies in their writing.

The students' writing strategies identified in four types of essays.

To answer if the students' writing strategies vary in writing four different type of an essay: narrative, descriptive, cause and effect and argumentative, the students' journal entries were collected and analyzed descriptively. The researchers analyzed the content of the students' journals qualitatively using the coding scheme for identifying four main types of writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies (Mu and Carrington, 2007, p. 5) as well as sub-categories of each main strategy. The writing strategies identified in the students' journal entries were then grouped in according to the categorized and sub-categorized in the coding schemes. In addition, the researchers counted the writing strategies for the frequency, and calculated for the means and percentage. Table 4 presents the frequencies, means and percentage of four main writing strategies.

Table 4. The Frequency Mean and Percentage of Writing Strategies Use in Four Types of Students' Essays

Writing Strategies	Writing Strategies Identified in Four Types of Essays											
	Narrative (*N*=43)			Descriptive (*N*=43)			Cause & Effect (*N*=43)			Argumentative (*N*=43)		
	f	*M*	%	f	*M*	%	f	*M*	%	f	*M*	%
Rhetorical Strategies	204	4.74	23.82	183	4.26	20.75	205	4.77	23.70	218	5.06	23.12
Cognitive Strategies	196	4.56	22.79	229	5.33	25.96	204	4.74	23.58	238	5.54	25.24
Meta-cognitive Strategies	242	5.63	28.14	232	5.39	26.31	248	5.77	28.67	255	5.93	27.04
Social / Affective Strategies	218	5.07	25.35	238	5.53	26.98	208	4.84	24.05	232	5.40	24.60
Overall	860	20	100	882	20.51	100	865	20.12	100	943	21.93	100

As illustrated in Table 4, the results from the analysis of the students' journal entries revealed that the overall mean of writing strategies in all four types of essays, the students used the writing strategies the most frequently in an argumentative essay (*M*=21.93), followed by a descriptive essay, a cause and effect essay (*M*=20.12), and a narrative essay (*M*=20) respectively. Moreover, of all four types of essays, the students used Meta-cognitive Strategies the most frequently in writing an argumentative essay (*M*=5.93), followed by, cause and effect (*M*=5.77) a narrative, (*M*=5.63), except for a descriptive (*M*=5.39). In writing a descriptive essay in a descriptive essay the social / affective strategies were used the most (*M*=5.53). However, the rhetorical strategies were used at the lowest level in writing a descriptive essay.

Discussion

Discussion on writing strategies used by English major students.

The findings for the students' writing strategies use revealed that the students used four main types of the writing strategies: Rhetorical Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies in the high level. The findings of this study are in line with Baker and Bootkit's study (2004) in that the first two writing strategies

university level EFL students employed the most frequently were Meta-cognitive and Cognitive Startegies. Similarly, in Nguyen's investigation (2009), it was reported that both successful and less successful Vietnamese students employed the Meta-cognitive Strategies the most frequently in writing. Also, in Alharthi's study (2012), the results indicated that the Saudi EFL students engaged in Meta-cognitive Strategies while they were writing in the high level with an average of 3.54. The statistical result was also cross-checked by the qualitative data obtained from the interview.

The present study reveals that the Metacognitive Strategies were highly used by Thai EFL students and this finding was consistent with the prior studies discussed above. In O'Malley et al.'s conceptualization (1990) Meta-cognitive Strategies are referred to as higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity; they are applicable to a variety of learning tasks. They further describe that in the writing processes, three basic elements of Meta-cognitive Strategies (planning, monitoring, and evaluating) involve before, during and after the writing tasks. For example, in planning (pre-writing task) the writers plan to perform the writing task by setting the goal, setting the purpose, selecting the appropriate writing strategies, managing the time to complete the task and generating the ideas and information to include in the task. In the writing stage, they have to refer back to the prior knowledge related to what they are going to write (the topic). Finally, after they complete the writing task, they may have to self-evaluate the writing task and may need to go back to the first step, planning to revise the first draft of their written works. Through these writing processes, the Meta-cognitive Strategies were developed in student writers. Furthermore, Cohen (2003) argues that Meta-cognitive Strategies are vitally important in that they can help the writer to control or regulate their own writing process, and the Meat-cognitive Strategies can be used for solving the problems from the complexities and difficulties of writing. Also, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) suggest

that in developing the writer to write successfully on the process approach of writing instruction, it is necessary to develop their meta-cognitive mechanisms and equip them with the ability to be reflective and strategic as strategic writers. The students in this study also learned to write through a process-based approach. When they practiced writing and performed their own writing tasks in the pre-writing, drafting, revising, and writing their own essays, their meta-cognitive ability was developed through the writing processes.

Discussion on the writing strategies used by English the proficient and less proficient students.

The findings of the present study were consistent with the previous studies in that the successful students, the skilled writers, or the high achievers used writing strategies more frequently than the less successful students, unskilled writers or low achievers (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1996; Cohen, 1998; Baker and Boonkit, 2003; Chien, 2007; Nguyen, 2009; Alharthi, 2012; Zadi and Othman, 2012). The results of the study revealed that the proficient students used writing strategies more frequently than those of the less proficient students in three main strategies: Cognitive Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies and Social / Affective Strategies except for the Rhetorical Strategies. The analysis of the interview data also confirmed this finding; the proficient students reported the more frequent use of three main types of writing strategies than those of the less proficient. Similar to the results from the questionnaires, the less proficient students used more Rhetorical Strategies than the proficient students. In addition to the findings in the use of overall writing strategies, the proficient student writers also employed the Meta-cognitive Strategies the most frequently while the Rhetorical Strategies were the most frequent used writing strategies by the less proficient student writers. The results were also supported by the writing experts and scholars' arguments in that there were no significant differences between the proficient and less proficient learners in terms of the number of strategies use. (Flower and Hayes, 1981;

Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Sang-Hee, 2002). Alharthi, (2012) found that regarding the Meta-cognitive Strategies, the students reported the use of planning and evaluating strategies in their writing the most frequently although they reported that they planned for their introductions. This is in line with Zadi and Othman's study (2012) indicating that despite employing the writing strategies in combination and in a recursive fashion by both skilled and less skilled writers while writing their argumentative essay, there were differences between writing strategies used by two groups in planning, writing, and revising. Good writers tended to use planning strategies before starting the first draft, while writing the first draft and after they completed the first draft more frequently than the poor writers. That is, the good writers employed the sub-strategies of the Meta-cognitive Strategies: planning, monitoring, and evaluating together in their writing processes and in the recursive pattern. Additionally, the findings have been also confirmed by Flower and Hayes's arguments (1981) in that skilled writers apparently would develop more progress in meta-cognitive ability such as using writing strategies to taking a writing topic, performing in journal writing and self-monitoring problems. The skilled writers can be able to be aware of themselves as writers.

Discussion on writing strategies use in four types of students' essays.

The findings of overall writing strategy use revealed that of all four types of essays, the highest number of writing strategies was found in argumentative essay writing with the highest frequency followed by a descriptive essay, a cause and effect essay, and a narrative essay. Most importantly, the Meta-cognitive Strategies were used the most frequently in three types of essays, argumentative, cause and effect, and narrative except for in a descriptive essay; the result revealed that the students used the social / affective strategies the most frequently in writing a descriptive essay. Nevertheless, in a descriptive essay, the use of Meta-cognitive Strategies was ranked in the second order among four main writing strategies. Another explanation for this finding was that when the students were assigned to write a

guided journal as a reflection on practice writing each type of an essay, they responded to the guided questions in the journal. The questions were also used to encourage the students' Meta-cognitive Strategies Mashall (2003) also pointed out that "raising meta-cognitive strategies awareness can even be in the form of asking questions to talk about the process they go through in their heads when accomplishing a task (as cited in Dul, 2011, p.86). Thus, it is evident that the Meta-cognitive Strategies were employed the most frequently by the students.

Limitations of the Study

Although this research contributed preliminary insight to assist the writing instructors at the university level in EFL context, it is a classroom research, so it has limitations that were worth noted and might be addressed in the future studies. The most obvious is the use of the self-report questionnaire; the validity of the findings from the questionnaire depended on the participants' willingness to respond to each item of the questionnaire. The results may or may not be accurate description of how students act in real social situations. That is, the writing strategies revealed might not reveal the insightful results or actual writing strategies employed by the students. The researcher thus used the triangulated data by interviewing the proficient and less proficient students in the next stage of data collection. However, the findings can be partly generalized to the similar contexts. Also, the number of participants, as the respondents for the completion of the questionnaire, was not a great number to see the significant difference in the use of writing strategies, so the increase in the number of participants can contribute to the more profound results and the significant differences, particularly within the students with different proficiency level or English writing proficiency level. Moreover, the teaching period for each type of an essay lasted for five weeks. It was not reasonable for practice writing one type of written genre for college level, particularly in the process-based approach of writing instruction. In addition, it is widely accepted among

writing instructors that writing is time-consuming and needs to put effort to become successful writers; therefore, more time should be allocated for practice in the writing class.

Implications

In spite of the limitations, two aspects of implications: theoretical and pedagogical implications can be derived from the findings which might be beneficial to the writing instruction in similar EFL contexts.

Theoretical implications.

First of all, the proficient students employed more writing strategies than those of the less proficient group. The differences between the use of writing strategies in skilled writers and novice writers in terms of meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies were proved by Berreiter and Scardamalia (1987). The findings of the previous studies also indicated that engaging students in meta-cognitive strategies contributed to the development of meta-cognitive awareness leading to the improvement of their essay writing. Although the present study did not investigate the improvement in students' writing ability, it is beneficial for the writing teachers to propose the writing strategies that the skilled writers employed to the unskilled writers to facilitate the students' writing performance. The training of writing strategies used the most frequently by the proficient students can help the less proficient one to be high-motivated and self-confident to improve their difficult task such as writing in English.

In addition, the finding of the present study revealed that Meta-cognitive Strategies were used the most in different types of essays, so the enhancement of genre awareness in different types of discourse genre can be promoted altogether with the use of Meta-cognitive Strategies in student writers.

Furthermore, the findings of this study indicate that focusing on the processes of writing can help the EFL students' writing in many aspects. Therefore, in academic writing, the students should be engaged in many stages of the writing processes (Flower and Hayes, 1980, 1981; White and Arndt, 1991) including the pre-writing stage, drafting and revising. Thus, the students can practice writing through many stages and write many drafts of an essay to improve the writing quality.

Pedagogical implications.

Three aspects to improve EFL writing instruction are proposed as follows.

Firstly, the writing strategies used by the proficient students should be introduced to the less successful students since these strategies can help them adapt to the type of written discourse genre. In addition, to help student writers become autonomous, the teacher can adapt the writing strategies instruction and facilitate the writing strategies use together with the content and ideas as well as the rhetorical knowledge.

Secondly, in addition to the knowledge of written genre, it is essential to teach the different types of genres, so students can learn the important features and the purpose of each type of writing. Then they can plan to write effectively using the structural elements of each type of an essay.

Thirdly, the teacher should provide feedback and comments in teaching writing not only on the content and ideas, but also the linguistic errors because students can improve and revise their writing drafts effectively. Moreover, writing instructors should encourage the students to learn from their errors and should provide appropriate teaching techniques to help them to overcome their weaknesses. For example, since the errors in verb tenses, tenses, word choice, sentence structure were frequently found in students' essays therefore the focus of these errors in the classroom should be taken into account first. Instructors should provide

students with a list of English synonymous vocabulary and explain to them the usage of each piece of vocabulary.

Recommendation for Future Research

In the light of the implications and limitations mentioned in the previous sections, the present study suggests a number of directions for future studies aimed at the development of students' writing ability.

First, in the further studies, a long-term integrative writing strategies used of any type, specifically, the meta-cognitive strategy training should be conducted since the training can effectively enhance learners' writing strategies use leading to the improvement in their writing performance. Such research could provide profound insights into the field of writing instruction, particularly in EFL writing classes.

Moreover, further research should be conducted on particular effects of meta-cognitive strategies in relation to a particular type of written genre to have a better understanding of the uses and benefits of meta-cognitive strategies to writing instruction.

In addition, the study investigating the effect of the genre-approach in teaching writing that combines the process approach with meta-cognitive strategies instruction should be conducted to understand the genre product with the opportunity to plan, draft, revise, and edit work as well as the effect of training students in planning, monitoring and evaluating their written products.

Another interesting avenue for future research is to examine students' errors in another aspect such as the experimental study with a larger number of students with different proficiency level of English writing.

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Teaching English to Second Language Learners through Indigenous Literature in English

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Abstract

In learning English as a second language, the non-native learner is confronted with many difficulties besides the unavoidable interference of his mother tongue. He may face many linguistic and cultural barriers of understanding in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure, contextual response, cultural nuances, etc. which need to be addressed. The teaching-learning process that deals with the four skills of language namely listening, speaking, reading and writing must have a holistic approach that would lead to effective comprehension and the use of language. One of the effective modes of teaching English to the second language learner can be through the use of indigenous literature in English – the works produced by his own countrymen. Such literature can be used as an effective tool of teaching through a selective process. The course content could include different forms like the essay, short story, poem, etc. which reflect the local life and situations that would enable the learner to understand the contextual reality easily and quickly. The pedagogy of employing such literary pieces serves the learner to overcome his intimidation of the language since he would find the content familiar and intimate as opposed to the foreign and distant. He is less likely to suffer from the problems of comprehension like frustration, exasperation, etc. which may prove to be stumbling blocks in his learning process. The present paper attempts to explore how English can be taught to the second language learners of India through the use of indigenous literature in English. Two short stories, *A Devoted Son* by Anita Desai and *The Gold Frame* by R.K.

Laxman are taken for the study with a focus on how the common cultural background of the learner and the textual content facilitate the learning process.

Key words: *non-native learner, cultural barrier, indigenous literature, familiar content, contextual learning*

The learning of English as a second language (ESL) poses many difficulties to the non-native learner besides the unavoidable interference of his mother tongue. He may face many linguistic and cultural barriers of understanding in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure, contextual response, cultural variation, etc. The pedagogy of ESL should aim at addressing and eliminating these problems. The teaching-learning process that deals with the four skills of language namely listening, speaking, reading and writing must have a holistic approach that would lead to effective comprehension and the use of language.

One of the effective modes of teaching English to the second language learner can be through the use of indigenous literature in English – the works produced by his own countrymen. Such literature can be used as an effective tool of teaching through a selective process that would enable the learner to understand the contextual reality easily and grasp the language quickly. The pedagogy of employing such material serves the purpose of assisting the learner to overcome his intimidations since he would find the contents of the new language familiar and intimate as opposed to the foreign and distant. He is less likely to suffer from the problems of comprehension like frustration, exasperation, etc. which may prove to be stumbling blocks in his learning process.

The learning of English as a second language can be a better and fruitful experience when it happens through the use of literary forms authored by compatriots. The course content could include different forms like an essay, short story, poem, etc. which reflects the local life and situations. It would facilitate implicit learning by enabling the learner to overcome cultural barriers. It would make him connect with characters and relate to situations naturally. As literature provides variety, the learner would also be relieved of the monotony of learning the mechanics of language. As literature appeals to thoughts and emotions, it would indirectly contribute to the learning process by motivating him to learn more. Overall,

the learner would be benefitted by the enriching experience, resulting in his intellectual and emotional satisfaction.

It is generally believed that literary forms entail structural complexity that may hinder the learning process. But the arguments against this belief propose a careful selection of the material or content which would contribute substantially to the learner's knowledge. Ronald A. Carter and Michael N. Long (1991:2) have elaborated on the merits of including literature in the ESL courses. They propose three main models of literature teaching namely, the cultural model, the language model and the personal growth model, which are not mutually exclusive but embrace a distinct set of learning objectives. The first model highlights the understanding and appreciation of cultural variation in terms of tradition, heritage, ideology, etc. expressed in the texts; the second one emphasizes the learning of language in terms of syntax and vocabulary, while the third one refers to attaining maturity in language skills by engaging with the literary texts.

Advocating the idea of incorporating literature in the ESL curriculum, Howard Sage (1987:40) emphasizes the advantages of using short fiction, among others: "Fiction, as a rendering of people's dreams, actions, and words, may indeed have points of contact with conversational language." He says that short fiction imparts both pleasure and knowledge to the learners. He opines that it is more effective than those texts which quote brief or scanty dialogues and role plays that relate only to the created contexts that are limiting. He lists three important benefits of exploiting short fiction: it is brief; it is universal and most importantly, it boosts the cognitive analytical ability of learners. Sage also states that when applied to the ESL context, the old tradition of storytelling which involves listening and responding needs few devices or activities to make it a successful pedagogy.

In the light of these discussions, it may be proposed that the inclusion of indigenous English literature in the ESL curriculum would augment the learning process of the non-

natives. The present paper attempts to explore how English can be taught to the second language learners of India through the use of English literature produced by the locals; it makes a use of short fiction in particular since stories have a tremendous advantage of capturing one's imagination. Two short stories, *A Devoted Son* by Anita Desai and *The Gold Frame* by R.K. Laxman are taken for the study with a focus on how the common cultural background of the learner and the textual content facilitate the learning process.

According to Sage, when short fiction is used in the ESL pedagogy, the communication essentials must first be identified and worked out. He explains how the major aspects of short story like plot or structure, storyline or theme, character, language, etc. can be exploited for the purpose. It may be added that the pedagogy should include language activities that are based on the contents of the narratives with some definite or defined learning objectives for the students. The activities must be designed to enhance language skills and the knowledge of grammar. They should also review and assess the performance and progress of the learners.

Plot

Sage observes that the plot of the story chosen for the study should be inherently interesting. He adds that the quantity is less important than quality in the ESL pedagogy. In this sense, the stories should be simple with least complication of structure and should move towards a definite resolution.

The first short story taken for the study, *A Devoted Son*, is set in the familiar context of a lower middle class family in a small town. It deals mainly with the theme of generational difference as presented through the characters of Varma and his son Rakesh. The narrative revolves around the father-son relationship as Rakesh evolves from his humble beginnings as the son of illiterate parents. His intelligence and ambition help him to rise to be a successful doctor as he achieves name, fame and prosperity. Though he has the same unwavering

respect and devotion for his father over the years, these very values turn into points of difference between them. Varma finds his son's care a hard pill to swallow. The ageing and ailing father abhors the love and devotion of the "doctor" as his assiduous precautions and prompt medication translate into nothing but unavoidable pain and torture. Varma's failing faculties make him wish for death as a better alternative to the stringent diet of bland food and endless pills prescribed by Rakesh. Ultimately, he expresses his revolt in one powerful effort of brushing away the tonic bottle that inadvertently falls and breaks, soiling Rakesh's white trousers, the stains symbolising his flawed personal care as it is overtaken by his professional approach.

The second short story, *The Gold Frame*, is also about a lower middle class artisan living in a small town. The story pivots on the professional crisis in the life of Datta, the frame maker and owner of a small shop in a busy street. He is a seasoned man in his job, well acquainted with the psychology of his customers whom he can differentiate very well, as serious or not, regarding their work assigned to him. He comes into crisis when he inadvertently upsets a tin of paint when he is framing the photograph of an old man given by an ostentatious customer. The enamel spills over the photograph and ruins it. Shaken by the disaster and fearing revenge as the garrulous customer doted over the man in the photograph as his god, he prays to all the saints and gods in the pictures that surround him in his rickety, fragile, "inflammable shop." He is rescued by his own shrewd understanding of customer psychology and his astute perception. He finds a similar photograph from his collection, frames it, and passes it off as the original. As the customer turns out to be a mere sycophant who fails to recognize the duplicity as he is more interested in the frame as a showy mural, Datta is saved.

These two stories which are short and simple would easily engage the attention of the ESL learner as they are less likely to confuse or bore him or make him lose his interest. The

simplicity of their structure in terms of a single plot, brevity of action, a limited number of characters, single locale, etc. all of which pertain to the learner's ethnic and socio-cultural background would effectively contribute to his learning abilities. They would positively enhance his efforts of acquiring the language skills.

Storyline and theme

The storyline or theme plays an important role for the ESL learner as it holds his attention and acts as a catalyst in inspiring him to read more and aspire for more. The learner may be instructed to pre-read the story at least two times as it would effectively contribute to improve his level of comprehension and assist him in classroom activities.

The theme of the *A Devoted Son* emerges from the cultural contexts familiar to the non-native learner. He is able to understand the celebrations with "garlands and halwa" (flowers and sweets) upon Rakesh's success in the medical examination and also the sarcasm of the visitors at Varma's "airs" and the cheap sweets served to them on this special occasion. The learner can also easily understand the concept of arranged marriage when Rakesh's mother chooses his bride, as also his unquestioning acceptance of the same as a dutiful son. The learner can also grasp the undercurrents that exist in the joint family as visible in the behaviour of the daughter-in-law when Varma is old and bedridden. He can also comprehend the socio-cultural values that are represented in Rakesh's manners and behaviour towards his father despite his busy schedule – his unfailing attention to the ageing man's daily needs, his taking personal care of him in his sickness, etc. Thus the familiarity of the content or subject matter in all its contexts makes it a useful study material to the non-native learner.

The Gold Frame also presents familiar cultural contexts that enhance the comprehension of the non-native learner. He is familiar with the tradition of hanging pictures of ancestors and gods as customary accessories in Indian households. He understands the respect accorded to the deceased by equating them to gods as well as their emotional

investment in worshipping them. The learner also knows the Indian mentality of praying to numerous gods in times of calamity, as does Datta. Most importantly, he can comprehend Datta's anxiety and fear of the customer's political clout which is suggestive of his professional suicide if the fraud is detected. Aware of the mob mentality of small towns, the learner understands Datta's worry that his shop may be burnt down and even easily hushed up. Thus, the storyline makes the learner connect the events of the story with those that are happening around him, proving it to be constructive study material.

The merits of using a story that deals with local life and culture are immense as the language skills of the learner are honed inherently and naturally. Such study material would retain the interest of the learner and motivate him to learn and absorb more. As the storyline relates to the lived or seen experience in terms of recognizable socio-cultural situations and vocabulary, the learner finds it stimulating and interesting. Contrarily, if it is a story written by a foreign author about foreign characters living in foreign lands, the learner would be disadvantaged due to the socio-cultural gaps in understanding or responding.

The classroom activities for ESL learners can include language exercises based on the content of these short stories as they are familiar material to them. The learner may be given tasks like reading aloud, narrating a part of the story that he enjoyed most in his own words, identifying key words that highlight the theme of the story, sharing an experience similar to the situations in the story, writing the summary in a few lines, expanding the story and so on which would make a lasting impact in his learning and retention.

Characters

The characters of a story provide as a significant communication essential for the ESL learner. The characters of the selected short stories are familiar men and women, in terms internal factors like ideologies, interests, attitudes, etc. and external factors like family setup, occupation, society, class, culture, religion or caste, and so on. They belong to more or less

the same geographical territory as the learner with the same ethnic and political background. The learner would therefore readily connect with the lives of the characters and even sympathize with their situation. This process of imaginatively involving himself with their vicissitudes and his empathetic experience would open up many possibilities of enabling his language abilities.

The protagonist Rakesh in *A Devoted Son* is a prototype of the kind of son parents aspire to have – loving, obedient, heeding, caring and dutiful. He adheres to the tradition of revering his elders though he rises to be a famous surgeon. The learner can easily relate to Rakesh's situation as he is a part of his own milieu, functioning within the paradigm of same values. When the ageing and sick Varma is victimized by his son's restrictions and prescriptions, and turns eccentric, the behaviour of all other characters towards him is again a familiar enactment of situations in a joint family typically observed in India. For instance, Veena who obeys her husband in feeding her father-in-law with dietetic dishes turns a deaf ear to his desire for good food. She is also insensitive to his irritation of the loud film music playing on her radio all day. The servants, who obey Rakesh in carrying old Varma outside the house regularly for fresh air, handle him roughly with violent, painful movements. None of them shares the son's love or respect for his father.

Datta, the main character in *The Gold Frame* represents the common man of India. He is a hard-working artisan devoted to his work. He is silent and reserved and dislikes the idle talk of casual friends who visit him. These friends too represent a section of people who are gossip mongers and indulge in such unhealthy and destructive pastime. The portrayal of the customer can also be recognized as a representation of the characteristic braggart who is pompous and superficial.

These characters and situations that come out of the learner's own background reinforce his learning abilities. Each character would relate to someone of the learner's circle

of acquaintances; his responses to situations could be easily understood due to the common cultural background. This is a real advantage to the ESL student as opposed to his study of foreign characters with difficult or unpronounceable names, situated in alien or unfamiliar cultural milieu.

The language exercises could include drawing character sketches, identifying the character type, role playing, comparative analysis of characters through discussion or debate, etc. that would contribute to skill enhancement of the learner.

Language

Language is an important communication essential and a vital tool for the ESL student. The language of the short story would most probably be the Indian dialect strewn with non-English words. Nevertheless, despite the popular nation that it might present a sub-standard variety, there is a considerable amount of quality short fiction available in Indian Writing in English which would suit and serve the purpose of the ESL student.

The language of the short story incorporates the narrative style or point of view, sentence structure, vocabulary, idioms and phrases, collocations, imagery, etc. The functioning of these essential elements that are built into the narratives prove to be useful guides to the learner.

The third person omniscient style of narration in *A Devoted Son* and *The Gold Frame* allows the learner to listen to views of multiple characters in their own voice. It lends an objective vision of each character and his affairs of life to the learner as he is introduced to Rakesh, Veena, Varma, etc. in the first story and Datta and his customer in the second. The grammatical elements like sentence structure, voice, speech, etc. that emerge through the story would be incorporated in his learning process in a natural manner. The same holds true for vocabulary, phrases, collocations, imagery, etc. which would be easily understood in the

contextual reality of their use in the narratives rather than as standalone elements. The opening paragraph of The *Gold Frame* would serve as a good example to highlight this point:

> The Modern Frame Works was actually an extra-large wooden packaging case mounted on wobbly legs tucked in a gap between a drug store and a radio repair a shop. Its owner, Datta, with his concave figure, silver-rimmed glasses and a complexion of seasoned timbre, fitted into his shop with the harmony of a fixture. (Chaskar et al: 22)

Expressions like 'mounted on,' 'tucked in,' 'fitted into,' 'with the harmony of' – are phrases or collocations that are naturally reinforced into the learner's memory due to their relation/ connection with a specific part of the story. The graphic description of the familiar Indian scenario of a 'dabba shop' found in small streets would again enrich the learner's vocabulary naturally.

The non-English-/ Indian words that occur in the stories, like *dhoti, sari, halwa, kheer, Mubarak*, etc. not only endear the learner by their familiarity and clarity but also serve in understanding and appreciating the connotations. The imagery used in the stories serves as an effective tool of communication because of the implications and associations stemming from the learner's socio-cultural background. Symbolism through metaphor, recurring motifs, figurative expressions, idioms, sounds, parallels and contrasts, etc. presented in the short stories serve the important purpose reinforcing the message of the texts through familiar connotations that speak volumes. e.g.: the sepia-brown photographs or portraits of old gentlemen sporting whiskers and "top-heavy cascading turban" in *The Gold Frame* or Varma's habit of spewing a "gob of red spittle" in *A Devoted Son*.

Language exercises based on these short stories like construction of dialogues relating to situational contexts, role playing with proper stress and intonation, playing word games

built on the textual content, etc. in addition to the routine exercises of grammar would greatly enhance the abilities or skills of the learner.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it may be stated that the ESL learner's study of language through indigenous literature facilitates and accelerates the process of learning as it provides a content-based context with which he is familiar. He is armed with a perspective rather than studying in vacuity. The storyline or theme evokes associations that strengthen his capacity for retention; the setting, characters and situations facilitate his progress due to their familiarity. This is a definite advantage to the learner since he is spared from studying fragments or stray, isolated pieces of foreign origin, presenting situations of an alien society or culture. While such literature would hamper his comprehension and hinder his progress, the works in English produced by the locals would substantially fulfil his objectives of learning.

Once the learner moves from the elementary or basic level to the advanced level, his knowledge of language would help him admire and appreciate its aesthetic beauty. Once the basic skills are mastered, it could even pave way and provide the means for creative expression.

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Language Teaching through Project, Process and Performance

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Abstract

This paper discusses some current approaches to English Language Teaching as a foreign language based on experience and pedagogical theory. I will begin with a discussion of pedagogical theory because, as renowned pedagogue and scholar, Paolo Freire (2000) teaches, practice is informed by theory, and theory is informed by practice (p. 125). This means that there is no precise or literal translation of a theory into a practice. Our experience and environment require that we modify and re-create a theory to meet the needs of our situation and our students. The theory I wish to review before I discuss it in practice is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). As many readers are already familiar with this theory and approach, I will be brief. For more details about CLT, Jack C. Richards (2006) provides an excellent discussion of it in his book, *Communicative Language Teaching Today*.

Key words*: *English Language Teaching (ELL, EFL), Second Language (L2), First Language (L1), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Process Based Learning and Teaching, Project Based Learning and Teaching,

Review of the Major Movements and Principles of CLT

- Introduced in 1970's for an ESL teaching environment.
- Often described as an anti-grammar teaching approach.
- Encourages and enables the language learner to communicate effectively in the L2. This means

effectively, but not necessarily correctly or beautifully.

- Known as a teaching approach focusing on oral communication using "authentic" language for both input and output.
- Often assumed to require a native speaker of the L2 to be the instructor of the course.
- Introduced to an EFL teaching environment in the 1980's.
- Is an often misunderstood teaching approach and is often mismatched with other teaching approaches such as Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) and Audio-lingualism.

As we know, many students struggle to speak in the target language, even after 10 to 12 years of English courses from primary through secondary school. Moreover, many students struggle to say even the simplest things such as "How are you today?" or answer simple daily conversation questions like "What are you doing?" or "Where are you going?" If they hear a more colloquial version of one of these questions such as "Where are you off to?" or "What are you up to?" many of these students are paralyzed into silence. This is the unfortunate result of a grammar based curriculum and pedagogy for English, with very little, if any communicative, or verbal performance practice in the target language.

A major tenet of CLT is fluency in the target language, which some assume means "instead of" accuracy. This is an incorrect assumption, however. Accuracy is addressed during the process toward effective communicative performance.

What Does CLT Look Like in the Classroom?

Most of us have already used the CLT method. Many of the Conversation, or English for Professions textbooks are designed using the CLT approach. However, textbooks with the following content patterns use the methods of Grammar-Translation and / or Audio-lingualism:

- vocabulary lists

- grammar structures and exercises with L1 explanations and translations
- model dialogue
- listening to model dialogue spoken by native speakers of the L2
- drill and memorize model dialogue
- practice model dialogue to correct pronunciation
- take quizzes and tests in which student produces accurate sentences, and / or recreates accurately the model dialogue.

These textbooks tend to be very scripted with dialogue that is very formal and restrictive and each unit or lesson is designed around a grammatical structure and not around authentic, natural, or relevant communication patterns that the student might encounter or need in his or her life or profession. Speaking exercises are centered around memorization of patterns and phrases with an emphasis on correct pronunciation and not on natural conversational patterns.

The CLT approach, on the other hand, relies on a topic, a text, a project or a specific content to develop fluency by providing content focused models presented via instructor, video, audio, or text. Then, the relevant vocabulary and structures for the lesson would be covered in the context of the materials provided and based on student need, and not on pre-determined grammatical structures or vocabulary lists. Vocabulary and Grammar are taught or explained inductively, or through context and not deductively or with the L1. Communication tasks would require students to produce language based on the contents and materials provided in the form of interpretation, discussion, reflection, re-creation, or role-play. This work is mostly done in a student-centered classroom environment with students

working in pairs and groups. Accuracy (i.e., grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary) has a supplemental role and is used to help support fluency development. The focus of the lesson, however, must be on the student's output, or the student producing his or her own sentences in the target language by imitating and re-creating the patterns and structures modeled in the lessons.

CLT does not rely on traditional tests and quizzes to assess competency, instead evaluation is conducted via interviews, tasks, projects, or role-play activities. Because grammar and vocabulary are not at the forefront of a lesson plan, or prominent in the assessment process, many people assume CLT is an anti-grammar approach and will lead to students developing bad habits in the L2. This is an inaccurate and a grammar-centric assumption. Let us remember how we became fluent speakers of our native language. Our parents did not make us sit and hammer out grammatically correct sentences for hours at a time, nor did they make us repeat phrases over and over again until we memorized them and mastered the proper pronunciation. No, we simply imitated what we heard and were guided and corrected as we developed skill in producing our first words, then phrases, then sentences. I can still remember the first time my son produced his own sentence using the simple past tense form *ed* with the verb run. *Runned* is obviously incorrect, but his "accurate" application of that grammatical rule was impressive. I gently corrected him by saying, "oh, you *ran*…." He never made that mistake with that verb again. Learning structure and form is a slow process requiring practice, but it also requires motivation, or the desire to be understood when communicating. For these reasons, it is best taught in the process of producing an utterance, or during natural and authentic language performance.

In classroom practice, CLT has many curriculum design approaches, but I will focus on the two most notable here:

1. Process Based Approaches

1.1. Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

1.2. Task-Based Instruction (TBI)

2. Product Based Approaches

2.1. Text-Based Instruction (TBI)

2.2. Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT)

Examples of Process Based CBI.

In pairs or groups

- Role-play activities
- Word matching
- Script or dialogue creation for a specific context

The first example of the CBI process based approaches is bilingual schools that teach subjects like Math, Science and History in English as a way of re-creating a language immersion environment. Students must acquire skills in the L2 in order to master the content. The other is the English for Professions, or EFP courses such as English for Aviation, Tourism and Hospitality, Medicine, Dentistry, etc., which focus on vocabulary, speaking, and writing patterns that the students will encounter in their professions.

However, and this is a really important point, CBI does not have to be the approach that dictates an entire term of a course in English.

Here is where re-creating pedagogical theory is very important. For example, I teach courses for English majors who must master or acquire fluency in all four skills of English. The students spend four years taking courses that are scaffolded according to levels

of acquisition, such as the first year course, Foundations of English, and the fourth year course, Advanced Intermediate English in which they tackle Academic English in Academic settings such as research based writing and presentations.

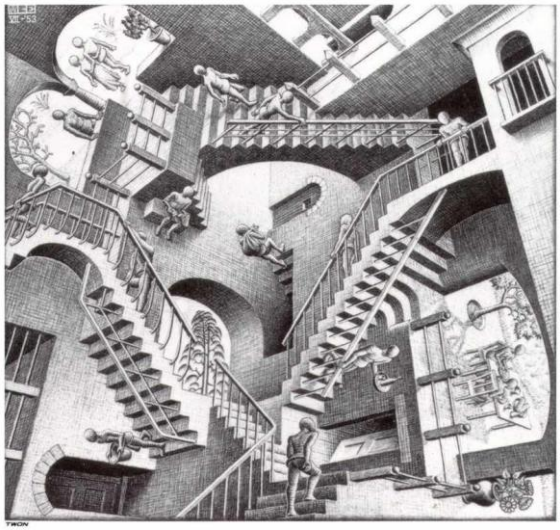
One example of CBI that I have used in courses with the English majors are content based projects such as producing a board game for English language learners at different acquisition levels, or creating a guided tour to a less touristy location in Thailand and then present it as if to tourists at a hotel concierge desk. The completion of these projects requires a process of exploring the topic, then re-creating their own based on models, and ending with a presentation of their work.

For example, for the board game project, the student begins by playing actual board games like Monopoly, Sorry, Trouble, etc. to study the models and themes of board games. The students must then create problems, questions, and missions for their board game that can help develop all four skills in English. Finally, the games are presented to the class and are played by the students and assessed for qualities such as accuracy, difficulty, engaging, entertaining, etc. The project is assigned twice in the term, once for the mid-term and again for the final. The board games the students created then become study tools for their tests and quizzes. I encourage students to come to my office and play these board games as a review and practice tool. Many studies have shown that using games to help students learn a subject is highly effective, and potentially more effective as a study aid than other review techniques.

Example of Process Based TBI.

In pairs or groups

- Fortune Teller role-play:
- Describe a painting for partner to re-create.
- Video Journal interviews in which students respond to and reflect on a print or video story, news report, play, commercial, etc.



A task-based approach is a unit friendly approach to classroom activities. These tasks can take 10 to 30 minutes of class time and are usually done at the end of a lesson or unit in which vocabulary and structure are presented via reading and listening activities. A communicative task can be created for any unit or topic from a textbook or syllabus. These tasks do require process and performance, and also can be part of a term long project.

The examples of TBI listed here are based on the units in an intermediate 4 skills textbook. A role-play activity can be created for any topic or content and it can be a short in-class practice activity, or it can be assigned as a project requiring students to engage in a process of studying a model, to re-creating it, to performing it, and ending with a group or self-evaluation of the performance. Some examples of role play tasks include hotel check-in, restaurant ordering, job interviews, introductions for formal and informal events, greeting new acquaintances and old friends, etc. The tasks listed here are focused on speaking, but tasks also can focus on listening and writing.

For example, I have assigned students to

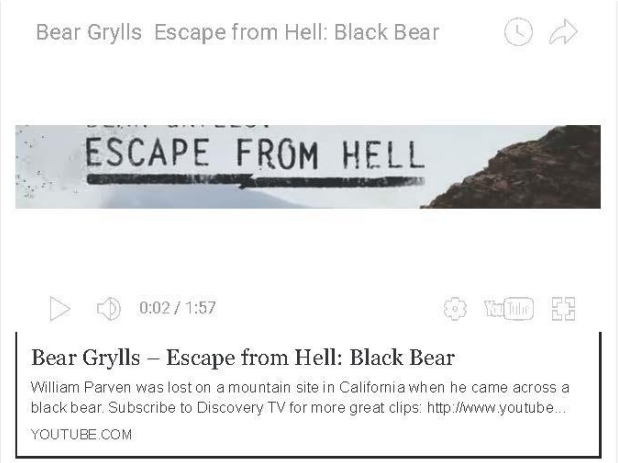
listen to a short news report and post a video journal to my Facebook fan page that I created for use in teaching. The journals are done in small groups and in interview format. So, one student asks the assigned questions about the news story and the other members provide detailed answers. The video journals can be reflective responses to a listening activity or to a reading activity. The video journal response also can be complimented by written responses. Below is an example of a video journal assignment:

Video Journal #1: How to Survive a Bear!

(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zKzfXKx5AJI)

Watch the video clip of a Bear Grylls Survival show and then answer the following questions in an interview.

1. What was the danger 16 year old William Parven faced?
2. Where is Bear Grylls when he deliberately gets too close to a bear?
3. What is the first advice Bear gives when facing a bear?
4. What does William Parven say he did when he first saw the bear?
5. What does Bear say might happen if you play dead?
6. What is the final advice Bear gives and the thing that William Parven did that saved his life?



In addition, I have assigned my students to re-create a one-act play which began with viewing a high school production of a play posted on YouTube, followed by a video journal answering questions about the play, and ended with the students performing their own re-

creation of a one-act play for the class. This activity took a couple of weeks of study, design, practice and ended with a classroom performance.

Examples of Product Based TBI.

- Writing Courses in which students create a text based on a model.
- Presentation activities based on a template.
- Scripted dialogue or speaking patterns for specific context such as in the case of Airline Host or telemarketing jobs

The next group of approaches focuses more on a product rather than a process. However, as you can see from the list of activities above, there are many similarities between the Process Based, Task-Based approaches and the Product Based, Text-Based approaches. As I have mentioned before, these approaches to teaching do not have to be viewed as isolated approaches and activities. We do not need to adopt one approach and follow it loyally throughout every course, unit, lesson and activity. The best teaching happens when students are being asked to produce the L2 through multiple and diverse activities.

The text based approach differs from task based in that the project, lesson, or activity originates and culminates in a text. However, process based approaches also must begin with a text and students must be provided with background and models in order to study and explore the language patterns and vocabulary within a context. The idea here is that students learn language in a context rather than in isolation of a communicative context.

Examples of Product Based CBLT.

- Scripted Dialogue structures for daily life
- Basic and fundamental structures for writing and speaking such as simple instructions, directions, or descriptions of products, etc.
- Simple and predictable dialogue structures and patterns.
- Practice and drill of simple dialogue structures and patterns

- Activities focus on accuracy and memorization of patterns in early stages of L2 acquisition.

The CBLT approach presented above maybe very familiar to many readers because it has been widely adopted throughout Thailand in English Programs at both public and private schools. This approach has a more narrowly defined goal and, as a result, focuses on building competence in the L2 through practice and drill in a limited selection of daily communicative encounters such as greetings and introductions, giving and asking for directions, filling out applications, or forms, writing simple notes, e-mails, and messages, and reading manuals, brochures, instructions, tests, etc. Often this approach becomes more focused on test taking skills for the IELTS or TOEIC. Unfortunately, this approach reduces language learning to limited lists, dialogue patterns and structures. Communicative competency among students exposed to this approach would not be sufficient for working in an English-only environment or for surviving at an English-only university. These learners may only be competent enough to vacation abroad, or work in the low-skilled service sector.

However, as an approach for beginning levels of language acquisition providing students with opportunities to interact communicatively and produce the L2, CBLT can be very practical. It also is effective for students with low motivation or poor speaking skills as it can build confidence in producing the L2 through patterns that are easy to remember and practice. Indeed, providing students with dialogue patterns and formulas such as the scripted dialogues found in many textbooks and using them for role-play activities is a good way to get a student to begin communicating. After the student has built confidence, he or she will begin to try communicating outside the patterns and formulas. It provides a stepping off point for the beginner, the student with low motivation, or with little self-confidence in the L2.

Communicative Language Teaching through Project, Process, Performance

- Process approaches +
- Project based teaching +
- Performance =
- An interactive and communicative learning environment

What I have observed as an English teacher for both native and non-native students is that students learn well when they are engaged with the subject of the course over the entire term, whether it is a skill to be mastered or information to be learned. Projects that require research and study, process and revision, ending with presentation and reflection will produce more learning than the traditional teacher fronted lecture classrooms with short isolated and autonomous lessons, culminating in multiple choice tests.

Combining these approaches has resulted in a more interactive and engaged classroom environment. When students are both physically and intellectually engaged in the work, they learn more effectively. Process Based focuses on the process and not on the final product, and grades are focused heavily on the process of drafting, review and revision work rather than the final product submitted to the teacher. Participation in the process is also weighted heavily in the final grade. Accuracy is addressed in the context of individual student work and in the process of re-visioning a text to improve it holistically. Project Based is a close relative of the process approach. Project Based learning emphasizes practical experience in learning. Students work in groups and are given a topic or problem that they must research to find information about, work together to develop a solution, and, finally, present their solution or report to the class, usually after several weeks or months of planning, developing, revising, and practicing. Performance is a form of product except that it is interactive and communicative. Students do not simply submit a text or report, they must orally present their work, whether it is a report of research, or a re-creation of a skit, play, or dialogue.

Recommendations

It is important, however, to note that not all methods and approaches will be complimentary with CLT. The project, process and performance methods work well because they are based on the same principle that the best learning happens in an environment where students are actively engaged in the process of discovery. They are all student-centered methods that draw heavily from student interest and existing knowledge. The teacher's role is as a facilitator of the learning process.

Some recommendations for getting started with an effective combination of approaches that are student-centered and process oriented for an EFL course are as follows:

- Assign projects and tasks that require students to study models and re-create patterns and structures in their own work.
- Use process approach to tasks and projects so they include steps toward communicative fluency and accuracy.
- Use accuracy to enhance and develop fluency. Check student's performance scripts for accuracy. Correct pronunciation during reading and practice activities.
- Use class time for interactive communication activities whether reading out loud, role-play, interview, games, or evaluation of their own work.
- Discreet autonomous exercises like reading, grammar and vocabulary practice should be homework.

If a teacher tries to combine CLT approaches with teacher-centered, product focused, or discreet skill oriented approaches, the result is likely to be counterproductive. Unfortunately, teachers are faced with such conflicts quite often. As the following list of problems discussed in recent research demonstrates, CLT has not been quite as effective in the EFL environment as it has been in the ESL environment.

- Teachers lack training in CLT approaches

- Students expect grammar and structure as well as traditional teacher fronted classrooms
- Curriculum, tests, and textbooks do not support a CLT approach.
- Teacher bias and not training influences classroom practice.

(Al Asmari, 2015; Belchamber, 2007; Hos & Kekec, 2014; Wyatt, 2009)

It is true that many of our EFL classrooms incorporate many elements of the CLT approaches, but it too often fails to be effective. This is often a result of the mismatching of teaching approaches. For example, when assessment emphasizes the memorization of discreet elements of a language, or when the language study itself is treated like an intellectual activity rather than the acquisition of communication skills, then CLT activities become irrelevant in the mind of the students. This will affect the motivation of the students; that is, they will be motivated to memorize discreet elements, but not to practice communication activities in the language.

I have found myself confronted with conflicting goals in my own teaching when the mid-term and final exams represent 50 to 75% of a student's term grade and are based on multiple-choice questions, focusing on the vocabulary, grammar structures, and reading comprehension activities and lessons from the textbook. How can I spend 80% of class time on student-centered communicative activities if it means my students are not prepared for the material on the test?

I have concluded that the primary problem English programs and teachers face is an over reliance on the textbooks for course content, tests, and activities. I strongly recommend that textbooks be considered as supplemental material for the student to use at home for practice and homework exercises. Most language textbooks suggest this approach, and yet, I see many teachers looking to the textbooks for every activity, exercise and lesson for their classrooms time. We must have more faith in our ability to present the material in a

meaningful and productive way for our students. We must base assessments on the material covered and mastered by the students, and not base them on the whole of material provided in a textbook. We must try to design activities and projects that connect our student with the language. This means considering the student's motivation to learn the language and the student's existing knowledge and experience of the language.

When the course curriculum is designed and controlled by me, I use an assessment method based on projects, process and student performance instead of on their ability to memorize structures, words and patterns. For example, I conduct open ended interview questions, assign in-class timed writing activities, use essay or short answer instead of close-ended multiple choice questions, etc. Yes, this can mean more time spent grading, but I also place more weight on the work students do in-class during the term rather than on the midterm and final tests. I might weigh projects and performances as 75% of the grade while tests weigh only 25% of the grade. As a result, I can assign fewer questions on the midterm and final and make them shorter and easier to review and grade. In this way I can focus the students' energy on the projects, the process of studying the language, and on their communicative performance.

I hope this discussion is both helpful and inspiring. If you are interested in viewing more examples and ideas for your EFL classroom, you can visit my Facebook™ fan page at Dr. Rebecca Webb.

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Developing Thai Learners' Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) through Translanguaging in EFL classrooms

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Abstract

This article presents a conceptual paper proposing a concept of employing translanguaging as a pedagogical tool to promote learners' CIC – Classroom Interactional Competence, which lies at the heart of learning. The aim of the concept is to valuably bridge two practices of monolingualism between Thai teachers who teach English through Thai and native speakers who only use English only. Translanguaging reflects reality in terms of using both languages to interact to improve the interactional competence of the learners. When both the teachers and the learners translanguage in the classroom, 'translanguaging space' is established. This means boundary lines of the two languages are blurred and become so permeable that the learners are able to step in the space and utilize it to make their own 'space of learning' through interactions with teachers. This concept implies that the more the learners interact with the teachers, the more they learn English lessons. Thus, if the learners' CIC develops in translanguaging classroom context, it can be argued that translanguaging promotes Thai learners' CIC, which is seen the same thing as the progress of learning. The paper discusses background and significance of translanguaging and CIC as well as demonstrates the practice of translanguaging in an EFL classroom to develop learners' CIC.

Key words: translanguaging, CIC (Classroom Interactional Competence), Thai learners, EFL classroom, Thailand

Background

The Thai language has been the central tool in establishing national unity and identity since the late 1930s (Kirkpatrick 2010). Although Thailand appears to be a monolingual country as the overwhelming majority of the population speak Thai (Luangthongkhum 2007), there are other ethnic languages or dialects spoken by the locals within the linguistic ecology of Thailand. Thus, Thailand has multilingualism as a background as Thai people in many parts of the country translanguage their dialect in their everyday lives to communicate with people at their workplace and community.

Given the above facts, it can be said that, in reality, Thai people translanguage all the time. Therefore, it is interesting to bring and integrate the practice of translanguaging in teaching English language since education and language classroom have become more and more multilingual. As an English teacher, the author views that while Thai students are still of less excellence in English, it is crucial that Thai teachers as the local teachers share the first language with their students instead of limiting themselves to speaking only the target language as a language medium of instruction. This is to make students feel at home and become more motivated to interact and exchange ideas regarding English lessons with teachers when learning English language.

Significance of Translanguaging

Translanguaging is considered a pedagogical scaffolding technique in bilingual classroom, making the additional language more comprehensible (Lin 1996). In addition, teacher's translanguaging helps set up and clarify tasks in a lesson and the procedural knowledge as it allows the teacher to freely intermingle both languages, Thai and English, to keep the tasks moving forward. Furthermore, it enables the teacher to establish students' involvement and bring lesson accomplishment and confidence to students (Creese and

Blackledge 2010). Moreover, translanguaging facilitates the teacher as a speaker to access linguistic features in order to make the best use of communicative potential (García 2009). Therefore, the languages are utilized flexibly and strategically so that the teacher and the students can experience and benefit from the permeability of learning across languages. This frees students from language separation (García 2009), thus creating 'translanguaging space' (García, Flores, & Woodley 2015; Wei 2011). Translanguaging is seen as an essential linguistic resource to convey and co-construct meaning among bilingual individuals. The practice of translanguaging in the classroom supports sense making, meaning negotiation, and communication improvement between the teacher and students. Thus, translanguaging is responsible for offering communicative and educational possibilities to all of the participants (García 2009).

Even though translanguaging is known, it is in limited practice (Park 2013). Not to mention Thailand, there has not been any research conducted by employing translanguaging to explore Thai contexts in particular the English language classroom. The author has reviewed relevant studies regarding translanguaging in various contexts. The studies (Creese & Blackledge 2010; Canagarajah 2011; García & Sylvan 2011; Wei 2011; Lewis, Jones, & Baker 2012;García & Wei 2014; García & Kano 2014; Garza & Langman 2014; Luk & Lin 2015; Ballinger 2015; Arteagoitia & Howard 2015; Cenoz &Gorter 2015; Levine 2015; Kramsch & Huffmaster 2015; Fuller 2015; Flores & Woodley 2015; Makalela 2015) reveal numerous applications and benefits of translanguaging to students at different age groups, to various multicultural communities, and to teachers themselves.

Furthermore, these studies give the author insight into plenty of translanguaging practices across different regions around the world. However, none of the previous studies paid central attention to exploring CIC's development among students. In addition, some focused on foreign students going to study in origin countries of particular target languages while some

looked at those studying in their own countries but with foreign teachers. Moreover, a number of studies are aimed at exploring how translanguaging helps immigrant learners learn a new language in the country of origin. This is, to a great extent, different from language classrooms in Thailand in which almost all students of schools or universities are Thai and have Thai language as their national language. As a result, Thai teachers can use Thai, which is the same mother tongue as the students', to teach them in a lesson.

Given these facts, the author views that implementation of translanguaging in L2 classroom in Thailand is a challenging and appealing task in order to develop rich and varied communicative repertoires (García 2009; Hornberger & Link 2012) among Thai learners.

Significance of Students' CIC- Classroom Interactional Competence

In Thailand, teacher-student interaction seems not to be on figuring out what the student knows, but on whether the student knows what the teacher and the textbook know. Rarely does a learner from the Thai educational system willingly respond to the teacher's question. This is due to Thai cultural practice where a student who asks questions, who expresses his opinion in particular one which is in contrast to the teacher's, and who spontaneously answers the teacher's question is marked as a rude and impolite show-off (Conlon 2005). Because of this, there is a need to establish interactive classroom discourse so as to promote interactional competence among the students. If the above uncomfortable facts still remain in EFL classrooms in Thailand, it will be a stumbling block for Thai learners to progress in learning since interactional competence of learners is central to learning. In other words, interactional competence lies at the heart of learning (Walsh 2011), and "it is now widely predicted that interactional competence will become the fifth skill" (Walsh 2011: 166) after speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. The author believes that when a learner is encouraged to talk, discuss, debate, and argue with his or her teacher, it determines what he or she learns (Walsh 2011).

Besides, interaction is the most significant element in the curriculum (van Lier 1996). In addition, whether language learning will be successful or not depends on to what extent a learner involves in his or her teacher. That is to say, active participation in classroom discourse enhances the learner's engagement in the learning process (Domalewska 2015). Another reason is that it allows the teacher to make better decisions. All the interactive decisions made by the teacher give way to the creation of the students' space for learning (Walsh 2011).

Under the above views of learning, studying interaction is the same thing as studying learning (Ellis 2000; Pekarek Doehler 2010; Walsh 2011). Therefore, in order to understand the interactional competence of students in the English classroom, the good starting setting is teachers' own classes. To facilitate this to happen, a simple tool to study interactional competence of the students is to record what is going on in the English classrooms and to analyze the interactions that occur (Walsh 2011). Walsh (2012) argues that CIC lies between the teaching and learning and that the development of CIC among the learners is mutually supportive of learning. He points out that in the language classroom context, teachers mostly pay more attention to 'individual performance', which consists of accuracy, fluency and appropriateness of linguistic forms rather than the effectiveness of the learner's interaction with another interlocutor. Walsh (2012) calls for the more emphasis on what he calls 'joint competence' which is through involvement, engagement, and participation through social activity. Besides, he calls for more research in various contexts with different participants as it will unlock some uncovered features of CIC, resulting in the deeper insights into teaching and learning in language classrooms.

Even though overseas studies focused more on CIC and on dyadic interactions, they all (Young and Miller 2004; Yagi 2007; Ishida 2009, Masuda 2011; Daroneh 2015) aimed to see how students improved CIC in the target language only when interacting with native speakers

during their studying abroad. Most importantly, none of these overseas studies took translanguaging into account.

Intertwinement of Translanguaging and CIC

Given the significance of translanguaging and CIC mentioned above, it is appealing to study whether or not and to what extent translanguaging helps promote learners' CIC in EFL classrooms. It is interesting to see how the learners create their 'space for learning' (Walsh 2012) when they are in 'translanguaging space' (García, Flores, & Woodley 2015; Wei 2011) established by both teachers and the learners who flexibly employ all linguistic resources (English and Thai) to make sense of each other. The established translanguaging space is permeable (see Figure 1) as it is where boundaries between the two languguages are blurred. Thus, this should propel the learners to utilize the translanguaging space and create their own 'space for learning' (Walsh 2011 & 2012) through their interactions in the EFL classroom (see Figure 2).

Figure 1: Translanguaging (TL) space

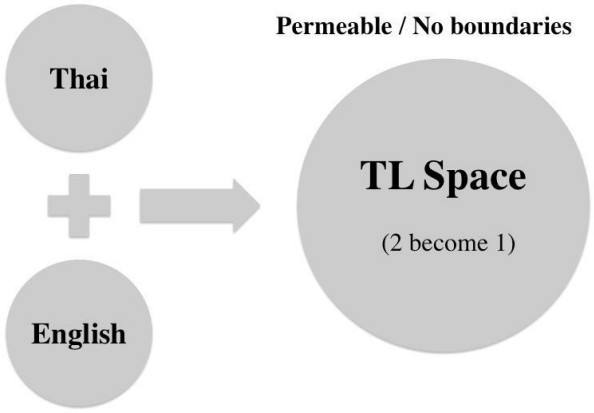
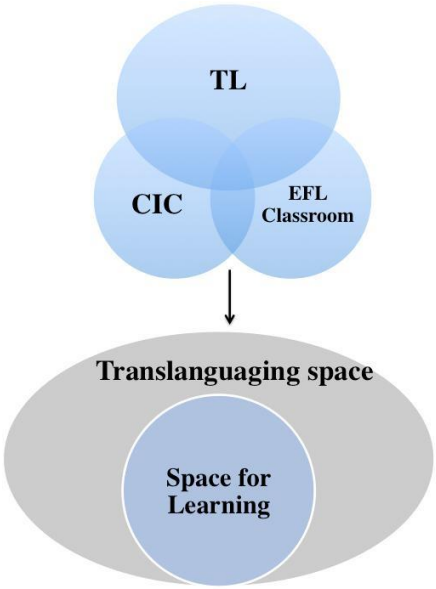


Figure 2: Translanguaging (TL) space and Space for learning



Development of Students' CIC through Translanguaging

It is crucial that more attention be paid to the concept of translanguaging and CIC so as to see how it works in EFL classroom contexts in Thailand. That is to say, if teachers who share the same mother tongue (Thai) as their students employ the practice of translanguaging with their students in EFL classrooms and analyze students' interactions, this should allow the teachers to see how translanguaging promotes students' CIC in a classroom context mode (Walsh 2011).

To explore students' interactional competence in an educational context or the classroom context mode, it is important to investigate predominant features of CIC in the classroom context mode. In this article, the author demonstrates (in later sections) three interactional features: (1) extended learner turn, (2) seeking clarification, and (3) listenership, which are crucially indicative of the students' classroom interactional competence or CIC.

Taken from SETT framework (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk) established by Walsh (2006 and 2011), the first two features: 'extended learner turn' and 'seeking clarification', are believed to play a central role in the classroom context mode (Walsh 2011). Exploring 'extended learner turns' is to see learner's turns of more than one utterance when the learner participates in co-constructing the classroom discourse. In addition, investigating students' clarification seeking is

to see the instances in which they ask the teacher to clarify something the teacher has said. The development of these two features not only enables students to express themselves clearly but also establishes the local context or "the communication potential of the L2 classroom itself" (van Lier 1988: 30). The third interactional feature to be analyzed is "listenership" (McCarthy 2003; cited in Walsh 2012: 5). It is to see 'overlaps' and 'interruptions' made by the students to give clues to the teacher that they are paying attention to and understanding what the teacher says. Therefore, if the students make overlaps and interruptions, this means they have a sense of listenership, and this helps smoothen the interaction and "prevents trouble and breakdowns from occurring" (cited in Walsh 2011: 164).

If students turn out to develop more and longer turns, ask for clarifications from the teacher more often, and exhibit a more sense of listenership throughout a period of time, it is arguable that translanguaging in the EFL classrooms helps advance the learners' CIC which is the key to determining what they learn (Walsh 2011).

To illustrate occurrence of translanguaging and the three main features of CIC, the author has extracted dialogues from the author's EFL classroom, which is one-on-one tutorial session with a student. In the session, the teacher (the author) and the student used both Thai (L1) and English (L2) in a more coexisting and incorporated fashion (Lewis, Jones & Baker 2012) or navigate between the two languages (Cenoz &Gorter 2015) so as to make sense of each other.

The lesson that the student had gone through was 30-minute discussion of a topic given before writing an English essay. The topic or the prompt was as follows:

> People use computers when they work or go banking, but some argue that it would make them isolated and decrease their social skills. To what extent do you agree or disagree? (Source: www.ieltsbuddy.com)

In the writing lesson, the student was asked to read, discuss the prompt with the teacher, and express his ideas or opinions over the task given. The aim of 'topic discussion' was to ensure the student was able to interpret the prompt and draw on his mind-mapped opinions related to the topic. As a result, the student realized what relevant ideas to be put in each paragraph of the essay. Extracts 1-4 demonstrate in what instances the teacher and the student translanguaged and extracts 5-7 show the CIC's features: extended learner turn, seeking clarification, and listenership (overlaps).

Extract 1. Teacher's Translanguaging
Instance: Translating a phrase 'not really'

Turn	Speaker	Dialogues	Remark
49	T	So when ..so when people ask you 'do you agree or disagree' please let me know in what way would you..would you take side? true or not really? 'True' means 'yes! I agree' I'm isolated...but 'not really' in Thai could mean that 'well..it's not like that'. It may be some..but that's not really..	
50	S	not really..	
51	T	not really in Thai means..	
52	S	ครับ <*Yes.*>	
53	T	ก็ไม□เชิงอะ..จำไว□ มันคือ'ไม□เชิง' <*not quite..remember it is 'not exactly'*>	**TL**
54	S	ครับ <*Yes*>	
55	T	so.. you go for.. you go for 'not really'?	
56	S	ครับ <*Yes*>	

Remark: T = Teacher S= Student
TL = translanguaging (navigating between Thai & Eng)
< *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English

The particular goal of the moment was to co-construct the meaning of a phrase 'not really'. The teacher translanguaged to describe the real meaning of 'not really' to the learner so as to make certain that the learner did understand its meaning. The teacher spontaneously translanguaged since the phrase was relevant to the whole main idea of the essay. This was to prevent the learner from misunderstanding, which might affect his authorial voice. Further to Extract 1, turn 53 was the first turn in which the teacher translanguaged. The teacher tried to help the student draw on the student's point of view concerning the question whether he would agree or disagree to the claim that the use of computers at work and at banks could separate people from socializing with others.

In turn 49, the teacher, speaking English, proposed two possible ideas between 'true' and 'not really' in response to the topic question and explained the meanings. The student in turn 50 responded 'not really'. Nevertheless, in turn 51, the teacher still wanted to know if the student truly comprehended the real meaning of 'not really', so the teacher asked the student to refer the meaning in L1. However, in turn 52, the student just said 'yes'; therefore, the teacher in turn 53 translaguaged to refer the meaning of 'not really' in Thai, which was 'ก็ไม่เชิง' to co-construct the meaning of the phrase. In turn 55, the teacher spoke English to recheck the student's comprehension, and finally in turn 56 the student expressed his better understanding. This is clearly seen that the teacher tried to navigate ways through using all possible linguistic resources (Thai and English) to co-construct the meaning of the phrase.

Another example is when the teacher was negotiating the meaning of a Thai word 'บ□าง' which means 'to some extent' as well as to introduce related vocabulary.

Extract 2. Teacher's Translanguaging
Instance: Introducing a new vocabulary 'to some/significant extent'

Turn	Speaker	Dialogues	Remark
143	T	So..so you say 'reduce', you mean 'reduce' in terms of social skills?	
144	S	คือ 30 % นี่คือเหมือนกับ *< I mean 30% is like..>*	
145	T	Ok.	
146	S	มันอาจจะมีลดบ้าง ลดในทาง social skills บ้าง *< It may decrease to a moderate extent..decrease social skills to a moderate extent>*	
147	T	คำว่าลดบ้าง น้องไปรู้ท์จะใช้คำว่าอะไร คำว่า 'บ้าง'? บ้างเนี่ย มันเป็นบ้างที่ดูมีประเด็นป่ะ? ที่ดูรุนแรงนิดนึงป่ะ *<What English words would you use to describe 'to decrease to a moderate extent'? 'To a moderate extent' is significant, isn't it? It's somewhat remarkable, isn't it?>*	TL
148	S	ใช่ *< yes>*	
149	T	เราใช้คำว่าอะไรได้บ้าง ภาษาอังกฤษ คำว่าบ้างเนี่ย อืม *<Tell me English words that refer to 'to a moderate extent'.>*	TL
150	S	s..some	
151	T	อ้า *<Yes!>*	TL
152	S	some..people..someone	
153	T	'to some extent'..have you ever heard that ?	
154	S	ไม่เคยฮะ *< Never>*	
155	T	to some extent or it could be 'sig-ni-fi-cant-ly'...'to some extent' or 'significantly' ก็แบบ ก็ 'บ้าง' ประมาณหนึ่ง ในระดับหนึ่งที่สังเกตุเห็นได้ชัด *<it's kind of 'to some extent'..to a certain degree that is rather noticeable.>*	TL

		Sometimes we can use 'to some extent'..actually we can also use 'to a significant extent'.	
156	S	ครับ <*Yes*>	

Remark: T = Teacher S= Student TL = translanguaging (navigating between Thai & Eng)
< *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English

With reference to Extract 2, the teacher translanguaged to co-construct and negotiate the meaning of the word 'บ□าง' or 'to some extent' that the student used so as to describe the effect of using computers on the reduction in social skills. In turn 143, the teacher still spoke in English (L2) but when the student used the word 'บ□าง' in the following turn, the teacher then translanguaged in turn 147 to negotiate the degree of the word's meaning as well as to draw on an English vocabulary which refers to 'บ□าง' out of the student. In turn 151, the teacher uttered 'อ□า' which means 'Yes!' in response to the student for his being able to draw out a very close word 'some' to refer to 'บ□าง'. In turn 155, the teacher navigated between English (L2) and Thai (L1) to introduce some new vocabularies related to 'บ้าง'.

Extract 3: The Student's Translanguaging
Instance: Repeating/confirming his answer

Turn	**Speaker**	**Dialogues**	**Remark**
27	T	Yeah...imagine the picture (signaling the student to speak in English)	
28	S	(5) I..dis..disagree because..	
29	T	you disagree? yeah yeah?	
30	S	because when you go to work, you need to talk with other people	
31	T	Aha	
32	S	nev...never when you use computer always use computer all the time but you need to talk with other ..other people to ..about work..about thing.	
33	T	Yeah..so you think that you disagree..hah? what do you mean by you disagree? you disagree to this claim?	
34	S	ครับ <*yes*>	TL
35	T	What you mean?	
36	S	ไม่เห็นด้วย <*I disagree.*>	TL

Remark: T = Teacher S= Student
TL = translanguaging (navigating between Thai & Eng)
(number) = a speaker's pause (seconds)
< *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English

In Extract 3, the student translanguaged to co-construct the meaning with the teacher, concerning his position in relation to the given topic. The teacher had the student discuss his opinion in English. The student interacted in English a few turns until turn 34 at which he translanguaged with a short utterance "ครับ" which means "Yes" to answer to the teacher's answer in turn 33. Again in the student's following turn 36, he translanguaged "ไม□เห็นด□วย" which means "I disagree" which was to reconfirm his answer. It is noticeable that the student translanguaged when the teacher tried to paraphrase in order to draw a conclusion from what the student said. The student was back to translanguage to confirm that what the teacher understood was right and to reconfirm his stance on the topic.

Extract 4. The Student's Translanguaging
Instance: Coping with unknown lexical items, inquiring, and summarizing ideas

217	T	Try to speak English (smiling)	
218	S	if school..they also have ..umm..group work that we จับกลุ□มเอ < *we are allowed to do grouping as we like.*>	TL
219	T	Aha	
220	S	and random by teachers	
221	T	Aha	
222	S	When you 'catch a group' ปะครับ'จับกลุ□ม' นี้? <*'catch a group' is doing grouping, isn't it?* >	TL
223	T	Yeah..	
224	S	when you catch a group..you [always..]	
225	T	(laughing) [when you] group ..do grouping yourselves..	
226	S	When you do grouping by yourselves , you must also ..(2) create by your best friend to join group.. and when you random it teachers must , umm, almost teachers must random by ..um..friend..friend who doesn't talk too much..	
227	T	Aha..I see.	
228	S	นี่คือสำหรับโรงเรียนผมนะครับ <*This is what happens at my school*>	TL

Remark: T = Teacher S= Student
TL = translanguaging (navigating between Thai & Eng)
(number) = a speaker's pause (seconds) [..] = Overlaps/interruptions
< *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English

This extract shows that in turns 218, he said "จับกลุ□มเอง", which means "grouping as one likes it" to finish his turn. The student navigated ways through all of his possible linguistic resources to convey his intended messages. He translanguaged when his lexical knowledge of one

linguistic resource (English) did not cover what he wanted to communicate, so the other linguistic resource (Thai) was brought up spontaneously to make sense of what he was trying to say. Another instance the student translanguaged was confirmation check of his word choice. In turn 222, it is apparent that when the student made a question, he would rather translanguage than ask in L2. The last instance from the extract was to summarize or end his talking. In turn 227, the teacher gave a minimal response token "Aha..I see" to signal that she well understood what the student was saying. Then in turn 228, the student could sense that the teacher was satisfied with his contributions and realized that he came to the end, so he translanguaged "นี่คือสำหรับโรงเรียนผมนะครับ" or "this is what happens at my school" to end his talking.

On the whole, Extracts 1-2 demonstrate two instances in which the teacher (the author) created 'translanguaging space' (García, Flores, & Woodley 2015; Wei 2011) to co-construct and negotiate meanings when drawing out the meaning of a new English word and building on an earnest conversation. In addition, Extracts 3-4 illustrate that the student naturally translanguaged when reconfirming his opinion, dealing with unknown lexical items, making referential questions, and summarizing ideas.

The following three extracts (Extracts 5-7) were taken from the same learner to show the student's CIC through three features: extended learner turn, overlaps & interruptions, and seeking clarification, respectively.

Extract 5. CIC - Extended Learner Turn

Turn	Speaker	Dialogues	Remark
59	T	How could we still socialize with other people even though you use a computer?	
60	S	ก็ ถ□าที่ทำงานใช□มั้ยครับ ที่ทำงาน แบบเวลาเราทำงาน ถึงแม□ว□าแบ ต□องใช□อะไรเหมือนป□าผมแต□เราก็ต□องคุยกับคนที่นั่งโต□ะข□างๆบ□าง *< Well, at workplace, when we are working, even though we have to use computers like my aunt do, we, to some extent, have to talk to people sitting near us.>*	X
61	T	(laughing)	
62	S	เพื่อนเราบ□าง ไม□ใช□แบบอยู□แต□คอมฯ ไม□คุยกับใครเลยตลอดเวลา บางทีเจ□า มาถามงาน เราก็ต□องคุยกับเค□าเรื่องงานอะไรแบบนี้ มันไม□มีทางจะเป□ ที่จะไม□คุย กับใครเลย 100% อะไรครับครู *<..at least talking to our colleagues. It's not right to just work*	X

		on our computers all the time and not talk to anyone. Sometimes when our boss inquires us about work, we inevitably have to talk to him, something like that. Therefore, it's impossible that we won't talk to anyone at work for 100%.>	

Remark: T= Teacher S= Student X= Extended learner turn
< *italic*> = Translation from Thai into English

In Extract 5, the student made comparatively longer and extended utterances in turns 60 and 62 when asked by the teacher in turn 59. It is noticeable that the learner's turns 60 and 62 would have been even longer in the same turn if the teacher's laughter in turn 61 had not been counted. The last utterance of turn 60 ('คนที่นั่งโต□ะข□างๆบ□าง' or 'people sitting near us') and the first utterance of turn 62 ('เพื่อนเราบ□าง' or 'at least talking to our colleagues') are actually the student's continuous talk. This shows that the student was taking his learning space through extensively corresponding with the teacher.

Extract 6. CIC- Overlaps & Interruptions (Listenership)

Turn	**Speaker**	**Dialogues**	**Remark**
108	S	ถ□าไม□ได□เป□นใบ□ หรือ ไปเย็บปากอะไรอย□างนี้อะฮะ(smiling) ก็ไม□มีทางเกิด <*Unless they were deaf or their tongues were tied something like that (smiling), then it would never happen.*	
109	T	(laughing) my goodness!..or supposed that you are a person who is depressed, right? so you're isolated..ok, so you see that's the good point. You think that 'isolated' never happens.	
110	S	ครับ<*yes*>	
111	T	that is what you mean..NEVER HAPPEN unless you are what? (laughing)	
112	S	(laughing)	
113	T	unless you are what (laughing) ..unless you are?	
114	S	ใบ□ เค□าเรียกว□า..silent เปล□าครับ <*deaf in English is 'silent', isn't it?*>	
115	T	hmm..deaf..	
116	S	ครับ<*yes*>	
117	T	Yeah..deaf..unless you are deaf.. I really love your idea , ok?	
118	S	ครับ<*Yes*>	
119	T	Unless you are [deaf]..	
120	S	[deaf]	[..]
121	T	right?...ok..or you got a bruise in your [mouth]	
122	S	[ปากแตก] <*[lips getting a cut]*>	[..]

123	T	right? so this would never happen	
124	S	ครับ<*yes*>	
125	T	30% is true that some ..	
126	S	social skills..	
127	T	may reduce their..	
128	S	ครับ<*yes*> ..social skills	
129	T	ok..do you know other synonyms of social skill?	
130	S	ก็ เอ□อ<*Well,.. umm..*>	
131	T	like IN-TER-PERSONAL skill as well..yeah..the same.. [it's like..]	
132	S	[อ□อ ถ□าสมมติมันเป□นอย□างนี้มันก็จะ] .. <*[I see supposed] it's like this then it's going to..*>	[..]
133	T	yeah..you have face-to [face interaction]	
134	S	[face-to-face]	[..]

Remark : T= Teacher S= Student < *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English
[…] = overlaps and interruptions(listenership) between the two speakers

In Extract 6, the student was trying to argue against the claim that using computers could lesson people's social skills. Throughout the extract, the student exhibited his listenership in many turns including turn 120, 122, 132, and 134 as marked in the brackets [ ] where the student's utterances were overlapped or interrupted with the teacher's. This shows that the student was paying attention to the teacher's contributions since he listened and tried to help finish what the teacher was saying.

Extract 7. CIC - Seeking Clarification

Turn	**Speaker**	**Dialogues**	**Remark**
		PART 1	
1	T	Alright here is the topic. I'll give you a few minutes to read and then tell me how you understand..ok, read it first.	
2	S	isolated แปลว□าอะไรครับ(He? pronounced 'e-so-late') <*What does 'isolated' mean?*>	SC
3	T	isolate	
4	S	i-so-late	
5	T	isolate is like ..you are lonely. [You're] not with other people.	
6	S	[อ□อ] <*[I see]*>	
7	T	isolate..like	
8	S	ครับalone ว□างั้น<*Yes,? it's like 'alone', isn't it?*>	SC
		PART 2	
114	S	ใบ□ เค□าเรียกว□า..silent เปล□าครับ <*Deaf in English is 'silent', isn't it?*>	SC
115	T	hmm..deaf..	
		PART 3	

217	T	Try to speak English (smiling)	
218	S	If school..they also have ..umm..group work that we จับกลุ่มเอง < *Do grouping ourselves.*>	
219	T	Aha	
220	S	And random by teachers	
221	T	Aha	
222	S	When you 'catch a group' ปะครับ'จับกลุ่ม' นี้? <*'catch a group' is grouping ourselves, isn't it?*>	SC

Remark:T =Teacher S= Student SC = Seeking clarification
[…] = overlaps and interruptions(listenership) between the two speakers
< *italic* > = Translation from Thai into English

In Extract 7, all parts 1,2, and 3 show 'seeking clarification' (mark as 'SC') in four turns 2,8,114, and 222 or total frequency is 4. Part 1 was at the beginning of the talk where the teacher instructed the student to read and interpret the essay topic written on the whiteboard. In turn 2, the student asked for the teacher's meaning clarification of 'isolated' and again in turn 8, the student rechecked his understanding of the word 'isolated' by referring to 'alone' after hearing 'lonely' from the teacher's turn 5. In part 2 (turns 114-115), student sought the teacher's clarification of a word 'silent' to which he referred a Thai word 'ใบ' (deaf). The student wanted the teacher to make him clear whether the word 'silent' was the same as 'ใบ' or not. In part 3, the teacher asked the learner to try expressing his ideas in English (L2). In turn 218, the learner spoke in English, but then translanguaged when he did not know how to say 'จับกลุ่มเอง', which means 'grouping' in English. The teacher still let the learner keep speaking until turn 222 when the learner questioned the teacher if a phrase 'to catch a group' was the right one to refer to 'จับกลุ่มเอง' (grouping) or not.

Throughout the 30-minute talk or essay topic discussion, the learner's seeking clarification occurred at the beginning of the talk when he tried to build on his understanding in the topic given. In addition, seeking clarification took place in later time of the talk when he wanted to know definitions of certain English words.

In brief, Extracts 5-7 show the three interactional features that exhibit CIC. It is an appealing task to discover that when students are exposed in translanguaging space over time, to

what extent they will be able to develop their CIC, which is the heart of learning. As mentioned earlier that the longer they make extended learner turn, overlaps/interruptions, and seeking clarification, the more they learn a lesson of a particular moment.

According to Extracts 1-7, it is evident that translanguaging between the teacher and the student was practiced flexibly to navigate ways to convey messages or try to make sense of each other through the lesson. When the teacher and the student intermingle the target language (English) with the mother tongue (Thai), 'translanguaging space' is established, thus softening boundaries between the two languages. In other words, there exists no separation between the two languages. As a result, the space is so permeable that it allows the student to step in and establish his own 'space of learning' through linguistic resources. Given all the extracts, while he was interacting with the teacher through making turns, asking for clarifications, interrupting the teacher's turns, he was learning through these interactional features, thus improving his CIC or enhancing his learning. Therefore, the more the student interacted with the teacher, the more he learned the lesson.

For all that, the above extracts are partial examples from one EFL tutorial session aimed at exhibiting how to adopt translanguaging as a pedagogical tool to develop Thai learners' CIC in English classroom setting. That is to say, it needs longer time to see other possible instances of translanguaging and to explore to what extent the student will develop his CIC. For this reason, the author suggests that a larger scale of research needs be conducted.

Applications of Translanguaging and CIC

Studying translanguaging in EFL classroom and students' CIC will be a significant endeavor in understanding how translanguaging plays a role in helping students develop their interactional competence during learning English language lessons. It should make contributions to local teachers and/or educators who share the same first language as Thai students. That is to say, the teachers and/or the educators will understand how the fluid use of both mother tongue and target language can help co-construct the meaning with their learners. As a result, this supports the

target language learning and promotes interactional competence among the learners since they feel more comfortable with and permeable to the environment where all possible linguistic resources (Thai and English) are flexibly used.

Moreover, it should be helpful for learners who are the party to whom all contributions have been made. When the learners know that interacting with teachers is equal to developing their learning, they will be motivated to get more involved in the classroom participation so that they learn the lessons more successfully and achieve their academic goals. In addition to the learners developing their CIC, they improve their ability to communicate in English with the teacher and with other people onwards. Thus, this should at least embrace Thai learners for the emerging world of multilingual classroom, thus freeing themselves from being encumbered with the long-standing Thai cultural practice of unassertiveness.

In addition, it is beneficial to those who own or work for private language schools and language institutes in universities. It should enable those concerned to adapt the concept of translanguaging and the development of CIC among their learners. That is to say, when it comes to the time of planning curricula, they may consider bringing what the present study has done into practice at their own institutes.

Lastly, more studies of developing the students' CIC through translanguaging should be useful for other researchers who share the common interest in conducting future research, which may take other factors into account to ensure it covers other possible areas. The author believes that this will shed light on other future applications of translanguaging and CIC in language classroom and make contributions to English language teaching in Thailand and the region onwards.

Conclusion

This paper conceptualizes that investigating CIC among the L2 students who learn the target language through translanguaging should allow teachers, educators, and those interested in the same area to see in what situations translanguaging works well to develop Thai students' interactional competence, thus advancing their English learning.

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Teaching English Language and Literature Using Information and Communication Technology

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Abstract

These days many of us use technology to teach content subjects such as physical sciences, chemical sciences, and earth sciences such as geography and geology. Some of us use it to present historical events, incidents and personalities. We have already harnessed technology to teach life sciences. We sometimes use audio-visual material available in the form of short movies and documentaries telecast on 'History Channel', 'National Geographic ', 'Animal Planet', etc., to teach various topics. Similarly, we have begun to use technology to teach literature and language. We teach plays, stories, and poems using the Internet. We use technology to develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills and to teach and practice grammar and vocabulary. We use it to develop our learners' linguistic competence, literary competence and soft skills such as conversation skills, critical thinking skills, creativity skills, cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity, etc.

Key expressions**:** *Technologies, content subjects, skill subjects, learning styles, personality types, higher order skills, cognitive and affective domains*

Introduction

I would like to open this paper with the admission that our life is unthinkable without information and communication technology. Technology has made inroads in all walks of life. Then how can education be exempt from the advent of technology? Technology pervades modern classrooms in developed and developing countries. It is becoming common to teach physical sciences, chemical sciences, earth sciences and life sciences using technology. Let me illustrate this statement. Let us take the example of teaching geology. We want to teach how tectonic plates deep underneath the earth gradually slide and collide, how earthquakes happen or how volcanic activities brew deep down the crust of the earth. We can visualize the invisible movements through animation. Use of animation facilitates the teaching of volcanic eruptions and tectonic movements. Further, it presents these invisible geological events pictorially. We can study animal and vegetation organisms and their behavior through visual medium.

In teaching we talk about various learning styles such as auditory, visual, kinesthetic, gustatory, olfactory, tactile, etc. Traditionally, content subjects as well as skill subjects were taught through lecturing mode. The only graphic component used in traditional pedagogy was in the form of static pictures, graphs, tables, charts, etc. These pictures were useful, but they did not show the activity in motion. Technology has made it possible to do that. Students understand geological, biological, physical and chemical processes faster and better through animation. They remember the visually, graphically, animated happenings for a longer time. That is why they say, “Tell me and I may forget, show me and I will remember”.

Discussion

In the past, teachers used to teach language and literature through lecture method. However, this is not to say that lecture method was useless. It had and has its advantages. Since

there was no Internet, no laptop computers and no smart phones, teachers had to use all their natural resources to make the teaching of literature and language as interesting as possible. They had to use their vocal resources such as tone of voice, word stress, sentence stress, grammatical, attitudinal and rhetorical intonation, and body language such as gestures, facial expressions, posture, etc., to make the teaching of literature interesting and effective.

The Teaching of Literature through Technology

Now plays, poems, stories are available on YouTube and Google. They are available not only in print but also in audio and visual mediums. The teaching of a play, for example, can be supplemented with a visual performance downloaded from the Internet or with a readily available CD. Performances of almost all Shakespearean plays are available on the Internet. Poetry recitations are available on certain websites. However, there is a hitch here. Some teachers depend so heavily on technology that they do not think it necessary to read the play and to present it or teach it in a dramatic manner. When I teach a play, a story or a poem, I usually teach it my own way, but I judiciously supplement my teaching with information and communication technology. For instance, I recite William Wordsworth's *Daffodils* or *The Solitary Reaper* or Robert Frost's *Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening* using proper pronunciation, rhythm, emphasis, tone of voice, pace, pitch, etc. Let me give you a demonstration using Robert Frost's *Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening:*

Whose woods these are I think I know

His house is in the village though

He will not see me stopping here

To watch his woods fill up with snow

My little horse must think it queer

To stop without a farmhouse near

Between the woods and frozen lake

The darkest evening of the year

He gives his harness bells a shake

To ask if there is some mistake

The only other sound's the sweep

Of easy wind and downy flake

The woods are lovely, dark and deep

But I have promises to keep

And miles to go before I sleep

And miles to go before I sleep

When I recite this poem, my first objective is to let my students enjoy its rhythm and music. So I pronounce some usually mispronounced words with great care. For example, many teachers of English pronounce such words as 'village', 'darkest', 'evening' as /viled3/, /da:rkest/

and /ivining/. We know that the correct pronunciations of these words are /vilid3/, /da:kist/, and /i:vning/. Through my recitation I bring to their notice the contrast between the short /i/ sound and the long /i:/ sound as in 'think', 'fill', 'village', 'give' on the one hand and 'sweep', 'deep', keep' and 'sleep' on the other. Similarly, I highlight the contrast between the vowel sound /e/ in the word 'bells' and the glide /ei/ in 'lake', 'shake', 'mistake' and 'flake'. Then, keeping in mind the pronunciation problems of my students, I recite the poem with proper chunking such as 'whose woods these are', 'I think I know'; and 'to watch his woods', 'fill up with snow'.

Having recited the poem once or twice and given them a taste of the sound, music and rhythm of the poem, I take them to YouTube or Google and play a recitation of the same poem to reinforce the points I have already highlighted.

In the same manner, I can show them clippings from a performance of a play while teaching it. For instance, I can show them the court scene from Shakespeare's *The Merchant of Venice* wherein Portia, disguised as a lawyer, argues that Shylock can have a pound of flesh from Antonio's body, but without spilling any blood, because the contract says that Shylock can have a pound of flesh but does not give him the right to spill any blood. Thus I give a brief introduction to the scene and then play the scene so that my students enjoy it and understand it better.

The Teaching of Language through Technology

Language can also be taught through technology. We can play famous speeches by extraordinary orators such as Martin Luther King Jr. His *I Have a Dream* is available on the Internet. I usually play this speech three times. The first listening gives my students a general idea, the central theme, the thesis or gist of the speech in brief. Then I play the speech chunk by chunk, bit by bit. I ask the students some while-listening questions. Before I play the speech a

third time, I ask them to listen to the speech carefully and note how the speaker uses persuasive devices such as repetition and metaphors to present his argument forcefully, effectively and efficiently. Similarly, we can use Charlie Chaplin's last speech in the movie *The Great Dictator.* We can use such speeches for a variety of purposes. We can use these speeches to develop our own and our students' listening skills, to enrich our and their vocabulary, to sensitize ourselves and our students to aspects of spoken English such as pronunciation, word stress, sentence stress, emphasis, intonation, tone of voice, voice modulation, and so on. In addition, we can use such speeches to familiarize our students with additional aspects of oratory such as choice of appropriate words, variation in sentence construction, images, illustrations, persuasive language, etc.

We can use technology to teach language in an interesting way. Many teachers want to use technology to make their teaching lively and interesting, but they end up making their lessons monotonous and lifeless due to lack of planning and structure and due to excessive use of technology. They do not know how to use technology, how much technology to use and when to use it. It requires rigorous homework to harness technology to teaching.

Now, let me offer an illustration. Let us say, we want to develop the speaking skills of our learners. This is very important as many of our learners avoid speaking in English. I have always believed that learning how to speak English is similar to learning how to swim or how to ride a bicycle. I remember the day I first jumped into water to swim. I was scared of water and thought that I was going to drown; but gradually, I gathered courage and confidence and began to move my arms and legs and was amazed at my progress in swimming. Speaking English is very similar to this. Every big thing has a small beginning. Let our learners make a small beginning. Let them make mistakes. We need to break the ice, set the ball rolling. Only then can

our students develop their English speaking skills. Let the learner take the initiative. This will not happen if the teacher explains rules of grammar and sentence structures in a mechanical, mindless manner. This will not happen so long as we teach English through Thai or Vietnamese or Japanese, depriving our learners of invaluable opportunities of language practice in meaningful, relevant, realistic situations. This will not happen unless they themselves use the language in simulated situations. Can we become champion swimmers just by reading a dozen books on swimming? We want our learners to become expert swimmers, but we do not let them jump into a swimming pool. Instead, we spend hours after hours standing by the side of the swimming pool and explaining to them how to swim! How can our learners become confident Olympic swimmers if we do not let them walk into the pool? How can they become champion cyclists if we do not allow them to pick up the bicycle, ride it, fall and rise and fall and rise and then pedal it away? Our job as teachers is just to support them when they first ride a bicycle, just to give the bicycle a push and leave it. Confidence results from falling off and getting up, not from continuous support from the teacher and parasitic dependence on the part of the learner.

Let me discuss an illustration to demonstrate how we can develop the speaking skills of our learners. Walt Disney has several animation movies. We can choose one of these animations and encourage our learners to produce a collaborative, collective spoken or written discourse. We can play a full animation such as *Paperman* that lasts for a few minutes. Then we can play it bit by bit, one shot at a time. Our learners watch it and observe things and people in the movie and speak about what they see. Each student says one sentence. The subsequent students have to make their contribution logically coherent and cohesive. Let us say, they see a tall, slim and oval-faced young man wearing a suit and holding a folder in his right hand and waiting on a railway platform. The first student may say, “I see a man in the movie.” The subsequent speakers

are expected to describe the man. The second speaker may say, “He looks young, slim and tall.” The third speaker may say, “He has an oval face.” The fourth speaker may say, “He is wearing a suit.” The fifth speaker may say, “He is holding a folder in his right hand.” Then they may go on to talk about other people and things they see in the movie. Thus students will contribute one sentence each and finally they will come up with a logically developed, collectively/collaboratively produced oral composition. This integrated exercise will achieve several objectives. It will boost their morale and instill confidence in them. It will give them a context to use their vocabulary, especially their stock of describing words. Moreover, they will learn words from one another. It will give them a pretext to practice their grammar. In this case they can practice the use of simple present tense and present continuous tense. It will require them to think collaboratively and weave their respective contribution logically. It will develop their observation skills. They will find such activities interesting. Moreover, as everyone in the class will get an opportunity to participate and contribute, they will enjoy the democratic, learner-centric learning-centric sociology of the classroom.

Conclusion

Thus we have discussed how teachers of content subjects as well as of skill subjects can make effective and efficient use of information and communication technology to motivate their learners, to instill confidence in them, to boost their morale, to facilitate the teaching process, to enhance the impact of teaching, to make learning a pleasurable experience, to help learners understand things better and faster, and to help them remember whatever they learn for a longer period. In short, use of audio-visual technology helps teachers break the monotony by ending the domination of auditory learning style and introducing equilibrium between auditory and visual teaching and learning styles. Moreover, use of technology can help teachers enable their students

ascend from lower order skills of recall to middle order skills of understanding and application, and from there to higher order skills of analysis, evaluation and creation.

However, I would like to add a word of caution. Technology is only a supplement, not a substitute. Judicious use of technology will preserve its element of surprise and suspense; excessive use will make it a routine and when something becomes a routine, the element of fascination is over. As long as it is a love affair, it is motivating, fascinating, arresting and gravitating; but the moment the love affair culminates into a wedding, all surprises are over and people start looking for surprises elsewhere. So, the message is: let us enjoy the romance between technology and teaching. Let us postpone or, if possible, prevent their marriage!

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