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Foreword

Identity in Lexical Resource and Written & Spoken Discourse

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Welcome to the June, 2019 issue of AESP (Volume 15, Issue 1). In a world increasingly dominated by anonymity, to the extent that we are even debating whether recruitment should become anonymous, AESP would again like to emphasize its support of authorial voice and identity. Orwell's famous 1984 seems to be ever relevant as we move into the 21^{st} Century, where we are increasingly asked to speak to anonymous AI voices as we negotiate our daily lives.

In *Frequently Occurring Words in Education Research Articles Written in English: A Preliminary List,* Tanju Deveci evokes the issue of authorial voice, suggesting that emerging authors may be intimidated and "suffer from limited opportunities to have their voices heard". Deveci identifies vocabulary as a major issue for apprentice authors and has generated a preliminary list of words in the field of education to support their learning. Interestingly, Deveci uses the first-person pronoun "I', 49 times in his paper, which is another indication of the appropriate use of an available choice for an author who has found his voice. We also note that in his conclusion, Deveci emphasizes the need for students to be in charge of their own texts when the wordlists are used in support of their writing: "Particularly, if learners are encouraged to compose their own texts using a variety of these words, and they receive regular feedback, their productive knowledge of words in AWLERA will improve."

While a paper on reading skills may not seem like an obvious fit in a discussion about authorial voice, it is nonetheless of vital importance. Academic literacy is about the ability to express one's own voice, to put forward a novel argument in relation to what is already known. Skillful reading of the work of others does not replace an author's voice. It enhances it. In *Development of Reading Skills in an EAP Programme: A Longitudinal Study,* Rachael Ruegg and Naeko Naganuma, provide a rigorous investigation in one context which is translatable across contexts. In relation to Deveci's paper which highlights the importance of vocabulary, they find that "that language comprehension proficiency and high and mid-frequency vocabulary knowledge are significantly predictive of reading comprehension proficiency, while total vocabulary size and word recognition speed are not." Ruegg and Naganuma also remind us that an obsession with cramming students for a certain type of entrance test is an obstacle in developing appropriate higher-education reading skills. My own time in Japanese universities over 11 years supports this view and we could add that this obsession does not help students develop anything like an authorial voice either. Good readers make good writers.

Staying with the criticality of reading, Zahra Alimorad explores the pragmatic decision-making of instructors and the bearing this has on classroom instruction in her paper *Examining the Links Between Reading Research Findings, Iranian Teachers' Perceptions of Reading Comprehension, and Their Actual Practices in ESP Courses*. Although there is a widely-held assumption that how we teach is mostly predicated on the employment of metacognitive strategies, as supported by the literature, the reality is teachers tend to "adopt a skills-based approach" instead. Regardless of teachers being informed of best practice, Zahra's findings indicate "a lack of congruence between these teachers' perceptions and their practices". Arguably, this too is an exercise in authorial voice as teachers edit the digest and delivery of instruction as they see fit, given the constraints of their respective contexts.

Just as Alimorad writes of how "teachers' actions in the classroom are controlled by what they perceive to work best", Neslihan Onder-Ozdemir's paper *Developing a Questionnaire for Critical Needs Analysis in EAP* focuses on the needs of undergraduate medical students, based on their input – their voice. Onder-Ozdemir argues: "Active student involvement could promote learner autonomy and encourage students to think about and understand their needs critically while learning." Furthermore, she advances that adopting such an approach "is likely to scaffold this process" thereby reinforcing its pertinence. What sets Onder-Ozdemir's work apart from previous studies is how students were invited to articulate their "needs, wants, expectations…while each item…was built" in her questionnaire, thereby truly championing the significance of student contributions.

This theme continues in Huang Ping's paper: *What Skills do College Students Require in the Workplace? A Research Study Based on Discursive Competence*. Through questionnaires, interviews, and text analysis, she investigates graduate students' needs for professional contexts. Huang Ping bases her paper on the textual, genre, and social competences required by students, and her findings herald the greater urgency of CV and letter writing, for example, over interview and presentation skills. In terms of spoken discourse, she highlights the importance of the "abilities to communicate with the specialists of human resources and express social identity as interviewees", and concludes that ESP-oriented courses should be aligned to what is required in the workplace.

Just as Huang Ping flags the significance of the competence to express your social identity, Serap Atasever Belli offers a parallel argument in *Linguistic Patterns in PhD Acknowledgements Written in Turkish and English*. She analyzes PhD dissertation acknowledgements written in English by both native and non-native students and in Turkish by native speakers and details how the composition acknowledgements "plays an essential role in the establishment of scholarly and social identity". What comes to the fore in Belli's study is that "lexical choices in the expression of gratitude differ across languages due to different socio-cultural features" and that a writer's choices are shaped not only by these factors but by "the expectations of different discourse communities as well as individual writing styles of writers".

Cultural sensitivity is also a feature of Rezina Nazneen Rimi's paper, *Code-Switching in Ads in Bangladesh and its Effects in Culture*. Rimi explores code-switching and the practice of alternating between two languages in the world of marketing, in which research has been conspicuous by being almost absent. Previous studies on the topic have tended to focus on the traditional view of bilingual advertising, which typically runs the same message in both languages, rather than actual code-switching. However, Rimi's study explores the impact and effectiveness of code-switching. For her paper, she surveyed consumers' reactions to code-switched advertising jingles and measured their preferences and the persuasiveness of the ads. With considerably more than half the world's population bilingual, Rimi's study signals the need to research further the influence and mediation of marketing by bilingualism and more particularly, code-switching.

Paul McAleese moves away from the comforts of code-switching and reminds non-native English speakers of the inescapable importance of the ability to deliver an effective English oral presentation in order to advance in their careers. This reality is especially harsh for academics as they are required to present at international conferences to reach wider audiences. In *Organizational and Interpersonal Aspects of Scientific Conference Presentations: A Comparison of US and Japanese Presenters*, McAleese found considerable differences between native and non-native presentations; the latter focused less on the use of cohesive devices and more on conveying meaning through the repetition of vocabulary, which corresponds more closely to written rather than spoken discourse. Naturally, this makes it harder for the audience to process or even understand the message. This is compounded further by the tendency of the non-native speaker to avoid personalized language, thereby creating a distance between the speaker and the audience.

Adrian Semorlan in his study, *Administration of Justice: Best Practices in Alternative Dispute Resolution through the Katarungan Pambarangay in Zamboanga City: A Linguistic* investigated the types of complaints filed and the strategies used in handling complaints in selected barangays in the southern part of the Philippines using linguistic ethnographic approach. Due to the inherent culture of the Philippines to forget about problems and just “kiss and make-up”, it was found that cases filed were resolved through alternate dispute resolution i.e. arbitration, conciliation, amicable settlement and mediation.

Also, from Adrian Semorlan in *Globalization of Bilingual Education in selected State Universities and Colleges in Southern Philippines*, he investigated the perceptions of state universities and colleges (SUCs) management on the emergence of globalized Bilingual Education in the tertiary level in southern Philippines. It was revealed that these perceptions were categorized into four, Global, Curriculum, Technology and Accreditation – all of which are integral in the SUCs quest for global competitiveness.

In order to avoid anonymity, it is incumbent on educators to equip their students with the tools to engage and identify with their audiences. By enabling students to build their lexical resources and hone specific reading skills, we become more cognizant and responsive to their needs, not only by eliciting and incorporating their needs into our teaching practices, but by coaching our students to find their own voices. This is the crux of keeping our identities in a multilingual and tech-mediated (Huxleyan) brave new world.

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Frequently Occurring Words in Education Research Articles Written in English: A Preliminary List

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Biodata

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Abstract

An indicator of learners' language proficiency is the breadth of their vocabulary. Given the volume of vocabulary in English, it may be intimidating for those required to publish academic research articles. Despite possessing a wealth of knowledge in their disciplines, without guidance these people may suffer from limited opportunities to have their voices heard. To reduce this problem for those in educational sciences, in this study I aimed to generate a preliminary list of words frequently used in twelve sub-disciplines. A corpus of 1,233,465 running words derived from 266 research articles was investigated. Results revealed that 76.61% of the corpus was based on the first 2,000 General Service List (GSL), and 12.85% were based on the Academic Words List (AWL) and the University Words List (UWL). 10.53% were comprised of off-list words including discipline-specific vocabulary. Data analysis resulted in a 590-word list including words outside of the 2,000 GSL words. Eighty-

four percent of these words were present in ≥ 9 of the sub-disciplines. It was also found that the most frequently occurring words were research terms. There were a significant number of academic words together with words that are more directly related to education. The results are discussed and recommendations are made to enhance learners' lexical competence.

Keywords: vocabulary list; lexical competence; education research articles; academic lexis; academic writing

1.0 Introduction

The exact count of the number of words in English is not known. Flexibility of word boundaries together with variations in spelling exacerbate the situation, making it difficult for linguists to decide which words to enter in dictionaries (Merriam Webster's online dictionary, n.d.). Despite this, it is reported that the Webster's Third New International Dictionary and the Oxford English Dictionary include around 470,000 entries (Merriam Webster Dictionary, n.d.). No matter how advanced one's language skills may be, no one would be expected to be fully familiar with all of these words. Despite this, Nation (2001) states that 4,000 word families[1] would normally cover 95% of a text. This may still be a serious challenge for people, especially if they are not regular, active readers. Even so, not all words in a text may be known to active readers. Referring to the knowledge of words at the receptive level, Cobb and Horst (2004) note that "the minimal ratio of known to unknown words for both reliable comprehension and new acquisition is at least 20:1" (p. 17). When required to exhibit a productive knowledge of words, defined as "words that can be called to mind and used in speech or writing" (Milton, 2009, p. 13), the challenge is more difficult.

In order to achieve better employment and promotion opportunities, academics are urged to publish their research in peer-reviewed journals. Despite their wealth of knowledge in their disciplines, if they lack the language competence essential to conveying the intended message, their likelihood of being publishable will be minimal. This is particularly important since "[t]he first thing encountered and processed by the reader is the text itself. Therefore, the first impression of the reader is inevitably influenced by the way the message is communicated" (Deveci & Nunn, 2018).

[1] A word family is the base form of a word plus its inflected forms (third person *–s, -ed, -ing,* plural *–s*, possessive *–s*, comparative *–er*, and superlative *–est*) plus derived forms made from certain uses of the following affixes *(-able, -er, -ish, -less, -ly, -ness, -th, -y, -non, -un, -al, -ation, -ess, -ful, -ism, -ist, -ity, -ize, -ment, in-*) (Hirsh & Nation, 1992, p. 692).

The importance of effective use of language in academic writing is also highlighted in publication manuals. For instance, the American Psychological Association (2009) points out that "[t]he prime objective of scientific reporting is clear communication [which can be achieved] by presenting ideas in an orderly manner and by expressing yourself smoothly and precisely" (p. 65). This entails meticulous use of productive knowledge of grammar as well as lexis. In support of this, the American Psychological Association (2009) notes the particular importance of word choice. Authors are advised to use scientific style, avoiding informal lexis and colloquial expressions. They are also warned not to use jargon as the continuous technical vocabulary, which "grates on the reader, encumbers the communication of information, and wastes space" (p. 68). Collectively, these suggestions provide academics with guidance to utilize lexis in efficient and productive ways. However, the challenge may still be intimidating for many novice writers, whether native or non-native speakers of English.

Academics in a particular discipline make up a discourse community. Swales (1990) notes that "a discourse community has [particular] mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" (p. 471) and "has acquired some specific lexis" (p. 473). In the case of education scholars, the former may include research publications, while the latter includes the particular jargon, research related vocabulary, and academic lexis. An analysis of the genre in which these academics as members of a particular discourse community write can help describe lexis commonly used by them. This in turn will help novice authors write their manuscripts more successfully and improve intercommunication with the members of their discourse community.

2.0 The Rationale for the Current Study and Research Questions

Effective use of language includes a variety of skills. Undoubtedly, the correct use of grammar plays a key role in communicating our ideas, beliefs, thoughts and feelings to others. In terms of writing, the knowledge of grammatical concepts helps authors "make their writing more descriptive, clear, or interesting, just like a marker or paintbrush is a tool an artist can use to add more color to his or her picture" (Ruday, 2014, p. 153). Similarly, Wang (2010) argues that language does not exist without grammar, and it is grammar that provides a set of rules for choosing words and putting them together to make sense. Therefore, grammar can be considered to be the backbone of language. However, grammatical competence is not a sufficient indicator of overall language competence. Lexical competence is equally important, if not more. When the vast number of lexical items necessary for academic studies and scholarly publications is considered, the significance of lexis becomes more evident (Deveci, 2015). The recognition of the role of lexis in language learning has resulted in attempts to create vocabulary lists addressing particular learner needs. These include the General Service List (GSL) (West, 1953), the University Word List (UWL) (Xue & Nation, 1984), and the Academic Word Lists (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000). These are explained in detail in a later section.

Although attempts have been made to create some common sets of lexical items for academic purposes (e.g. Xue & Nation, 1984; Coxhead, 2000), authors' use of academic vocabulary in their publications is heavily influenced by their disciplines and the genre in which they write. That is, writings in two utterly different disciplines would be expected to display distinct vocabularies, despite having many general and some academic words in common. On the other hand, a research article is a different genre than a reflection paper, for example. This impacts the lexis used, even by the same author. Considering the role research plays in development of science, a great deal of scientific writing is produced in this genre. With the aim of helping academics enhance their vocabulary at both receptive and productive levels, attempts have been made to identify frequently occurring word families in various disciplines. However, they often included hard sciences such as medicine (Wang, Liang & Ge, 2008) and engineering (Mudraya, 2006; Ward, 2009; Jin et al, 2012). Some researchers also investigated lexis in social sciences (Moini & Islamizadeh, 2016; Chanasattru & Tangkiengsirisin, 2016). However, it appears that research of lexis in educational sciences[2] is extremely limited. To the best of my knowledge, there is only one study by Mozaffari and Moini (2014) which generated a list of words used in education research articles. Although the size of the authors' corpus was relatively large, it was derived from five international journals with "a wide range of topics … covered in the field of education" (p. 1292). However, I believe that in order to identify a comprehensive coverage of lexis in education research papers, articles from related but distinct sub-disciplines need to be covered in a greater number of journals. This could provide a wider representation. Despite this, this preliminary research is also an attempt to validate the previous research findings.

One criterion often used by previous researchers is that at least one of the authors of research articles has to be a native speaker of English (e.g. Wang, Liang & Ge, 2008). This view may be problematic given the established view that English is the lingua franca and that many authors of research articles across the globe are non-native speakers, (NNESs). The increased

[2] Educational sciences include a variety of education related topics including, but not limited to, pedagogy, andragogy, special education, literacy education, different types of learning such as formal, informal, non-formal, lifelong, instructional design, curriculum development, education policy, educational leadership, etc.

pressure for scholars to share their research with a wider audience, whether they are native or non-native English speakers, encourages them to use English as a lingua franca. Therefore, there is a noticeable increase in the number of English-language journals in both English and non-English speaking countries (Björkman, 2013). This approach to language usage entails refraining from differentiating among authors in the genre focused on in this research according to their linguistic backgrounds.

Also, in countries like Turkey, where I am from, education scholars are required to take centralized language tests to be eligible for graduate studies and academic promotion. These tests often include excerpts from academic texts from a variety of sub-disciplines. The lexis used in these texts is often rich. Scholars preparing for these exams are not always sure of which words they need to master, and the sheer volume of vocabulary in the English language can be quite daunting. A list of commonly occurring words, such as the one generated in this current study, could serve as a guide to these scholars.

Considering the above-mentioned importance of vocabulary in education research articles, this preliminary study aims to answer the following research questions.

1. What is the vocabulary profile of education research articles in terms of GSL, AWL, UWL and off-list words?

2. What are the most commonly occurring words in education research articles?

3.0 Literature Review

3.1 Knowing a Word

Knowing what a certain word means is difficult, particularly because of the multiple facets a word's meaning is likely to have. This affects our knowledge of words at receptive and productive levels. The former, also known as passive knowledge, "involves perceiving the form of a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning" (Nation, 2001, p. 24). Our receptive knowledge of vocabulary is greater than our productive knowledge (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). That is, when listening to a speech or reading a text, we may understand the meanings of words that we do not normally use.

On the other hand, productive knowledge of a word "involves wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken and written form” (Nation, 2001, p. 24). Finega (2008, p. 33) notes four kinds of information required to use a word effectively. The first is its sounds and their sequencing, which is called “phonological” information. The second is its meanings, which is related to “semantic information.” The third is its category. This is related to its form, such as verb, adverb, adjective, etc., and how it is used in a sentence, which is related to “syntactic information.” The fourth is how related words (e.g. plural for nouns and tenses for verbs) are formed, which is related to “morphological” information. Despite the distinction made between the productive and receptive word knowledge, it is important to note that words passive for a certain purpose in a certain situation may be active for another purpose and another situation. This shows speculation as a factor in word usage, each field of knowledge has its terms and technical vocabulary, which is certainly active for a specialist in a specific field but may not be so for a specialist in other fields (Alkhuli, 2006, p. 61).

According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), listening and reading require receptive knowledge while speaking and writing require productive knowledge of vocabulary. Regarding vocabulary size essential for each skill, they state that the largest number of words is needed for reading, followed by writing and listening. Speaking, on the other hand, allows for a smaller vocabulary. At the receptive level, a listener or a reader will be able to understand the gist of a message if they know the general meanings of words. A speaker can normally produce language with a limited amount of lexical knowledge. However, a writer ought to have a much more extensive knowledge, and he/she is required to know the spelling, derivatives, morphological irregularities, collocations, and contexts of words. These easily pose formidable challenges to novice writers who would like to publish their research in peer-reviewed journals and present their research orally in academic contexts. To reduce this problem, scholars’ productive knowledge of words needs to be reinforced through their active engagement in research publication and presentation. Increased exposure to lexical items when reading texts and drafting manuscripts will cause more frequent words to transfer into scholars’ productive knowledge of words, although “some passive vocabulary items may never transfer into production” (Laufer & Paribakht cited in Caspi & Lowie, 2010).

3.2 Vocabulary Lists

Since it is not reasonable to expect learners of a foreign language to learn vocabulary arbitrarily, they will benefit from guidance as to particular words they should learn and the order in which they should learn them (Deveci, 2015). However, Beck, McKeown, and Kucan warn (2008) that “words are not related in a hierarchical way – that is, words of the language do not comprise an organized system wherein certain words proceed others conceptually” (p. 16), which requires noting the contexts in which individual groups of learners encounter words. Word lists for these learners can be particularly helpful. Nation (2016) states that since word frequencies vary greatly in a language, it would be useful for course designers to decide the particular words a language course should include. He also says that focusing on high frequency words early on in a course will give learners the opportunity to increase their knowledge through later exposure to these words, which will in turn allow them to produce what they know more efficiently. Nation (2016) also warns that frequency alone will not suffice when making a decision on which words to focus on. He says “range,” which refers to “the number of different texts a word occurs in” (p. 6), and “dispersion,” which “measures how evenly the occurrences of a word are spread across different texts” (p. 6), should also be considered. Nation gives the examples of “the” and “subtract” to explain range and dispersion. In the case of the former, the word would be expected to occur with about equal frequency across a range of different texts, resulting in a high dispersion score. The latter, on the other hand, would normally appear in only certain kinds of texts with a low dispersion score. According to Nation (2016), word lists constructed considering these three measures will not only provide a systematic approach for choosing words to teach and learn, but also prepare learners for extensive listening and reading materials.

With these and other similar views, several initiatives have been taken to generate word lists to support learners’ language development. One of these is the creation of the General Service List (GSL) by West (1953). Comprised of 2,000 headwords generated from a five-million word corpus, GSL is said to help learners understand 90% of general English. This list has been used extensively in early graded reader schemes (Nation, 2004). The GSL was updated by Brezina and Gablasova (2013) using a twelve-billion word corpus. The new-GSL increased the coverage to 81.7% with 2,494 headwords. On the other hand, Browne (2013) identified 2,800 headwords using the Cambridge English Corpus. His study increased the GSL coverage to 90%.

The need for learners of English to acquire lexis for academic purposes gave way to two important developments. One is the University Word List (UWL) created by Xue and Nation (1984). This list consists of 808 words commonly occurring in academic texts but not in GSL. Another one is the Academic Word List (AWL) by Coxhead (2000) who identified 570 words frequently occurring in a text corpus from four distinct academic disciplines. AWL is comprised of 10 sublists. The first list contains the most frequent academic words while the tenth contains the least frequent ones.

Word lists for specific academic disciplines have also been produced. Some of these are mentioned above (e.g. Wang, Liang & Ge, 2008; Mudraya, 2006; Ward, 2009; Jin et al, 2012; Moini & Islamizadeh, 2016; Chanasattru & Tangkiengsirisin, 2016). One particular study related to the focus of this current research was conducted by Mozaffari and Moini (2014), who investigated the vocabulary profile of education research articles in a corpus of 1.7 million words compiled from 239 education research articles published in five journals. In their list, they included words which appeared at least fifty times in the corpus and at least five times in all five journals. They found that the AWL words accounted for 4.94% of their corpus. Although this indicated that the corpus of their education research articles was not heavily based on AWL, they noted that they discarded word families in their frequency analysis. Their research resulted in two lists: a list of 287 AWL word forms and another list of 356 discipline-specific words.

Research shows that 87% of a typical academic text is based on GSL, 8% on AWL and UWL, and the rest on topic-specific lexis according to the academic discipline (Coady & Huckin, 1997). Collectively, these indicate that for students learning English for academic purposes (EAP) to succeed it is essential that they master both GSL and AWL/UWL together with particular lexis in their own academic discipline. It can, therefore, be justifiably argued that language courses at the preparatory level or more advanced levels that are preparing scholars to conduct research and share their results with the wider academic audience should adopt a lexical approach with a focus on discipline-specific vocabulary. This could be supported by word lists tailored to the needs of each discipline.

4.0 Method

4.1 Corpus Establishment

The corpus for this study was comprised of a total of 266 research articles. As mentioned above, one criterion often used by previous researchers in developing word lists is that at least one of the authors of research articles has to be a native speaker of English. In this study, I did not take this into consideration believing that all members of this particular discourse community, whether "native" or non-native, write to communicate with each other (Swales, 1990), and their linguistic and cultural background should not be used to discriminate against any lexis they utilize to convey messages. In our previous writing, we also argued that it is not possible to distinguish between "native" and "non-native" academic writing because of the diverse multilingual and multicultural nature of academic communities (Nunn & Deveci, 2018). Other researchers also often used SSCI inclusion as a criterion for including articles in their corpus. Believing that this would limit the inclusion of many researchers in the education discourse community, I did not use this criterion either. Rather, the main criterion I used was that all the journals should be peer-reviewed. Another one was that journals should come from a variety of sub-disciplines. Collectively, these criteria resulted in a corpus of 266 research articles from twelve sub-disciplines of educational sciences between 1998 and 2017. Table 1 provides specific information on the corpora included in this study. For practical reasons, I selected texts that were available through open-access. However, I also included a number of journals that were available through the university library where I work.

Another criterion I used was that approximately an equal number of words should be included from each sub-discipline to maximize representation. To this end, 100,000 words were included from each of the twelve sub-disciplines of education, which resulted in a list of 1,167,696 running words in the corpus (excluding the numerical data).

Table 1. Corpus established for the study

Sub-disciplines	Journals	Number of research articles	Word counts
1. Language teaching	TESOL International	18	104,959
2. Special education	European Journal of Special education research	35	95,801
3. Educational technology	The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology	19	104,447
4. Lifelong learning	PAACE	10	
	International Journal of Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning	12	107,262

5. Psychology	Educational & Child Psychology	19	96,317
6. Medicine education	Education in Medicine	20	106,834
	Education for Health	20	
7. Education policy	Education Policy Analysis Archives	13	109,667
8. Art education	International Journal of Education Through Art	20	96,588
9. Higher education	Canadian Journal of Higher Education	10	104,119
	Higher Education Journal	8	
10. Adult education	Adult Education Quarterly	11	98,726
	European Journal for Research on the Education and Learning of Adults	5	
11. Sports education	Journal of Physical Education and Sport	31	105,465
12. Accounting education	Accounting Education	15	103,280
	Total	*266*	*1,233,465**

*This number includes the numerical data in the corpus, which is discarded by the software used to identify vocabulary profile.

Upon the identification of the research articles to be included in this study, the PDF files were converted into Word documents for ease of analysis. For this purpose, I used an online program (http://pdf2docx.com). I checked the converted files meticulously to correct spelling errors that occurred during the conversion phase and excluded tables, figures, acknowledgements, footnotes, author information, references, and appendices from the corpus. I did this to allow the software to process the raw data and discard factors irrelevant to the lexical composition of the corpus.

4.2 Procedures for Choosing Words for the Academic Word List for Education Research Articles

Following Coxhead (2000) and Wan, Liang, and Ge (2008), I adopted three principles in the selection of words for the Academic Word List for Education Research Articles (AWLERA). The first is *frequency,* which refers to the rate or recurrence of word families in the corpus. Similar to Wan, Liang and Ge's corpus (2008), the corpus in this current study was about a third of Coxhead's corpus (2000), reducing the required minimum frequency accordingly to thirty times, at least for AWLERA. The second is *range*, which refers to the word families whose members occur in at least half of the sub-disciplines covered in this study. This principle was essential since "a word count based mainly on the frequency would [be] biased by longer texts and topic-related words" (Coxhead cited in Wan, Liang and Ge, 2008, p. 447). Therefore, I only included word families occurring in at least six of the twelve sub-disciplines in AWLERA. However, I discarded those recurring more frequently than this but in fewer than six of the sub-disciplines focused on in this study. The final principle is *specialized occurrence*, which refers to word families outside of the first 2000 most frequent words in the General Service List (GSL) by West (1953). Words falling under the last principle would include items in the Academic World Lists (AWL) by Coxhead (2000), the University Word List (UWL) by Xue & Nation (1984), and the off-list words which tend to be specific to the corpus under investigation. Off-list words may include technical and other academic words outside of AWL and UWL. In deciding which of the off-list words should be included in the raw data for further analysis, I had to use my intuition. Considering the argument that "the corpus-based approach and the intuition-based approach are not mutually exclusive, [but] are complementary" and "[t]he key to using corpus data is to find the balance between the use of corpus data and the use of one's intuition" (McEnery, Xiao & Tono, 2006, p. 7), I considered my intuition not only necessary but also useful. However, I consulted two other educators to confirm my initial decision on the off-list words and included only word families in AWLERA that we agreed upon unanimously.

I also used an online vocabulary profiler program found at http://www4.caes.hku.hk/vocabulary/profile.htm to identify the lexical profile according to GSL, AWL, UWL, and off-list words. This was followed by the range and frequency check of the identified AWL and off-list words in the corpus. I carried out the former using Microsoft

Excel 2010, and the latter with the help of the search function in Microsoft Word.[3] For both, I paid extra attention to the identification of the word derivations occurring throughout the corpus and discarded variations in spelling. As explained above, only the lexical items that occurred a minimum of thirty times in at least six of the sub-disciplines were included in AWLERA.

5.0 Results

The first research question asked what the vocabulary profile of the chosen education research articles in terms of the General Service List (GSL), the Academic Word List (AWL), the University Word List (UWL), and off-list words. To this end, a 1,167,696 running word corpus was established and analyzed. The results of this query are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Vocabulary Profile of the Corpus

	Frequency	Percentage
1-1,000 words of GSL	830,256	71.10
1,001-2,000 words of GSL	64,372	5.51
AWL words	149,583	12.81
UWL words	475	0.04
Off-list words	123,010	10.53
Total	1,167,696*	100

*This number excludes numerical data in the corpus.

Table 2 shows that 76.61% of the corpus was based on the first 2,000 words. When I further analyzed these words considering their frequencies, I found that a greater percentage of these words was based on function words expressing grammatical and/or structural relationships between words. The most common function word identified was the definite article “the” with a frequency of 72,529 (6.21%), which was followed by “of” (f=44,327, %=3.80%), “and” (f=41,456, %=3.56), “to” (f=33,083, %2.83), “in” (f=29,270, %2.51), “a” (f=19,651, 1.68%), “that” (f=14,254, %=1.22), and “is” (f=1,611, %= 0.99). On the other hand, it appeared that

[3] I am aware of the availability of a program called RANGE developed by Paul Nation for both purposes. However, my attempt to use the software resulted in failure due to technical glitches. Due to this, I had to rely on manual analyses.

12.85% was based on AWL and UWL, and 10.53% on off-list words including discipline-specific lexis, technical words, and other infrequent words.

The second research question sought to identify the most commonly occurring words in education research articles. To this end, I further analyzed a total of 273,068 words from AWL, UWL, and off-list. (AWL, UWL, and off-list) considering their range and frequency across the twelve corpora. Results showed that a total of 177,664 words, including headwords and their derivatives, occurred in six or more of the corpora with at least a frequency of thirty times in the corpus, making their place in the Academic Word List for Education Research Articles (AWLERA). This indicates that AWLERA represents 15.21% of the 1,167,696 running words in the corpus. Of 177,664 words in AWLERA, 68.9% were based on the Academic Word List (AWL), 0.9% were based on the University Word List (UWL), and another 30.2% were based on off-list words. Collectively, these words constituted a list of 590 headwords for AWLERA. (See Appendix A). It needs to be noted that some of the derivatives were used more frequently than their headwords.

A randomly chosen excerpt from the corpus below (Hung, 2016) showed that 75% of it belonged to the General Service List, 15% belonged to the Academic Word List (words in bold), and 10% to the off-list (words in italics), which is fairly representative of the whole corpus's vocabulary profile depicted in Table 2 above. A closer examination of the excerpt showed that all 39 instances of the words in the Academic Word List in the excerpt were covered in AWLERA. On the other hand, 12 out of 25 off-list words (48%), excluding the references for the in-text citations, were also covered in AWLERA. That is, the list covered approximately 26% of the excerpt, which indeed is well above the overall 15.21% AWLERA coverage of the total number of 1,167,696 running words in the corpus.

Nonetheless, although **relevant** studies exploring the effectiveness of TESOL **theories** and **methodologies** agree that **approaches** developed in ESL **contexts** cannot be fully adopted in EFL **contexts** (Li, 1998; Sato, 2002; Su, 2002), the current literature does not *elucidate* the extent to which local teachers use **communicative** language teaching (CLT). Only a few case studies have been **conducted** to explore *obstacles* local teachers **encounter**, and a *scant* number of studies **clarify** how they can **modify** an **instructor**'s **role** to **adapt** the **approach** to local **contexts**. The common **challenges** include **insufficient** teacher **communicative** *competence* and preparation; large class size and limited class time; testing concerns; student resistance because of low English *proficiency*, low **motivation**, and *unwillingness* to

participate; and *antithetical classroom* practices such as **text**-*boundedness*, all-in-English **instruction**, **focus** on form rather than meaning, and **emphasis** on product rather than **process** (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Kuo, 1995; Li, 1998; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; Major & Yamashiro, 2004; Miller, 1998; Prapaisit de Segovia & Hardison, 2009; Rao, 1996, 2002; Savignon & Wang, 2003; Su, 2002; Sugiyama, 2003; Wang, 2002). Some **researchers** have suggested ways to **modify** **communicative** based teaching, for example, by **incorporating** some **elements** of **traditional** pedagogy such as some **explicit** grammar teaching and applying grammar rules in context, balancing *linguistic competence* and **communicative** *competence*, and using both *textbooks* and *authentic* materials (Rao, 2002; Saengboon, 2002; Su, 2002). Other suggestions include allowing enough opportunity for *repetition* and **accurate** reproduction and **creating** chances for **interaction** and meaning *negotiation*. To overcome students' resistance to speaking in class, teachers can build their confidence by avoiding *intrusive* corrections and providing a supportive *atmosphere*; and to *dispel* students' anxieties, teachers can offer clear directions for doing **tasks** and encourage **cooperative** learning. That is, by balancing teacher-centered and student-centered **approaches**, teachers might **re-orient** students to take a **positive** look at CLT (Gao, 2006; Miller, 1998; Mitchell & Lee, 2003; Rao, 1996, 2002). However, these suggestions have been largely **formulated** by **researchers** based on the results of case studies of **instructors** who had *textbook* knowledge of how a **theory** had been *practiced in ESL classrooms* without necessarily having experiences studying abroad.

As a part of the second question aiming to identify the most commonly occurring words in education research articles, I also conducted an analysis to find the range and the frequency of the 590 headwords in AWLERA. The results can be seen in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Comparison of Coverage and Frequency

Range (total number of corpora)	Number of words	Percentage
12	274	46
11	120	20
10	68	12
9	46	8
8	38	6

7	23	4
6	21	4
Total	*590*	*100*

Table 3 shows that almost half of the headwords in AWLERA (46%) occurred in all of the twelve sub-disciplines with the highest frequency (274). One hundred and twenty words (20%) occurred in eleven of the sub-disciplines with the second highest frequency (120). On the other hand, a comparatively lower number of headwords appeared in 10 (12%), 9 (8%), 8 (6%), 7 (4%) and 6 (4%) of the sub-disciplines. When these data are taken together, it is seen that a large majority of the headwords appeared in 10 or more of the corpora derived from a variety of sub-disciplines of education.

To describe the results for the second question in more detail, I also analyzed the data to identify the most frequently occurring word families with their derivatives. The words that appeared ≥ 1000 can be seen in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Words Appearing ≥ 1000

Words	Coverage	Frequency
1. research (researcher)	12	4672
2. analyse (analysis, analytical, analyst, analytically)	12	2308
3. data	12	2101
4. process	12	1917
5. significant (significance, significantly)	12	1773
6. method (methodical, methodological, methodologically, methodology)	12	1624
7. culture (cultural, culturally)	12	1623

8. participate (participant, participation, participatory)	12	1541
9. individual	12	1498
10. identity (identical, identically, identifiable, identification)	12	1458
11. factor	11	1456
12. instruct (instruction, instructional, instructor)	12	1443
13. assess (assessment, assessor)	12	1429
14. design (designer, redesign)	11	1413
15. vary (variable, variably, variability, variance, variant, variation)	12	1350
16. approach (approachable, approachability)	12	1294
17. achieve (achievable, achievement, achiever, underachieve, underachiever, achievability)	12	1274
18. indicate (indication, indicator, indicative)	12	1252
19. practice (practicum, practitioner)	12	1241
20. adult (adulthood)	12	1232
21. physical (physically)	12	1209
22. focus (foci, refocus)	11	1208
23. academy (academia, academically, academician, academics, academic)	12	1196
24. perceive (perception, perceptual, perceptually, perspective)	12	1192
25. score	10	1190
26. engage (engagement, engaging)	12	1181

27. task	11	1173
28. community	12	1157
29. positive (positively, positivist)	12	1145
30. context (contextual, contextualize, contextualization, contextually, decontextualize, contextualism)	12	1102
31. strategy (strategic, strategically)	12	1086
32. create (creation, creative, creativity, creatively, creator)	12	1074
33. respond (respondent, responsive, responsiveness)	12	1038
34. role	11	1029

As is seen in Table 4, the most frequent word was “research” with its derivative “researcher.” To be more precise, there were a staggering number of uses of the word “research” (4,672) and its derivative “researcher.” These were followed by the words “analyze” (2,308) and “data” (2,101) together with their derivatives. It is important to note that each of these top three words are research related. Among other research-related, frequently occurring words are “method” (1624), “participate” (1,541), “vary” (1,350), and “respond” (1,038).

It is worth noting that almost all of the thirty word families in Table 4 appeared across the twelve corpora, except for “factor” (1,456), “task” (1,173), and “role” (1,029) which were detected in eleven of the sub-disciplines, still indicating a high range. Also, when the fact that these words had no derivatives is considered, their high frequency in the corpus becomes evident. Taken together these lexical items accounted for 1.17% of the 1,167,696 running words comprising the corpus.

An analysis of results in response to the second question also revealed certain words that are more directly related to the discipline of education. Examples include “achieve,” “underachiever,” “acquire,” and “baccalaureate.” Not all of these words were constantly present in all twelve sub-disciplines; however, when their derivatives detected in the corpus are also considered, their place in becomes more evident.

6.0 Discussion

The aims of this research was two-fold: first to describe the lexical profile of education research articles comprised of a 1,233,465 running word corpus across twelve sub-disciplines of education, and then to identify the most frequently occurring word families in this corpus. Regarding the former, I found that a great majority of the corpus (76.61%) was based on the first 2,000 words in the General Service List. That is, a greater percentage of lexis covered in the corpus was based on general words which included a variety of function words, the most common of which included “the,” “of,” “and,” “to,” “in,” a,” “that,” and “is,” respectively. These words are similar to those found in earlier research. For example, Fry, Kress & Fountoukidis (2000) also found that these words appeared in their top ten words with a slightly different order.

I also found that the academic words, including those in the Academic Word List and the University Word List, accounted for 12.85% of the corpus, while 10.53% accounted for off-list words. These findings are generally in line with Coady and Huckin’s (1997) observations regarding the lexical make-up of academic texts. However, the percentage of the off-list words, including technical and low-frequency words, in the corpus of this study was significantly higher than Coady and Huckin’s findings (10.53% vs 5%). The same was the case with academic words (12.81% vs 8%). These differences are most probably due to the nature of the academic genre focused in this study. That is, research articles as a distinct genre tend to employ more academic words, topic-specific lexis, and research terminology than, for instance, a text-book. This may have been the reason why the vocabulary coverage in this study differed from earlier observations (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Coxhead, 2000). Despite this, the high Academic Word List coverage in education research articles detected in this study is different from Mozaffari and Moini’s (2014) findings on lexical coverage of education research articles. They found a 4.94% Academic Word List coverage in a 1,710,989-word corpus whereas in this study I found a 12.81% coverage. The comparatively lower coverage in their study is probably because word families were discarded in their study. However, in a more recent study investigating research linguistics articles (Moini & Islamizadeh, 2016), the lexical coverage was comparatively more similar to that of my study. The researchers, who also considered word families, found 72.48% the General Service List, and 10.18% the Academic Word List coverage. It could be inferred from these findings that although education research articles rely more on words in the General Service List, the Academic Word List and off-list coverage tend to be higher than that of more general academic texts.

The second research aim was to identify the most frequently occurring words in education research articles. For this purpose, I analyzed the corpus considering the frequency and range of the word families. The criteria I adopted entailed that the words to include in the list occur in at least half of the sub-disciplines with the minimum frequency of 30 times across the corpus. The result was a total of 590 word families. This is a higher coverage than that of the earlier research conducted by Moini and Islamizadeh (2016). Despite the significantly higher number of running words in their corpus, Moini and Islamizadeh identified 356 words for inclusion in their list. The large difference between the two lists is primarily because the derivatives were discarded in Moini and Islamizadeh's study with an exclusive focus on headwords only. Although Coxhead (2000) claims that "comprehending regularly inflected or derived members of a family does not require much more effort by learners if [learners] know the base word and if they have control of basic word-building processes" (p. 218), in this current preliminary research I consider derivatives to be particularly important since some may be more frequent and more challenging than their headwords. To illustrate, the corpus of this study contains 80 instances of the headword "rely," while its derivative "reliability" occurs more than twice as often (191). Another example is "retain" which appears 57 times while its noun form "retention" appears 71 times. And in some cases, the headword may not even be used at all. Taken together, these reasons make it necessary for word lists to reflect frequently-used derivatives with or without their headwords.

When the words appearing ≥ 1000 times in both lists are compared, there are some striking similarities. Out of twelve words in Moini and Islamizadeh's list (2016) and thirty-two in this current study, nine are common: "research," "process," "data," "context," "approach," "community," "role," "focus," and "individual." The top three words in their study were among the top four in this study. For example, the word "research" was the most frequent word in both studies with similar number of occurrences (4,767 and 4,672). The word "data" was the third most frequent word in both lists. However, there were more instances of it in the corpus of the current study despite its smaller size (2,201 vs. 1,896). Considering rather limited number of its derivatives (except for its singular form "datum," which was absent in the corpus of this current study), this is an interesting finding. Its higher rate of frequency is probably due to the higher number of sub-disciplines covered. On the other hand, the word "process" was used with a similar frequency in both corpora (1,993 and 1,917), while the second most frequent word "analyze" in this study was absent in Moini and Islamizadah's list. They note that although "analysis" occurred 1,748 times in their corpus, they excluded it from the list due to their decision to discard derivatives of headwords. However, considering the apparent significance of this word together with its derivatives (e.g. "analyst," "analytical," and "analytically") for research writing, it seems essential to include them in the list.

I also compared the top thirty-two words of the list generated in this study to a list of medical English words generated from research articles (Wang et al, 2008). In this comparison, I found that their top thirty words also included research vocabulary such as "research," "analyze," "data," "factor," "method," and "indicate." However, it appeared that there were more frequent uses of discipline-specific lexical items in it. Taken together, these data point to a general trend that research writing, be it in education sciences or any other discipline, is more likely to include research-related lexis rather than academic and discipline-specific lexis. The significant place of the latter, however, is also evident in the number and range of words covered in the Academic Word List for Education Research Articles (AWLERA), as well as other lists generated by earlier researchers (e.g. Moini and Islamizadeh, 2016; Mozaffari and Moini's, 2014; Wang et al, 2008).

7.0 Conclusion, Limitations, and Recommendations

Effective academic writing requires a variety of language skills including efficient use of grammar, pragmatic rules, and lexis. In this paper, however, I argued that the effective use of language in research articles may largely depend on the range of lexis available to the authors. With this view, I studied the lexical profile of a 1,233,465 running word corpus derived from 266 journal articles in twelve sub-disciplines of education. The end result is a 590-word list, which should be considered to be a preliminary one.

The findings of the study have various implications. One of these is related to ESP curriculum designers who are preparing education students and faculty for research publication. The Academic Word List for Education Research Articles (AWLERA) can serve as a guide from which lexical items can be chosen and input materials can be prepared accordingly. Learners' exposure to frequently occurring education lexis in this list will help them acquire the essential words more easily. Particularly, if learners are encouraged to compose their own texts using a variety of these words, and they receive regular feedback, their productive knowledge of words in AWLERA will improve.

The results of this study also have implications for assessment of vocabulary competence. High-stake language examinations for academic positions [e.g. Yabancı Dil Bilgisi Seviye Tespit Sınavı (Foreign Languages Proficiency Exam) in Turkey] could base some vocabulary questions on AWLERA, reflecting the most frequently occurring words in the genre. This would have a positive backwash effect on the teaching and learning of English for specific purposes.

Other recommendations can be made for future researchers. In this study, I investigated the range of frequency of words with no consideration of how they were used in their co-contexts. Although corpus analysis has been established as an effective method used to reveal lexical richness, it has been noted that this kind of analysis can only help identify words used in a given text and provide information on their frequency. However, it doesn't reveal data on how the words are used (Bardel, 2016). In order to circumvent this disadvantage, qualitative analyses can be carried out on most frequently used words. To this end, concordance lines could be utilized to identify co-contexts in which these words appear. This would allow researchers to identify variations in the meanings of particular words, their connotations, and collocational uses.

It is also important to acknowledge the limited number of journals included under each of the education sub-disciplines. This likely had an effect on the lexical composition of the given sub-disciplines. And this is the main reason why this study should be considered to be a preliminary one. In order to increase representation, future researchers could consider increasing the number of journals included for each sub-discipline. As is also mentioned above, I acknowledge the fact that vocabulary alone is not a sufficient indicator of language competency, and that other aspects such as grammar and pragmatic rules also play an important part in effective academic writing. Further research could be undertaken to investigate how all these language elements support each other and act together in helping authors express themselves.

All in all, I hope that this research has contributed to the existing knowledge on vocabulary for academic purposes in general, and educational sciences in particular. The vocabulary list generated through a focus on a particular genre in this study may be supplemented by other studies incorporating more varied text types such as course books, lecture and seminar notes, conference presentations and proceedings, as well as scholarly discussions on educational issues. In this way, a more comprehensive profile of education-specific lexis could be produced.

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Appendix- The Academic Word List for Education Research Articles (AWLERA)

A	abstract, abstraction, abstractly / academy, academia, academic, academically, academicians, academics / access, accessible, accessibility / accommodate, accommodation / accompany / accomplish, accomplishment / accuracy, accurate, accurately / achieve, achievement, achievable, achievability, achiever, underachieve, underachiever, underachievement / acknowledge, acknowledgement / acquire, acquisition / activate, activation / adapt, adaptable, adaptability, adaptation, adaptive / adequate, adequately, adequacy, inadequacy, inadequately, inadequate / adjust, adjustment, readjust / administer, administrate, administration, administrative, administratively, administrator / adolescence, adolescent / adult, adulthood / advocate, advocacy / affect / affective / affirm, affirmative, affirmatively, affirmation / aggregate, aggregation / aid / align, alignment / allocate, allocation, reallocation / alter, alteration, unaltered / alternate, alternative, alternatively / ambiguous, ambiguity, unambiguous / analyze, analysis, analytic, analytical, analytically, analyst / annual, annually / anonymity, anonymous, anonymously / anticipate, anticipation, unanticipated / apparent, apparently / appendix / appreciable, appreciate, appreciative / approach, approachable, approachability / appropriate, appropriately, appropriateness, inappropriate, inappropriately / approximate, approximately, approximation / area / arguably, argumentation, argumentative / articulate, articulation / aspect / aspire, aspiration / assert, assertion, assertive, assertively, assertiveness / assess, assessment, assessor / assign, assignment / assimilate, assimilation, assimilator / assist, assistance, assistant / assume, assumption / assure, assurance, reassurance / attach, attachment / attain, attainable, attainment / attentive, attentively / attitude / attribute, attributable, attribution / attrition / auditory / authentic, authenticity / author, authorship / authority, authoritative / automatic, automatically, automated, automation / autonomy, autonomous, autonomously / available, availability, unavailable, unavailability / aware, awareness, unaware
B	baccalaureate / bachelor / barrier / benefit, beneficial, beneficiary / bias, biased, unbiased / bond / brief, briefly, briefing, brevity / broaden / bully
C	candidate / capacity, capable, capability, incapable, incapability, incapacity / capture/ category, categorize, categorization / certify, certificate, certification / challenge, challenging / channel / chapter / chart / circumstance / cite, citation / clarify, clarification / classic, classical / classmate / coach / cognitive, cognitively, cognition, metacognition, metacognitive / collaborate, collaboration, collaborative, collaboratively, collaborator / colleague, comment, commentary, commentator / commission, commissioner / commit, commitment / communicate, communicator, communication, communicative,

	uncommunicative, communicatively, miscommunication / community / compatible, compatibility, incompatible, incompatibility / competence, competency, competent, competently, incompetence, incompetent / competitive, competitively, competitiveness, competitor / complement, complementary / complex, complexity / component / comprehend, comprehensible, comprehensibility, comprehension, incomprehensible, incomprehension / comprehensive, comprehensively / comprise / compulsory / compute, computer, computerized, computation, computational / concentrate, concentration / concept, conceptual, conceptually, conceptualize, conceptualization / conclude, conclusion, conclusive, conclusively, inconclusive / concrete, concretely / concurrent, concurrently / conduct / conference / confidential, confidentiality / confirm, confirmation / conflict / consensus / consent / consequence, consequent, consequently / converse, conversational / considerable, considerably / consist / consistent, consistently, consistency, inconsistency, inconsistent / constant, constantly / constitute, constitution, constituent, constituency / constrain, constraint / construct, constructive, constructively, construction, constructionist, constructionism, constructivism, constructivist, deconstruct, deconstruction, reconstruct, reconstruction / consult, consultant, consultancy, consultation, consultative / consume, consumer, consumption / contact / contemporary / context, contextual, contextualize, contextualism, contextualization, contextually, decontextualize / continuum, continuingly, continuation / contract, contractor / contradict, contradiction, contradictory / contrary, contrarily / contrast, contrastive / contribute, contribution, contributor / conventional, conventionally, unconventional / converge, convergence, convergent, converger / converse, conversely / convey / convince, convinced, convincing, convincingly / cooperate, cooperation, cooperative, cooperatively, cooperativeness / coordinate, coordination, coordinator / cope / core / corporate, corporation / correlate, correlation, correlational / correspond, correspondence, correspondingly / counsel, counselor / couple / create, creativity, creator, creation, creative, creatively / credit / criteria, criterion / criticize, criticism, critique / crucial, crucially / culture, cultural, culturally / curriculum, curricula, curricular, extracurricular / cycle, cyclical
D	data / debate / decade / decline / deficit, deficient, deficiency / define, definition, redefine / demonstrate, demonstration / deny, denial / dependable, dependence, dependency / depress, depressed, depressing, depression, depressive / derive, derivation / design, designer, redesign / despite / detect, detection, detectable / determinant, determinism, determinist, deterministic / developmental / deviate, deviant, deviance, deviation / device / devote, devoted, devotion / diagnose, diagnosable, diagnosis, diagnostic / dialogic, dialogical, dialogically, dialogism, dialogistic, dialogue / didactic, didactical, didactically / differentiate, differentiation / dimension, dimensional / disable,

	disabled, disability / discourse / discriminate, discrimination / display / disposition, dispositional / disrupt, disruption, disruptive, disruptiveness / distinct, distinctly, distinction, distinctive / distract, distracter, distractibility, distraction, distractor / distribute, distribution, distributor, redistribute / diverse, diversify, diversity, diversely, diversification / document, documentation / domain / domestic / dominant, dominate, dominantly, dominance, domination / drama, dramatic, dramatically, dramatization, dramatize / duration / dynamic, dynamics, dynamically
E	economic, economical, economically, economics, economists / efficacy, self-efficacy / element / elementary / elicit, elicitation / eligible, eligibility, ineligible / eliminate, elimination / emerge, emergence, emergent / emotion, emotionally, emotive / empathy, empathetic, empathize / emphasis, emphasize, overemphasis / empirical, empirically / empower, empowerment / enable / encounter / endure, endurance / energy, energetic, energize / engage, engagement, engaging / enhance, enhancement / enrich, enrichment / enroll, enrolment / ensure / enthusiasm, enthusiastic, enthusiast, enthusiastically / environment, environmental, environmentally / equate, equation, equivalence, equivalent, inequity / equip, equipment / error, erroneous, erroneously / establish, establishment / esteem, self-esteem / estimate, estimation, overestimate, overestimation, underestimate / ethic, ethical, ethically, ethics, unethical / ethnic, ethnically, ethnicity / evaluate, evaluation, evaluative, evaluator / eventual, eventually / evidence, evident, evidently / evolve, evolution, evolutionary / exceed, exceedingly / exclude, exclusion, exclusionary, exclusive, exclusively / execute, execution, executive / exemplar, exemplary, exemplify / exhibit, exhibition / expand, expansion, expansive / experiential, experientially / expert, expertise / explicit, explicitly, explicitness / expose, exposure / external, externally, externalize, externalization / extract, extraction / extrinsic, extrinsically
F	facilitate, facilitator, facilitation, facilitative / facility / factor / feature / feedback / final, finally, finalize / finance, financial, financially / flexible, flexibility, inflexible / fluent, fluently, fluency / focus, foci, refocus / format / formative, formatively / formula, formulae, formulate, formulation, reformulate, reformulation / foster / foundation, foundational, founder / framework / frustrate, frustrated, frustrating, frustration / fulfill, fulfillment / function, functional, functionally, functionality / fund / fundamental, fundamentally
G	generalize, generalizable, generalization, generalizability, overgeneralize / generate, generation / globe, global, globally, globalized, globalization / goal / grade / graduate, graduation / grant / guidance, guideline

H	harmony, harmonious, harmoniously, harmonize / hence / heterogeneous, heterogeneity / hierarchy, hierarchical, hierarchically / highlight / holistic, holistically / homogeneous, homogeneously, homogeneity, homogenize / humanity, humanism, humanist, humanistic, humanitarian, humane, humanities / hypothesis, hypothesized, hypothetical
I	identity, identify, identifiable, identification, identical, identically / ideology, ideological / ignore, ignorance, ignorant / illustrate, illustration, illustrative, illustrator / image, imagery / immerse, immersion, immersive / immigrant, immigration / impact / impair, impairment / implement, implementation, implementer / implication, implicated / imply, implicit, implicitly, implicitness / incentive / incidence, incidental / incline, inclination / income / incorporate, incorporation / index / indicate, indication, indicative, indicator / individual, individually, individualize, individualization, individualized, individualism individualistic, individuality / induce / inductive, inductively / infer, inference / informative, informational, informant / infrastructure / inherit, inherent, inherently, inheritance / inhibit, inhibition, inhibitor / initial, initially / initiate, initiation, initiative, initiator / innovate, innovation, innovative, innovator / input / insight, insightful / inspire, inspiring, inspiration, inspirational / instance / institute, institution, institutional, institutionalization, institutionalize, institutionally / instruct, instruction, instructional, instructor, instructive / integrate, integrity, integral, integration, integrative, integrator / intellect, intellectual, intellectually / intelligent, intelligence / intense, intensely, intensify, intensification, intensive, intensively / interact, interaction, interactional, interactive, interactivity / internal, internalization, internalize, internally / intern, internship / interpret, interpretation, interpretative, interpreter interpretive misinterpret misinterpretation / intervene, intervention / intrinsic, intrinsically / intuition, intuitive, intuitively / invest / investigate, investigator, investigative / involve, involvement / isolate, isolated, isolation, isolationism / issue / item
J	job / journal / justify, justifiable, justifiably, justification
K	kindergarten, kindergartener
L	label / labor / lecture, lecturer / legal, legally, legalized, legislation, legislative, legislator, legislature / legitimacy, legitimate, legitimately, legitimation, legitimization, legitimize / liberal, liberalism, liberalization, neo-liberal / likewise / link, linkage / literate, literacy, illiteracy, illiterate / locate, location / logic, logical, logically, illogic / longitudinal, longitudinally
M	mainstream / maintain, maintenance / major, majority / mandate, mandatory / manipulate, manipulation, manipulative / manual, manually / mature, maturation, immaturity, immature

	/ maximize, maximum, maximization / mechanism / media, medium / medical, medically / mental, mentally, mentality / mentor, mentorship, mentee / method, methodology, methodical, methodological, methodologically / minimum, minimal, minimally, minimize, minimalisation / ministry, ministerial / minor / minority / mode / modify, modification / monitor / motive, motivate, motivated, motivating, motivation, motivational, motivationally, motivator, demotivate, demotivated, demotivating, demotivation / mutual, mutually
N	negative, negatively / network / neutral, neutrality, neutralize / nevertheless / nonetheless / norm, normal, normally, normality, normalization, normalize, non-normality, abnormal abnormality / notion
O	objective, objectively, objectivity / obstacle / obtain / obvious, obviously / occupation, occupational / occur, occurrence / ongoing / opt, option, optional / oral, orally / orient, orientation, oriented / outcome / output / overall / overlap
P	panel / paradigm / paragraph / parameter / participant, participate, participation, participatory, participative / partnership / passive, passively, passivity / pathway / pedagogy, pedagogic, pedagogical, pedagogically, pedagogue / peer / percent, percentage / perceive, perception, perceptive, perceptual, perceptually / period, periodic, periodical, periodically / persist, persistent, persistently, persistence, persistency / personalize, personalization, personality / perspective / phase / phenomena, phenomenon / philosophy, philosopher, philosophical, philosophically / physical, physically / placement / policy, policymakers, policymaking / portion / pose / positive, positively, positivist / potent, potential, potentially, potency / practitioner, practicum / pragmatic, pragmatically, pragmatics, pragmatism, pragmatist / precede, preceding, precedence, precedent, unprecedented, unprecedentedly / precise, precisely, precision / predict, predictable, prediction, predictability, predictive, predictor, unpredictability, unpredictable / predominate, predominantly, predominance / preliminary, preliminarily / previous, previously / primary, primarily / principal, principally / principle / prior, priority, prioritize, prioritization / procedure, procedural / proceed / process / professional, professionally, professionalism / proficient, proficiency, proficiently / project, projection / promote / promoter / promoters / promotion, promotional / proportion, proportional, proportionate / prospective / prospect, prospective / protocol / psychology, psychological, psychologically, psychologist / publish, publisher, publication / purchase / pursue, pursuit
Q	qualitative, qualitatively / quantitative, quantitatively / quote, quotation
R	random, randomly, randomize, randomization / range / ratio / rational, rationally, rationale, rationality, rationalization, rationalize / react, reaction, reactionary / readiness / recall /

	reception, receptive, receptivity, receptor, recipient / recover, recovery, recoverable / refine, refinement / reform, reformation / region, regional, regionally / register, registration / regulate, regulation, regulatory, self-regulated / reinforce, reinforcement / reject, rejection / relax, relaxing, relaxed, relaxation / release / relevant, relevance, relevancy, irrelevant / rely, reliable, reliably, reliability, reliance, reliant, self-reliance, unreliable / reluctant, reluctance / remove, removal, removable / repetition, repetitive, repetitious, repetitively / require, requirement / research, researcher / reside, residence, resident, residential, residency / resilient, resiliency, resilience / resolve, unresolved / resource, resourceful / respond, respondent, responsive, responsiveness / restrict, restricted, restriction, restrictive, restrictiveness, unrestricted / retain, retention / reveal / reverse, reversal, reversible, irreversible / revise, revision / role / rural
S	scaffold / scenario / schedule / scheme, schema, schemata, schematic / scholar, scholarly, scholarship / scope / score / section / sector / secure, security, securely, insecure, insecurity / seek, seeker / select, selection / selective, selectively / seminar / sensor, sensory, sensual, sensually, sensation / sequence, sequential, sequentially / series / session, sessional / sex, sexual, sexually, sexuality, sexism / shift / significance, significant, significantly, insignificant / similar, similarity, similarly, dissimilar / simulate, simulation, simulator / simultaneous, simultaneously / site / sociable, societal, socialize, socialization / sole, solely / somewhat / source / specify, specific, specifics, specificity, specification, specifically / stable, stabilize, stabilization, stability, instability, instable, unstable / standardize, standardized, standardization / statistics, statistical, statistically, statistician / status / stimulus, stimuli, stimulation, stimulating, stimulant / strategy, strategic, strategically / stress, stressful, stressor / structure, structural, structurally, unstructured, restructure / style / submit, submission / subsequent, subsequently / sufficient, sufficiency, sufficiently, suffice, insufficiently, insufficiency / summary, summarize, summarization / supervise, supervision, supervisor, supervisory / survey / survive, survival, survivor / sustain, sustainable, sustainability, unsustainable / symbol, symbolic, symbolically, symbolize / synthesis, synthesize
T	talent, talented / target / task / taxonomy, taxonomic, taxonomically / team / technical, technically / technique / technology, technological, technologically / tense, tension / text, textual, textbook / theme, thematic, thematically / theory, theorize, theorist, theoretical, theoretically / thereby / topic, topical / tradition, traditional, traditionally / trait / transfer, transferable, transferability, transference / transform, transformation, transformational, transformative / transit, transition, transitional, transitory / transmit, transmission,

	transmitter / transport, transportation / trend / triangulate, triangulation / trigger / tutor, tutorial, tutee
U	ultimate, ultimately / undergraduate / underlie, underlying / undertake / unique, uniquely, uniqueness / utilize, utilization
V	valid, validity, validate, validation, invalid, invalidity, invalidate / vary, variation, variant, variance, variably, variable, variability / version / via / virtual, virtually / vision, visual, visible, visibility, visually, visualization, invisible, invisibility / vocabulary / vocational, vocationally / volume / voluntary, voluntarily, volunteer, involuntary
W	wellbeing / whereas / workshop

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Development of Reading Skills in an EAP Programme: A Longitudinal Study

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Abstract

In this study, the reading subskills of learners at an English medium university in Japan were measured periodically until they completed EAP, a period of two to five semesters. The data were used to increase understanding of the reading comprehension proficiency of the learners at the point of entry to the university, to measure the growth in reading subskills during EAP and to ascertain the learners' readiness for English medium study at the point of transition from EAP to the content-based curriculum. In addition, multiple regression was employed to gain a deeper understanding of the predictive ability of each reading subskill to overall reading comprehension proficiency. The students improved significantly in all three reading subskills measured. The results of the regression analysis showed that language comprehension proficiency and high and mid-frequency vocabulary knowledge are significantly predictive of reading comprehension proficiency, while total vocabulary size and word recognition speed are not.

Keywords: Reading proficiency, Reading subskills, Word recognition, Word decoding, Vocabulary size

Introduction

In the context of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes, whose aim is to prepare learners with first languages other than English for English Medium Instruction (EMI), reading would seem to be the skill of primary concern. After all, the majority of class content in undergraduate degree programmes is acquired through reading required texts. This is evidenced by the concept of 'reading for a degree' and the use of the word 'reading' as a synonym for 'studying' in some varieties of English. Furthermore, academic success and student retention have both been linked to library use (Goodall & Pattern, 2011). This suggests that students who read more are more likely to successfully complete their programme of study. In regard to students with first languages other than English, previous studies have measured learners' competence in or growth in particular reading subskills over a period of time (e.g. Coulson, 2014; Crossley, Salsbury & Kyle, 2016; Read, 1988) but there is little research evaluating growth in multiple reading subskills over an extended period of time.

The literature shows that accurate and fast word form recognition, knowledge of the meanings of a large number of words and language comprehension proficiency all contribute to a learner's ability to understand written text. However, no previous research has measured growth in all of these reading subskills over an extended period of time. In the present study, the reading subskills of learners were measured at the time of entering an English medium university in Japan. They were then measured at the end of each semester until the learners completed the EAP reading programme, a period of two to five semesters, depending on each learner's incoming English language proficiency level. The data collected from the measurements were used in order to gain a deeper understanding of the reading comprehension proficiency of the learners at the point of entry to the university, to measure growth in reading subskills over the time spent in the EAP reading programme and to ascertain the learners' readiness for undergraduate EMI study at the point of departure from EAP and entry to the undergraduate content-based curriculum. In addition, multiple regression was employed to gain a deeper understanding of the predictive ability of each reading subskill to overall reading comprehension proficiency. The research questions for the present study are:

1. How proficient are learners entering an EMI programme in Japan in terms of word decoding speed, vocabulary size and language comprehension proficiency in English?

2. To what extent do the learners' word decoding speed, vocabulary size and language comprehension proficiency in English grow over the time spent in the EAP reading programme?

3. How proficient are the learners in terms of word decoding speed, vocabulary size and language comprehension proficiency in English at the time of leaving the EAP reading programme and beginning undergraduate English Medium Instruction?

4. To what extent do word decoding speed, vocabulary size and language comprehension proficiency predict English language reading comprehension proficiency?

Review of Literature

Components of L2 Reading Comprehension Proficiency

Literature in the area suggests that the three measurable sub-skills that predict the largest portion of L2 reading comprehension proficiency are L2 comprehension proficiency, word recognition ability and vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Ahmed, Wagner & Kantor, 2012; Koda, 2005). Harrington and Roche (2014) measured recognition vocabulary size, which combines vocabulary size and word recognition speed. They claim that both skills are essential for skilled reading and that measuring both vocabulary size and retrieval speed can provide a measurement which is more sensitive than either measure alone. Thus, in order to gain increased understanding of the state of students' reading comprehension abilities, it would seem necessary to include measures of their word retrieval speed, vocabulary knowledge and language comprehension proficiency.

Word Decoding

Word decoding involves the accurate and fast retrieval of word forms from memory. Being able to decode written text is the most fundamental skill at the heart of reading proficiency for both L1 and L2 learning readers. Research in the field of L1 reading has suggested that there is a strong connection between reading fluency and comprehension of written text (Rasinski & Hoffman, 2006). Sparks et al. (1997) found that L2 word decoding is highly relevant in predicting L2 language comprehension proficiency. While Grabe (2009) states that word recognition fluency not only needs to be focused on in the teaching of reading but also needs to be reinforced consistently in order to maintain the fluency. Gough and Tunmer (1986) as well as Hoover and Gough (1990) claim that in the early stages of learning to read, word decoding is highly predictive of reading comprehension proficiency, but once a certain reading proficiency level is achieved, the strength of prediction of word decoding decreases. This suggests that word decoding is an important component of reading comprehension proficiency especially for students of lower English proficiency levels.

If learners are not yet proficient in word decoding, it appears that they may struggle with comprehension even at the sentence and paragraph level. Therefore, it is easy to imagine increased difficulty when trying to comprehend text at the global level. “Reading assessment studies, in fact, suggest that fluency-based measures are better discriminators than accuracy-based measures, offering stronger correlations with general reading competence.” (Koda, 2005, p. 251) Although it is widely agreed that reading comprehension relies on word decoding skills, word decoding speed is often not included in assessments of reading proficiency. There appears to be good evidence to support the incorporation of measurement of word decoding speed in measures of L2 reading proficiency. However, so far measurement of word decoding speed has mostly been conducted within the arena of experimental studies, rather than as a measurable component of L2 reading proficiency (Harrington & Roche, 2014).

Vocabulary Knowledge

Clearly, apart from being able to decode the word forms, learners also need to know the meaning of the words they read in order to understand the text. When there are a large number of unknown words in a text, learners try to construct the meaning of the text from the few words they do know, which invariably leads to an inaccurate understanding of the text. Whether reading in the L1 or an L2, learners who know more words read better than those with a smaller vocabulary (Koda, 2005; Lee, 2011; Nation, 2001; Verhoeven, Leeuwe & Vermeer, 2011). In fact, Koda (2005) suggests that "vocabulary knowledge correlates more highly with reading ability than any other variable" (p. 186). Previous studies have found correlations of between 0.5 and 0.78 (Alderson, 2005; Laufer, 1992a; Laufer, 1996; Qian, 2002) between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension ability. Moreover, more recently some experts have stated that the two are reciprocal (Koda, 2005; Nation, 2001). That is; the more vocabulary a learner knows, the better they can comprehend written text. On the other hand, the better a learner can understand written text, the more vocabulary they are likely to learn through reading. While the breadth of vocabulary knowledge has been found to be a significant predictor, Nergis (2013) found that depth of vocabulary knowledge was not a significant factor predicting L2 reading comprehension proficiency.

If the number of words known has such an important role in predicting reading comprehension proficiency, how many words do students generally know and how many can they be expected to know? Generally, researchers have found that learners need to know between 95% and 98% of words in text in order to be successful in reading it. A text coverage of 95% will enable using the text for learning to read, while 98% enables learners to use the text for reading to learn (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1992b). It has been stated that knowledge of around 5,000 words is necessary to read and understand unsimplified texts (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Schmidt, Schmidt & Clapham, 2001). However, Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) found that knowledge of the 5,000 most frequent words would only provide 90-95% coverage. Since 95% coverage is the minimum level learners would need in order to be successful in intensive reading, it would seem that this may not be quite enough. Indeed, others have stated that 8,000 or 9,000 (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Nation, 2006) words are necessary to read and understand unsimplified general texts. Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) found that, while native-speakers of English in an undergraduate programme knew 14,000 to 17,000 words, 10,000 words was the minimum level at which L2 users could be accepted into an English language undergraduate programme. Therefore, presumably 10,000 words would also be sufficient to successfully study in English at the undergraduate level.

Barrow, Nakanishi and Ishino (1999) found that Japanese students knew only 2,304 of the most frequent 4,000 words at the time of entering university. Meanwhile, Hasegawa, Chujo and Nishigaki (2010) suggest that the vocabulary size of students who complete the foreign language curriculum should be 1,500 words for junior high school and 3,500 for senior high school. Furthermore, it has often been found that the usual rate of growth in vocabulary size is around 500 to 600 words per year (Laufer, 1995; Milton, 2009; Milton & Meara, 1995).

However, Schmitt and Meara (1997) found that in the Japanese context learners' vocabulary only increased by 330 words on average over one academic year. As stated by Barrow, Nakanishi and Ishino (1999), there is a need for further research investigating vocabulary growth over time. The present study aims to contribute to filling this gap in the literature.

Measuring Vocabulary Knowledge

Using the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) to measure vocabulary size has been fairly common. There is a formula by which the knowledge at each vocabulary level is multiplied in order to extrapolate the knowledge of vocabulary at one level to other levels. This practice is based on the frequency model of vocabulary learning, which posits that learners should know more vocabulary at higher frequency levels and progressively less at each level of lower frequency.

However, as demonstrated by Milton (2007), a large number of learners do not fit the frequency model for a number of reasons. Most relevant to the current study is that, while L1 learners and learners in ESL contexts are exposed to language in a wide range of contexts, which overall is more likely to fit the frequency model, learners of English in an EFL environment, such as that in Japan, have had exposure to English almost exclusively through textbooks and the textbooks are not necessarily created on the basis of frequency level. In particular, Milton and Vassiliu (2000), as well as Ruegg and Brown (2014), found a large amount of infrequent vocabulary in English language textbooks. Learners who have learnt the language in an EFL context, relying on these kinds of textbooks for vocabulary acquisition, will be disadvantaged by the idealistic model of vocabulary size measured using the VLT as the vocabulary size estimates will not give credit for the potentially large number of low-frequency words known by them and gives potentially disproportionate credit for high frequency words, which these learners are less likely to know.

Another widely used test to measure vocabulary size is the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation & Beglar, 2007). The VST was developed with the aim of determining the number of words a learner knows. However, it has also been criticized due to the fact that the sample size is only 5 words per 1,000 word frequency level. Thus, it is a fairly superficial measurement (Read, 2000). Testing knowledge of only five words at each frequency level would appear to decrease the reliability of the test. In fact, Beglar (2010) conducted a validation of the test with 170 Japanese learners of English and 19 native speakers of English and found that the test has high reliability, over 0.95, as well as good item fit measures.

Read (2000) claims that the VST "can give a more representative picture of the overall state of a learner's vocabulary level than an in-depth probe of a limited number of words" at a limited number of frequency levels because it measures vocabulary knowledge at every level up to the 20,000 word level (p. 115). Although clearly it would be preferable for a vocabulary size test to test a large number of words at every level, it is equally clear that such a test would require a considerable amount of time to administer, and thus it would be useful only to a small number of researchers. The VST measures knowledge at every word level, thus increasing validity, while being able to be conducted in around 30 minutes, thus increasing practicality.

Another criticism of the VST has been the multiple-choice format of the test. It has been stated that learners may use test-taking strategies, such as guessing. Due to the format of the test, with four possible answers provided to each question, it is clear that random guessing alone could measure a learner's vocabulary size at 5,000 words, a quarter of the 20,000 measured, even if they do not know a single word of English. However, the instructions of the test direct test-takers to skip items they do not know and only answer those they know, or think they know. If the test is being used only for research purposes and the results have no stakes for the learners, it is difficult to imagine why they would try to guess items they did not know when they had been instructed to skip them, since skipping them would be quicker and easier. Furthermore, Shillaw (1999) found that Japanese learners in particular guessed less than learners from other cultural contexts.

Overall, the VLT may be considered appropriate for measuring vocabulary size only if it can be determined that the learners being tested fit the frequency model of vocabulary knowledge. Since the learners in the current study were mainly from EFL backgrounds, research suggests that they would not fit the frequency model and thus the VST would be a better measure of vocabulary size and that learners should be encouraged to skip questions if the words were unfamiliar to them.

Language Comprehension Proficiency

For measuring language comprehension proficiency in terms of academic English, Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) Institutional Testing Programme (ITP), TOEFL Internet-Based Testing (iBT) and International English Language Testing System (IELTS) are the main language proficiency tests in use. However, both TOEFL iBT and IELTS are expensive, which poses a difficulty when conducting large-scale research using language comprehension proficiency as a variable. TOEFL ITP is generally less valued as an overall test of language proficiency, due to its lack of language production tasks. However, in the context of assessing language comprehension proficiency, there is less difference between the tests.

Both Harrington and Roche (2014) and Terraschke and Wahid (2011) have stated that overly general measures of academic English proficiency, such as TOEFL or IELTS scores, may be problematic, since they are not intended to measure the full range of academic English skills and are not sensitive enough to measure short-term growth. However, since the TOEFL ITP contains sections in both aspects of language comprehension (listening and reading) and was already in use at the institution where the current research was carried out, it was decided to use the TOEFL ITP in order to measure language comprehension proficiency.

The TOEFL ITP includes three sub-sections: listening comprehension, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension. In order to improve the sensitivity of the TOEFL ITP as a measure of language comprehension proficiency, rather than using the total test score, it was decided to use the sum of the listening and reading sub-section scores. Although visual decoding is unique to the skill of reading, Koda (2005) claims that most of comprehension proficiency is shared between the two aspects of language comprehension. She also states that, once a certain proficiency threshold has been achieved and learners move beyond the learning-to-read stage to the reading-to-learn stage, the language comprehension proficiency component of reading comprehension proficiency plays a greater role than visual decoding of words.

In terms of a long-term development, a previous study that tracked changes in TOEFL ITP scores over time was conducted by Crossley, Salsbury and Kyle (2016). At week 6 the students in their study had an average TOEFL ITP score of 358.33, while at the end of the year (46 weeks later) they had an average score of 458.83. Thus, the scores increased by 100.5 over a period of 46 weeks.

Research Methods

Context

The current research was conducted at an international university in Japan where all classes are taught in English. The university is rather small, with an average yearly intake of around 180 students. There are several distinctive features that make this university unique. Most importantly, it is an EMI university with more than half of the entire faculty being non-Japanese. Students are required to live in an on-campus dormitory for the first year, usually sharing a room with an international student. They are also required to study abroad for one academic year (two full semesters). In order to begin the university's one-year study abroad program, which is a requirement for graduation, students must have a total score of 550 or over in TOEFL ITP (or 80 or above in TOEFL iBT or 6.5 or above in IELTS) and a grade point average (GPA) of 2.5 or over (which is halfway between a C+ and a B-)

Incoming matriculated students are placed in one of the four levels in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme. All entrants take a TOEFL ITP test, and are placed based on their TOEFL score into EAP 1, EAP 2, EAP 3, or EAP Bridge. Students with the TOEFL score of 479 or lower are placed in EAP 1; those with the score of 480 and 499 are placed in EAP 2 and those with 500 or higher in EAP 3. Students with extensive international background, including three or more years of experience attending a school where English is the medium of instruction and a total TOEFL score of at least 550, can be placed in the EAP Bridge program. In addition to a high TOEFL score, those students must also pass a reading/writing placement test and a speaking/listening interview test.

To be promoted to a next level, students are required to improve their TOEFL score as well as to achieve the set GPA. EAP 1 students need to have a GPA of 2.0 or higher, which means C average in all skills classes to move on to EAP 2; EAP 2 students need the minimum of TOEFL score of 500 and a GPA of 2.0 or higher. EAP 3 students are required to have C- or better in all three skills classes (speaking/listening, writing, and reading) in order to exit from the EAP programme. Every EAP level requires students to enroll in a reading class. Depending on the level at which they start, students have to take one to four semesters of reading classes before they exit from the programme.

The EAP reading programme aims to teach a variety of reading skills and provide students with specific reading strategies. For instance, in the EAP 1 reading class, students engage in both intensive reading and extensive reading while aiming at acquisition of the 2,000 most frequently used words. The EAP 1, EAP 2 and EAP3 reading curricula require students to read extensively for around 3 hours per week, making use of graded readers available on campus. In addition, the students in those three levels work on fluency through speed reading (timed reading) exercises as part of the reading curriculum. EAP 3 students work on longer and more authentic texts while mainly focusing on reading strategies and acquisition of the Academic Word List (AWL) words. They are also introduced to a variety of note-taking skills, especially focusing on the Cornell note-taking system, as well as highlighting and annotating texts.

Another target skill which every EAP reading class tries to teach is collocations through having students exposed to common collocations while reading a text as well as through having them use target word collocations in a speaking and writing production format. In the reading class at every level, students are asked to broaden their receptive and productive vocabulary skills, and reading strategies while also increasing their reading fluency.

Participants

All newly matriculated students were asked to participate in the current study. The TOEFL scores which were used to place the students ranged from 417 to 617. Their English proficiency varied due to different language learning backgrounds. However, the majority of the participants were Japanese who had graduated from a typical Japanese high schools without any long-term study abroad experience. The participants took the first Word Recognition Test and the VST one week before the spring semester started in April 2014. They were asked to take the Word Recognition test and the VST again at the end of every semester until they reached the end of the EAP reading programme, but some students failed to show up to a class where the VST was given. As a result, the final number of participants was 144 out of the total number of 171 new-intake students in the semester. Each student took the tests from 2 to 5 times. On average, the students stayed in the program for just less than three semesters (three semesters equaling one academic year).

Instruments

Word Decoding

In order to measure the word decoding speed of the participants, the Word Recognition Test (WRT) (Coulson, 2014) was used. This test was selected because it is a quick test, which is easy to administer in a regular classroom, without the need for a computer lab. In addition, it was created on the basis of the JACET 8000 word lists, which are used in the Japanese junior high school and high school curriculum and it has been tested with East Asian (including Japanese) learners of English. Coulson (2014) used the test with Japanese students at the time of entering university and found that the students considered to have a basic level English proficiency got an average score of 0, whereas the students considered to have an advanced level of English proficiency got an average score of 21. He also found that the test-retest reliability of the WRT was acceptable, at 0.73.

The WRT consists of a page of word strings, which need to be parsed at speed, and a page of letter strings, which also need to be parsed at speed. Learners who are beyond the beginning stage of English language proficiency should have some level of automaticity in parsing words, the skill involved to word decoding during reading, but should not have any automaticity in parsing letters, as this is not a skill which is used in practice. If learners can parse words and letters at the same speed, the resulting score would be 0, indicating 0 difference between word parsing and letter parsing speed and also indicating 0 automaticity in word decoding. A negative score is an indication of dyslexia in L1 readers, and can indicate word decoding difficulties in L2 readers. Normal L1 adults have measured WRT scores of around 90, while L1 readers that are mildly challenged in reading have measured scores of around 66 (Coulson, 2014). Logically, it should be expected that first year university students, who have studied English at the secondary education level for 6 years and are relatively proficient in English, should have scores similar to or slightly lower than those of mildly challenged L1 readers.

Vocabulary Size

Version A of the VST was used in order to measure vocabulary size. As mentioned above, the VST is not without criticism. However, for the given population, which includes mainly learners from an EFL background, many of whom have learnt vocabulary which has not been based on the frequency model, and which also includes a small number of L1 learners, there is no other test that would be appropriate. As mentioned above, the VLT would give an unfair disadvantage to the EFL learners, who know a relatively large number of low frequency words due to their educational background, as well as to the L1 learners who would know a large number of low frequency words beyond the levels measured by the VLT. It is for these reasons that the VST was chosen for the present research.

The instructions for the test were followed closely, and learners were informed that if they know a word they should answer the question, if they think they know, they should try to answer the question and if they do not know they should skip the question. After the administrations of the test, during scoring, the test papers were checked in order to ascertain that the participants had in fact skipped the questions they did not know and it was found that learners had skipped numerous questions, without exception. It was therefore considered that guessing was not a problem in the administrations, and that the scores obtained could be considered to measure knowledge and partial knowledge of vocabulary, as the test is designed to do (Nation & Beglar, 2007).

Language Comprehension Proficiency

The TOEFL ITP was used to measure language comprehension proficiency, because students at the university where the research was conducted are required to take the TOEFL ITP and it is used for placement into levels within the EAP programme as well as for promotion between levels. The TOEFL ITP has three sections: a listening comprehension section, a grammar and written expression section and a reading comprehension section. The grammar and written expression section tests the learners' explicit knowledge of English grammar rules. Because the grammar and written expression section does not require understanding of the language, but rather the ability to manipulate the language into grammatically acceptable units, the grammar and written expression section was considered to be unrelated to language comprehension proficiency and thus was not included in this study. As a measure of language comprehension proficiency, the listening comprehension section of the TOEFL ITP was used and as a measure of reading comprehension proficiency the reading comprehension section of the TOEFL ITP was used.

There was concern that the scores for the listening comprehension section of the test and the reading comprehension section of the test might be too closely related to be employed to measure different skills. In order to determine whether this was the case, the researchers conducted a paired samples t-test between the listening comprehension section scores and the reading comprehension section scores. It was found that the scores were significantly different, $t(180) = 5.155$, $p < 0.001$. In addition a scatterplot was created and examined, which showed no clear relationship between the scores on the two sections of the test. It was therefore considered valid to consider the listening comprehension section and the reading comprehension section as measurements of two separate skills.

Analysis

All three instruments were administered to the participants during the first year orientation, which is held in the week prior to classes beginning for the spring semester 2014 (the beginning of the new academic year) and attendance at which is required for all incoming first year students. The same instruments were then administered at the end of each semester, in class, during the final examination week. The test scores for each student from the first administration in April 2014 were compared with those of the same student at the end of their final semester in the EAP reading programme (two to five semesters later), using paired samples t-tests with a Bonferroni adjustment.

The test scores for every administration of the tests were added to a single data file in order to conduct a multiple regression analysis to determine the predictive ability of each of the reading subskills in relation to overall reading comprehension proficiency. That is; each student's test results appeared in this data file two to five times (each time they took the tests). Reading comprehension proficiency, as measured by the reading comprehension section scores on the TOEFL ITP, was used as the dependent variable, while the independent variables were: word decoding speed (as measured by the WRT), high and mid frequency vocabulary size (knowledge of the 10,000 most frequent words, as measured by the first 50 questions of Version A of the VST), total vocabulary size (as measured by Version A of the VST) and language comprehension proficiency (as measured by the listening comprehension section scores on the TOEFL ITP).

Results

The descriptive statistics, showing learners word decoding speed, vocabulary size and language comprehension proficiency at both the beginning and end of the EAP programme, can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Reading Subskills at the Beginning and End of EAP

Reading subskill	Beginning scores Mean (SD)	End scores Mean (SD)
Word decoding speed (*n* = 147)	18.3129 (17.7149)	28.3476 (25.9774)
Vocabulary size (*n* = 144)	8193.06 (1884.113)	8734.03 (1943.005)
Language comprehension proficiency (*n* = 34)	101.4118 (7.3860)	111.29 (5.962)

We can see from the descriptive statistics that the word decoding speed had increased by around one third compared to their word decoding speed upon entering the university. It is also clear that the students' vocabulary size increased by an average of 541 words over the average period of one year. Finally, considering the increased scores on the listening comprehension section and reading comprehension section of the TOEFL ITP test, we could estimate that students' language comprehension proficiency had increased by around 10% over the period. The paired samples *t*-tests showed that the students had increased significantly in terms of their word decoding speed, $t(146) = -5.997$, $p<0.001$, total vocabulary size, $t(143) = -3.838$, $p<0.001$ and language comprehension proficiency, $t(33) = -11.000$, $p<0.001$.

Regression analysis was also performed in order to determine which subskills significantly predict reading comprehension ability. For the purposes of the regression analysis, TOEFL ITP reading comprehension scores were used as the dependent variable, while the independent variables were: Language comprehension proficiency (as measured by the TOEFL ITP listening comprehension scores), total vocabulary size (as measured by the VST), knowledge of high and mid frequency vocabulary (as measured by the scores for the 1,000 to 10,000 word levels of the VST), and word recognition speed (as measured by the word recognition test). The descriptive statistics for the data can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent and Independent Variables

Variable	Mean	SD
Reading comprehension proficiency	53.2376	4.1852
Listening comprehension proficiency	51.4751	4.6363
Total vocabulary size	8290.6077	1912.9297
Knowledge of high and mid-frequency vocabulary	5707.1823	1042.6480
Word recognition speed	23.0797	23.8940

n = 181

The results of the multiple regression analysis can be seen in Table 3. The regression analysis shows that the three reading subskills included accounted for almost 60% of variance in reading comprehension proficiency. The results indicate that language comprehension proficiency and knowledge of high and mid-frequency vocabulary are significantly predictive of reading comprehension proficiency (at the 0.001 level), while total vocabulary size and word recognition speed do not significantly predict reading comprehension proficiency.

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis Results

Variable	B	SE	Beta	*t*	Sig.
Reading comprehension	31.743	2.992		10.608	0.000
Listening comprehension	0.251	0.064	0.278	3.916	0.000
Total Vocabulary size	0.000	0.000	-0.102	-0.870	0.386
High and mid-frequency vocabulary	0.002	0.000	0.434	3.685	0.000
Word recognition speed	0.021	0.011	0.117	1.798	0.074

$R^2 = 0.575$

Discussion

Reading Sub-Skills

From the measurements of reading subskills at the beginning and end of the EAP programme, it is clear that word decoding speed increased the most of the three sub-skills measured, with word decoding speed increasing by around one third, on average. This is a significant finding given that the students had already studied English at school for at least 6 years before entering EAP. In effect, their reading speed on average increased by as much in one year of EAP study as it would have done in three years of study at the school level. Clearly, increases in reading speed are not uniform and this more rapid speed increase may be related to proficiency level. On the other hand, at the time of completing EAP, word decoding speed remained the main weakness of the three reading subskills measured. When comparing the results of this study to those of Coulson (2014), it appears that students enter the English-medium undergraduate curriculum reading at half the speed of mildly challenged native speakers of English. This is an important consideration for Native-English speaking teachers who may underestimate the amount of time it takes for these students to read texts and assign an unmanageable amount of reading

The results relating to vocabulary size offer several indications worthy of discussion. The findings of the present study corroborate the finding of several previous studies (Laufer, 1995; Milton, 2009; Milton & Meara, 1995), that the usual rate of growth in vocabulary size is around 500 to 600 words per year. On the other hand, Schmitt and Meara (1997) found that in the Japanese context learners' vocabulary only increased by 330 words on average over one academic year. It is possible that the English immersion environment at the university where the present study was conducted led to more vocabulary growth than the usual EFL context encountered in Japan.

The vocabulary size target for success in undergraduate studies, according to Hazenberg and Hulstijn (2006), is 10,000 words. By the time they had completed the EAP reading programme, students on this study were estimated to know 8,734 words on average. Although this figure still falls short of the target size which Hazenberg and Hulstijn (2006) suggest, it is relatively close to it. It is reasonable to believe that, with the incidental acquisition of more vocabulary during their English-medium undergraduate studies, learners should have enough breadth of vocabulary knowledge to succeed at the university.

In terms of language comprehension proficiency, a previous study that tracked changes in TOEFL ITP scores over time (Crossley, Salsbury & Kyle, 2016) found that TOEFL ITP scores increased by 100.5 over a period of 46 weeks. In the present study, only the listening comprehension and reading comprehension scores were used. However, the researchers calculated the corresponding total TOEFL scores by multiplying the sum of the listening comprehension and reading comprehension scores by five. The result of this calculation showed that the average TOEFL ITP total score at the beginning of EAP was 507 and at the end of EAP the average was 556. These scores represent a change of around 50 points over a period of one academic year (which included 37.5 weeks of instruction).

It is unclear why the increase in total TOEFL ITP scores was so much less than that found by Crossley, Salsbury and Kyle (2016). However, it is worth noting that the number of participants included in the dataset who took TOEFL ITP at both at the beginning and end of the EAP programme was only 34 out of 147. As a TOEFL ITP score of 550 is required before going for a mandatory year of study abroad, those who had not yet reached a score of 550 may have been the most likely to take the TOEFL ITP test at the end of the EAP programme, whereas students who had already achieved the score of 550 at an earlier stage may have been less likely to take the test. In this way, the TOEFL ITP data reported in this study may represent the least proficient students in the programme (for example, those placed at lower levels in the programme upon entry) and therefore not be an accurate representation of the gains in language comprehension proficiency achieved by students in the programme as a whole. This is a considerable limitation in relation to the increase in language comprehension proficiency and these results should be interpreted with caution. However, all students included in the dataset took the other measures every semester. Furthermore, only students for whom all data was available were included in the regression analysis.

Predictors of Reading Comprehension Proficiency

The results of the regression analysis found that, for these students, word decoding speed did not predict reading comprehension proficiency. This was surprising to the researchers as anecdotal evidence from learners at the university suggest that many of those who struggle to achieve an adequate score in the reading comprehension section of the TOEFL ITP also struggle to finish the reading comprehension section of the tests. However, this may be a result of the reading proficiency level students have achieved by the end of the EAP reading programme. As stated by Koda (2005), once students reach the reading-to-learn stage word decoding speed should play a lesser role in predicting reading proficiency than language comprehension proficiency.

The results of this study support previous literature in the field of vocabulary that has stressed the importance of knowledge of high and mid-frequency vocabulary in reading comprehension proficiency (e.g. Nation, 2001). Not only knowledge of high- and mid-frequency vocabulary, but also language comprehension proficiency (as measured by scores on the listening comprehension section of the TOEFL ITP test) was a significant predictor of reading comprehension proficiency. On the other hand, total vocabulary size was not a significant predictor of reading comprehension proficiency. Indeed, although not significant, there was a slight trend for those with larger total vocabulary size scores to have slightly lower reading comprehension scores.

Conclusion

This study examined the changes of the reading subskills of incoming first-year students at a Japanese university where English is the medium of instruction. The three different data collection instruments were utilized to measure the growth in the target subskills while the participants were in the EAP reading programme. Overall, the results demonstrated that despite significant growth in word recognition speed, word recognition speed remains the main weakness of the students in this study. The results also corroborated previous research regarding the rate of vocabulary size growth during English language study. The results have some implications for EAP reading curricula, which will be explained in this section. However, there are also several limitations of the research which will be outlined below.

One of the limitations in this study is related to the fact that not all the participants continued to take the TOEFL ITP test throughout the research period since it was not mandatory to do so after completing the EAP 3 level curriculum. While students are in the EAP Levels 1, 2 and 3, they are required to take the TOEFL ITP test at the end of each semester; however, it is not the case with those who have passed all the classes of EAP 3. As a result, the majority of students who have completed EAP 3 with a sufficient TOEFL score to apply for study abroad opted out of taking TOEFL ITP tests in the subsequent semesters. Due to the circumstance, it was not possible to track the overall language comprehension growth in every participant in the study. One possible suggestion to improve future research is to pay test fees for all research participants. This could provide an incentive for students to continue to take TOEFL ITP tests even if the participants do not have any other motivation for taking the test. An alternative suggestion would be to replace the use of official TOEFL ITP scores with mock test materials which are available through ETS publications. However, this alternative may lower reliability of the data since it is feasible for students to have taken the same mock test previously. In addition, because the administration of such mock tests does not have to follow the official test protocols, this too might make the data less reliable.

Another limitation of this study relates to flexibility which the curriculum of the EAP programme offers. From students' points of view, this flexibility is highly beneficial. For example, those who have started from EAP 1 can skip EAP 2 and move directly to EAP 3 if they meet all the criteria to do so. It is also possible for those who have completed EAP 3 not to enroll in the Academic Reading across Disciplines course in the following semester, although it is highly recommended to take it right after exiting from EAP 3. This flexibility greatly benefits students because they have varied strengths and weaknesses linguistically and academically. However, from the researchers' point of view, it is challenging because students who enter the university at the same time are placed at different levels and progress at different rates, making it difficult to compare them to each other. If participants were moving from one class to another as a cohort, it would be much easier to keep track of their progress and manage data collection procedures.

One of the most significant gains in reading comprehension proficiency can be found in word decoding speed with an increase of around one third during the EAP reading programme. Despite the fact that the learners improved most significantly in this reading subskill, this is still the weakest reading skill when compared with even mildly challenged adult native English speakers. One possible factor for this is that learners' word decoding ability tends to improve at an earlier stage of learning, and it is crucial to teach them how to approach reading at that time. Once they have developed a certain "habit" of reading, it might be more challenging to change the habit or to continue to improve reading speed or word decoding speed at a later stage of learning a language. It can be assumed that this is the case with the learners in the present study since it is more likely that, as Japanese learners of English in ordinary Japanese school settings, they mainly focused on intensive reading to study for entrance exams, without any fluency-focused reading experience at school. In order to help such students improve word decoding skills for increased word recognition speed, a reading curriculum with these specific objectives should be introduced in secondary schools. It may be advisable to include extensive reading and timed reading programmes in the English curriculum so that learners can be exposed to a wider range of reading texts and reading methodologies. Given the connection between reading fluency and reading comprehension competence (Koda, 2005; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2006), this addition to the curriculum could help to foster learners with improved reading competency in terms of both fluency and accuracy.

The findings of the present study correspond with the past studies in terms of the rate of growth in vocabulary size. Several previous studies found that students increased their vocabulary size by around 500 to 600 words per year of study (Laufer, 1995; Milton, 2009; Milton & Meara, 1995) and this study found that the students' vocabulary size increased by 541 words over the average period of one academic year. In addition, it shows that the vocabulary size of the participants was larger than that of the past study done in a similar context (Schmitt & Meara, 1997). However, it is unclear whether this difference can be accounted for by the different test used. As stated previously, the VLT may do a disservice to learners in an EFL context, due to their knowledge of low-frequency vocabulary at unnatural levels. In this way, it may depress vocabulary size estimates. On the other hand, the VST was designed to give credit for partial knowledge and thus is likely to result in higher vocabulary size estimates than the VLT does.

The environment of this study, at an English-medium university in Japan, may be another possible reason for the apparent larger vocabulary size of the participants in this study, which may lead to richer exposure to input than comparable studies in EFL contexts. EFL is defined as a context in which English is learnt, but is not the dominant language in use. The EFL context presupposes that learners have little exposure to English input outside of the classroom and few chances to use the language they are learning. Schmitt and Meara (1997) conducted a study in Japan and found that the students only increased their vocabulary size by 330 words on average, over a period of one academic year. Although the majority of the learners in the present study learnt English in the context of EFL before entering the university, upon entering an EMI university, their exposure to English input and their opportunities to use the language they are learning would have increased substantially. An EMI context would thus seem closer to ESL than EFL. Indeed, the EMI context would seem to negate the whole distinction between ESL and EFL contexts. In practice, the context in which each research study is conducted is unique. This uniqueness needs to be taken into account when considering the results of any research.

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Examining the Links between Reading Research Findings, Iranian Teachers' Perceptions of Reading Comprehension, and Their Actual Practice in ESP Courses

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Abstract

There is a strong belief that ESP teachers' actual practices in the classroom context are largely determined by the underlying perceptions they hold about the nature of reading. To examine this issue, four Iranian ESP university professors were recruited to participate in this study. To collect the necessary data, classroom observations and follow-up semi-structured interviews were used. Furthermore, the materials utilized by the teachers were examined. Although it can be argued that their perceptions were partially compatible with reading research findings, the results pointed to a lack of congruence between these teachers' perceptions and their practices, on the one hand, and between reading research findings and the practices, on the other. While the literature mostly supports a metacognitive-strategy approach to reading comprehension, the teachers tended to adopt a skills-based approach to the teaching of reading. This divergence was partly attributed to the contextual constraints and partly to the students' lack of motivation

by the teachers.

Keywords: ESP teachers, perceptions, practice, reading research findings.

Introduction

Previous studies suggest that teacher cognition plays a very influential role in determining what a teacher does in the classroom (Harmer, 2001; Richards & Lockhart, 1997). That being so, the decisions made by the teachers in the classroom contexts are expected to be driven by their underlying perceptions. In a similar vein, Borg (2003: 81) maintains that "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs". Hall (2005), too, argues that teachers' actions in the classroom are controlled by what they perceive to work best, while these perceptions function as a filter through which instructional decisions are made. Considering the fact that teaching reading comprehension is also a complex cognitive process, one can come to the conclusion that examining teachers' perceptions seems to be of utmost importance in the context of teaching reading in a foreign language.

Reading is one of the four language skills which is considered to be very important by most people. Since English is the main lingua franca all over the world, learning how to read texts written in English seems to be one of the prominent objectives, especially for university students who want to keep up with the latest developments in their areas of expertise. The importance of teaching reading is even more evident in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts where the students' academic success is largely dependent on their ability to read specialized texts written in English. It is a language skill that can be used for different purposes. Reading English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is one area of reading comprehension in which university students are taught how to cope with texts specifically prepared in their area of expertise. This, in fact, points to the importance of the intricate job of ESP teachers.

Three different models of reading have so far been proposed. First, the bottom-up model in which the reader moves from the bottom to the top, reading the letters, words, and sentences and trying to decode them (Hall, 2005; Harmer, 2001). In this way, the reader tries to construct meaning from letters, words, and sentences. It is suggested that the reader assumes a passive role in this model since s/he just focuses on the linguistic knowledge. Second, the top-down model in which the reader moves from the top to the bottom and hence, tries to reconstruct the meaning rather than decode the form. In this model, the reader assumes a more active role by making use of his/her previous knowledge, understanding, expectations, and attitudes. As Anderson (2000) and Paran (1996) rightly put it, the meaning of the reading material is neither on the printed page only, nor in the head of the reader alone. The meaning can be constructed as a result of the synergy between what is on the printed page and in the reader's background knowledge and experiences. Such criticisms led to the emergence of the third model of reading according to which, different processes in combination are responsible for comprehending a text (Grabe, 1991). Currently, this third model enjoys the support of most scholars and is the most popular model because it is thought that it can maximize the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of the two previous ones.

Literature Review

Given the importance of teaching English for specific purposes in the EFL context of Iran, the present study intends to examine the possible links between reading research findings or theories on the nature of ESP reading, teachers' perceptions about ESP and their actual teaching practices in the context of the classroom. The aim is to find out which model of reading teachers believe in and which model is actually implemented in the real context of the classroom.

Recently, the traditional view towards the role of the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge from the curriculum to the learners has been replaced by the understanding that teachers possess complex mental lives which influence what and how they teach in the classroom (Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002). These complex mental lives which have been called "teacher cognition", "perceptions" or "the hidden side of teaching" (Freeman, 2002: 1) have drawn the attention of researchers and scholars all over the world. As a result, a plethora of studies, in different parts of the world, attempted to examine the potential (mis)matches between teachers' perceptions and practices to see how and to what extent the two sides of teaching, i.e., the overt and the covert ones, match each other (Andrews, 2003; Borg, 2001, 2003, 2006; Fang, 1996; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Theriot & Tice, 2009).

The link between the perceptions held by the teachers who teach reading comprehension and their actual practices has by no means been neglected. For instance, Richards and Lockhart (1997) investigated the relationship between teachers' perceptions and practices in teaching reading comprehension using a beliefs interview guide. They attempted to predict the teachers' teaching practices based on the beliefs interview of 36 teachers of grades 8, 9, and 10 and found that the predictions were related to practices observed in the teachers' classrooms. The results of the study indicated that in most cases, the teachers' perceptions in their sample were related to their classroom practices while teaching reading comprehension.

Dhieb-Henia (2003) investigated the reading processes of EFL/ESP students while they were reading biology research articles. Hence, the study sought to discover the way metacognitive strategy training could affect students' declarative and procedural knowledge and the extent to which they chose and used these strategies while reading research articles. To this aim, 62 undergraduate biology students constituted the control and the experimental groups and took pre- and post-course reading tests while 12 of them took part in retrospection. Results of the study highlighted the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training in that the participants became familiar with these strategies and they could read research articles more successfully. Furthermore, retrospection proved to be an effective method for evaluating the participants' reading behavior.

In another study, Lowe and Lumley (2005) studied students' reading problems and strategies from an experienced teacher's point of view as well as the way she helped them cope with those problems. They wanted to find out whether the teacher was aware of her students' reading problems and the reasons for employing certain strategies to help them solve the identified problems. The results of their study showed that there was apparently a link between the teacher's background and the strategies she employed to teach reading and to tackle reading problems in the classroom. Since they studied a single case, their results may not be generalizable, although they can pave the way for more studies on the issue.

Conducting an evaluative-interpretative study, Kuzborska (2011) attempted to investigate the relationship between the beliefs held by eight teachers and their practices in the context of teaching reading to advanced learners. Video stimulated recall was used to examine teachers' beliefs. The results of the study indicated that the beliefs identified as congruent with practices of the majority of those teachers reflected a skills-based approach to reading instruction in which vocabulary, reading aloud, translation, and whole class discussion of texts are emphasized. According to the author, however, in contrast to these findings, a metacognitive-strategy approach is largely supported by the research results and considered as the most appropriate method of teaching reading in academic contexts.

In a descriptive study, Josephine (2015) examined language teachers' perceptions about teaching the use of reading strategies and the way these perceptions were reflected in their classroom practices. The data were collected from two contexts of Nairobi and Kitui using a questionnaire which was filled out by 36 English teachers. Additionally, 18 classrooms were observed and 18 semi-structured interviews were also conducted. Furthermore, 18 focused group discussions were done with learners too. Results pointed to variations across teachers in terms of both their perceptions and practices. Although the teachers were aware of the importance of teaching reading strategies, their perceptions were not consistent with their instructional practices. The author, therefore, recommended the need for updating teachers' practices so that they match the established principles.

Although the link between the perceptions held by teachers teaching reading comprehension and their practices has been vastly investigated in different parts of the world, to the best of the present researcher's knowledge, no study in the context of Iran has so far been conducted to examine this link, especially in the area of ESP which is a necessary life-long skill for Iranian university students. Therefore, attempting to fill the existing lacuna in the literature, the present study intended to examine the link between ESP teachers' perceptions, their practices, and reading research findings in the field of teaching ESP reading comprehension.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Several ESP reading approaches have emerged over the past three decades. In early stages, ESP reading was viewed as register analysis or the study of the use of language in different communicative contexts. Hence, the focus was on the level of sentence. However, the focus shifted from sentence to the level above the sentence as discourse or rhetorical analysis emerged (Hirvela, 2013). In genre-based approaches to reading, on the other hand, “students, as readers, are repeatedly exposed to texts exemplifying the genres they must learn to understand and reproduce as they seek to gain membership in their chosen disciplinary communities” (Hirvela, 2013: 87).

Viewing ESP reading from a different perspective, Kuzborska (2011) referred to three approaches to teaching reading: a) a *skills-based* approach which views reading as a decoding process and focuses on the teaching of language skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation, because it is believed that the learning of language skills would facilitate reading acquisition; b) a *whole-language* approach in which reading is viewed as a meaning construction process which focuses on the teaching of meaningful interaction with texts; because it was believed that learning how to read meaningfully would facilitate the acquisition of reading skills; and/or c) a *metacognitive strategy* approach on the basis of which, reading is considered as a strategic process which focuses on the teaching of reading processes because it was assumed that learning reading strategies would improve reading. Given that "not all discourse or genre practices are transparent and amenable to easy identification through discourse and genre analysis" (Hirvela, 2013: 91), the present researcher decided to adopt Kuzborska's (2011) model as the basis for analyzing data in this study. That being so, three approaches to teaching reading introduced by Kuzborska (2011) constituted the theoretical underpinning of the current study. That is, teachers' teaching perceptions and strategies were compared and contrasted with these three categories of teaching strategies for reading.

Statement of the Problem

Unlike previously held assumptions, nowadays, reading is no longer seen as a simple skill of decoding a text; rather, it is considered a complex information processing task (Day & Bamford, 2003). Since reading is a necessary part of every educated individual's life, the most effective ways through which reading can be taught and learnt need to be meticulously investigated. By being aware of the vital role reading plays in people's lives and the best ways of teaching and learning it, language teachers can develop and improve their teaching techniques and procedures in teaching reading comprehension. Specifically, in the language teaching context of Iran, which is an EFL situation, where university students need to read and understand academic papers written in English while they do not have enough exposure to this language outside the classroom, teaching reading gains utmost importance. To train effective readers, language teachers need to reflect upon and reevaluate their teaching procedures and try to harmonize them with the latest reading research findings in the field while taking the specificities and the constraints of the context into account. Previous research has indicated that teachers' perceptions can influence students' achievement either negatively or positively leading to their success or failure in reading effectively (Brophy, 1985). Sometimes, it may be more reasonable for teachers to self-evaluate their own instructional practices before making any judgments about the reading ability of the language learners. To this end and to make language teachers aware of the (mis)matches between their perceptions, their instructional practices and reading research findings in the field, this study is an attempt to examine the possible links between these three constructs.

Significance of the Study

Results of previous research support the idea that teachers' perceptions may have been influenced by their pre-service training, established principles, in-service experience, personality factors, and so on. Nevertheless, they are not passive recipients of theories; rather, they construct their own theories in the course of practice (Farrell, 2001; Gardner & Miller, 1999) which may lead to their differing perceptions compared to the established principles. Furthermore, the importance of teaching reading is undeniable in EFL contexts. Given the fact that the world is always changing and new developments and theories replace the old ones, university students need to be able to read academic articles in their fields in order not to be left behind. As Celce-Murcia (2001: 1878) convincingly argues, “many have argued in the past 15 years that reading is the most important academic language skill for second language students” on the grounds that it is “assumed to be the central means for learning new information and gaining access to alternative explanations and interpretations”. All these arguments highlight the importance of reading comprehension and hence, the need to investigate it systematically.

The Context of the Study

This study was conducted at a state university where students of majors other than English are required to pass a two-credit course on ESP reading as an obligatory course. Although attempts have been made to develop some textbooks suitable for students of different majors, such textbooks are not available for all majors taught at the university context. Therefore, because of a lack of enough suitable books specifically related to all majors, students of closely related majors are grouped together and study the same textbook. For example, students of different science majors such as physics, chemistry, biology, and so on study the same book while students of engineering majors such as mechanical engineering, metallurgy, computer engineering and so on study another book. In such a situation, for Sciences students, for instance, each two chapters of the book are allocated to one of the fields of science. Hence, biology students, for example, just find two chapters related to their major and they may see no point studying the rest of the chapters. This situation makes the task of teaching and learning ESP reading rather complicated for university teachers and students, respectively.

Objectives of the Study and Research Questions

Considering the crucial role reading comprehension plays in the academic lives of university students as well as the importance of teaching reading effectively, the present study attempted to discover and identify Iranian EFL university teachers' perceptions of effective teaching techniques and practices for teaching ESP reading courses. Then, it intended to compare and contrast these perceptions with the teachers' practices as well as reading research findings to see to what extent they are compatible. Potential constraints/opportunities were also investigated which were assumed to hinder/facilitate the application of these teachers' perceptions or reading research findings. To this aim, the study sought answers to the following research questions:

1. How do Iranian ESP reading teachers' perceptions compare with their actual teaching practices?

2. How do these teachers' perceptions compare with reading research findings in the field?

3. How do these teachers' practices in teaching ESP reading compare with reading research findings in the field?

4. What conditions facilitate or hinder the application of reading research findings or the teachers' perceptions in ESP teaching courses?

Method

This study was a qualitative case study which delved into teachers' perceptions of teaching reading in ESP courses through an evaluative-descriptive paradigm. Being descriptive, it describes the status quo, that is, what teachers perceive, what they actually do, and reading research findings. Being evaluative, it also attempts to evaluate the teachers' practices in the light of those research findings and to compare and contrast them with their perceptions.

Participants

Four ESP teachers teaching reading English for specific purposes to either Sciences or Engineering students at Shiraz University agreed to participate in this study voluntarily. They were one male and three female teachers whose age ranged from 30 years to 51 years old. Also, their English teaching experience in general ranged from five years to 17 years. Three of them held Ph.D. degrees in English Literature and one in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). The number of students in their classes ranged from 11 to 36. These students were

B.A. students who had to pass a two-credit English course based on their field of study (ESP). It is worth mentioning that in this context, all ESP classes are held as single-sex classes. That is, in each class, all students are either male or female. Two of the teachers taught two ESP classes at the time of this study (Rose and Architect). To keep these teachers' identities confidential, throughout the paper, pseudonyms are used. Their profiles are reported in Table 1.

Table 1: Participants' Profiles

Teacher	Gender	Age	Teaching Experience	Major	Number of students
Lily	F	33	9 years	English Literature	16 (F)
Cinderella	F	43	14 years	English Literature	12 (F)
Rose	F	51	17 years	TEFL	36 (F), 27 (M)
Architect	M	30	5 years	English Literature	27(M), 11 (M)

M=Male, F=Female

Instruments and Materials

Classroom observations along with follow-up semi-structured interviews constituted the main data gathering tools used in this study. Based on the available literature, a classroom observation scheme was developed on the basis of which, one of the sessions of each teacher's ESP class was observed by the researcher. This observation scheme consisted of two major sections. In the first section which was adopted from Kuzborska (2011), three different models of teaching reading were elaborated on; that is, the skills-based, the whole-language, and the metacognitive-strategy approaches. Each approach was further elaborated in terms of its subcomponents. In the second section, seven areas were examined: pre-, during, and post-reading activities, teacher and student initiations, and pair and group works implemented in the classroom. The second section was supposed to be completed in order to shed more light on the findings of the first part.

After observing each teacher's class, the researcher interviewed the teacher using questions from the literature in addition to some ideas which were derived from the observations. Some questions dealt with teachers' ideas regarding the ESP reading construct, the way it is learnt, and the way it should be taught. Some other questions were created based on the teachers' actual practice to uncover the underlying rationale for some of the instructional practices applied by the teachers. In this way, the researcher made an attempt to identify these teachers' perceptions of teaching reading for specific purposes.

In addition to the above-mentioned instruments, the content of each course was also examined through analyzing the syllabus, the textbook, and the midterm as well as the final exams which were given to the researcher by the teacher who was the coordinator of all ESP courses (i.e., Rose). From each textbook, three chapters were randomly selected and analyzed. As for Engineering students' textbook, chapters 2, 3, and 8 and the Sciences textbook, chapters 1, 3, and 13 were selected randomly and evaluated closely. A variety of question types were examined; that is, Multiple-choice (MC), True/False (T/F), and Essay-type (ET). Regarding their exams, during the semester, each teacher just gave a midterm and a final exam to his/her students. These exams, assumed to be standardized, consisted of multiple-choice questions and were the same for all students. That is, all Sciences students taught by different teachers were supposed to take the same test on the same day, and so do all Engineering students. Rose, as the coordinator, was responsible for selecting and organizing these exams for all ESP courses. In fact, none of the teachers were directly involved in the process of assessment although they were required to make some items based on some specific chapters (selected by Rose) of the textbook they were teaching. But, at the end, it was Rose who determined the final items to be incorporated in the exams.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

For collecting the data, first, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to her colleagues and asked them to let her observe one of the sessions of their class and interview them. She assured them of the confidentiality of the findings of the study and promised not to disclose any real names in its final report. After obtaining their permission, she arranged an observation and an interview time with the teachers. Then, she attended one of each teacher's classes and observed it on the basis of the observation scheme. Following the observations, each teacher was interviewed individually by the researcher. Because they were Ph.D. graduates of English and were teaching English for several years, they preferred to be interviewed in English. Each interview session lasted about 30 minutes.

The process of data analysis was a demanding task because of being iterative and recursive rather than linear. That being so, the researcher had to constantly move from reading research findings to the actual practices done by the teachers and from their practice to those findings. Also, their responses to the interview questions, which were indicative of their underlying perceptions, were checked against both their actual practice and those findings. The content of the course was also examined based on the items mentioned in the observation scheme. Hence, the types of questions and exercises of the textbook and the items of the exams were categorized on the basis of what they wanted the students to do; for example, to ask for facts, for making inferences, or for guessing meaning, and so on. Although, at the outset, the researcher intended to analyze the content of the syllabuses too, during the research process, she found out that the syllabuses did not make any significant contribution to her study because they were not informative enough. Therefore, they were removed from the study in the data analysis phase.

Results and Discussions

In this section, the findings of the study are presented in two main subsections. The first part elaborates on teachers' perceptions about the nature of ESP reading, the way they perceive it is learned as well as the way it should be taught. These findings are mainly derived from their responses to the interview questions. In the second section, an attempt is made to delve into the actual practice of teaching ESP reading by these teachers by analyzing the observation results as well as the content of the textbooks and the exams.

Teachers' Perceptions of ESP Reading

The interviews were mainly conducted to uncover the underlying perceptions held by the teachers about the nature of ESP reading, its learning, and teaching. Asked to define ESP reading, Rose explained,

> *Reading for actually specific purposes in a way that the students would be equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge for their future careers because reading requires both knowledge and skills and they should be*

> *equipped with, for instance, grammatical points, vocabulary that is necessary as well as the reading skills, background information, knowledge about the specific topics they will be exposed to and things like that. Not only of course being exposed to these things but also practicing them, learning them, internalizing them.*

Based on what she said, it appears that she is fully aware of the importance of teaching different reading skills to the students. Lily, an English Literature graduate, however, defined ESP reading as something similar to translation based on her own ESP teaching experience. As she said,

> *Based on the experience that I have, it's very close to translation. There are some passages. They're supposed to have read them at home and come to class prepared so that I can ask them questions and ask them to paraphrase and ask them meanings of the words. They never do unless I threaten them. A couple of sessions ago, I did threaten them and some of them did study before coming to class but the meanings that they had found were only Persian equivalents. So, something like this I just read the passages for them and I ask the meanings. Some of them respond in Farsi, some of them respond in English. Very few of them.*

Unlike Rose whose major was TEFL, Lily's major was English Literature. This can be the reason for her different perception about the nature of ESP reading. Cinderella, who was also an English Literature graduate, defined ESP reading in this way, “I think it should be in line with their major, subject of their own expertise like engineering or like medical engineering or medical sciences.” Architect also defined ESP reading in this way,

> *The purpose of this course, at least to the best of my knowledge, is to equip students with a level of the English language that is going to be useful for, for example, their studies, deepening their studies, using them, I don’t know, after they graduate.*

Although, during the observation, it was seen that Rose tried to seize even the slightest opportunities to talk about the definitions of the words, during the interview, in response to the question of whether it is necessary to provide the definitions of all the words for the students, she said, *Not all words, but in fact you see the students should learn to even guess from the context as well but definitions are also important ok? You know, sometimes misunderstanding and misconception takes place just because the students do not have a correct definition of the word. So, sometimes it is necessary but not all the words. Definitions when misunderstanding might take place or when the words are key terms are necessary; otherwise, the students might guess from the context or might themselves search for the words and find the definitions of the words.*

In her interview, Rose emphasized the importance of providing the students with the definitions of key terms because she thought not knowing the meanings of key terms will lead to students' misunderstanding. Coming from a non-TEFL background, Lily relied just on her previous learning experience for the valid ESP teaching procedures. As she said,

Maybe, you know, the standard way of teaching it is like the reading comprehension [courses] that we ourselves passed when we were BA students. We usually looked up the meaning of the new words at home; we came to class prepared; the teacher asked us to read and paraphrase the passages; sometimes, we commented on the passages.

She, however, was not satisfied with the way ESP classes were run and attributed this problem to the textbook which, in her opinion, did not satisfy and was not in line with the needs of all students in her class,

In this book, since students are not familiar with the content; most of the content of the book is not familiar to them; teachers are not familiar with these concepts. There is no discussion, you know. We can't ask them to comment on them. And I myself as the teacher can't. I think the teacher must be a member of those departments and he or she must be an expert in English so that they can have some interaction. This doesn't occur in our classes.

The same concern was also mentioned by Cinderella whose students, unlike Lily’s, came from one single field of study while the book addressed multiple topics from diverse fields, the majority of which were not compatible with the students’ needs,

In my own class, I just have a very univocal system which is not in line with the

> *diversity it is supposed to have. All of them are from one specific major. I think the selection by the administration part is not that much fair. The selection of the content and the selection of the students. A kind of randomly ordered rather than from the very beginning, knowledge-based, classification-based. It is not at all classified. Because the text is not univocal, it is not fair.*

Defining words and elaborating on factual meanings were the two prominent techniques applied by these teachers. Although Rose believed that identifying factual meaning is an important aspect of ESP reading and "a prerequisite to learning other types of learning", she asserted that "teaching should not be limited by just teaching the factual meaning". However, Lily admitted that identifying factual meaning is one of the most important teaching techniques applied in her classes,

> *That's what we do. That's the only thing that I as a person who has studied English Literature can do in those classes. I cannot have, you know, an interpretation of those passages. That's all they can do because in one class, you can only find one or two students each session who can really relate to that particular unit. So, the rest of them cannot understand. These factual meanings are the only thing we can rely on.*

Unlike Rose and Architect who believed that the teacher should provide the students with the definitions of the words, both Lily and Cinderella considered students responsible for finding the definitions of the words. As Lily said,

> *They [the students] must know the meanings [of the words] but I don't think that the teacher must give the meanings. They should [give the meanings].*

In line with Lily's idea, Cinderella also maintained,

> *At the end of the day, yes but it is not the first job of the instructor. I think as a preparatory kind of task, the students need to be prepared enough before coming to each session to jot the synonyms down. And the instructor can double-check the meanings and give the final meaning which is suitable contextually.*

What is worthy of notice, however, is the fact that all of them pointed to the importance of knowing the definitions of the words on the part of the students. Based on what they said, they often ask students to read parts of the texts or the exercises aloud provided that they have enough time. While students are reading the texts aloud, however, Lily does not attempt to correct their mispronunciations. Rose, on the other hand, corrects their pronunciation mistakes if they hinder communication. As she said,

> *It depends. Sometimes, yes. Especially when it hinders communication. But sometimes, no because it takes a lot of time. So if it hinders communication or causes misunderstanding, I may, I may correct them depending on how much time I have, what kind of students they are; for instance, if a student is so weak or at a low proficiency level, sometimes you see, you make him or her frustrated if you always try to correct their mistakes. So, that's why I do not always correct students' mistakes due to different problems.*

Unlike Rose and Lily, Cinderella points out the importance of reading aloud and teacher intervention for correcting students' pronunciation problems. As she put it,

> *Reading aloud helps a lot. It helps a lot. This is a kind of natural faculty of every human mind that when we hear what we read, this very hearing makes us kind of double-checking and then, it helps us the very memory or ease of memory in the upcoming sessions that we might see the very word. So, it is quite supportive. I do correct wrong pronunciations. I do. The stress. Because nowhere they would be double-checked. Out of the pronunciation, I can guess how poor they are.*

Architect, however, believed that reading aloud is not a working procedure because the students are not capable enough to do it. As he mentioned,

> *There's no time and they cannot do it. They do not have the capabilities sometimes I pronounce a word and I say for the love of God please repeat this word after me and they do not have the capability to pronounce.*

Despite the fact that all teachers admitted the effectiveness of extensive reading in improving students' reading proficiency, none of them implemented this technique in their actual classroom contexts. However, all of them utilized translation in their ESP classes and considered it as a working teaching technique especially in heterogeneous classes in which students are of different proficiency levels. As Lily explained,

> *There was a time when I taught ESP to students of Arabic Literature, and now, I am teaching it to students of Engineering. That's the only technique that really works. In that course that I taught to Arabic students, I tried to give them some synonyms and this led to chaos; the students protested and said that ESP means translation; why are you trying to torture us with these synonyms? For the Engineering students, translation is what we do most of the time.*

Referring to low proficiency level of the students, Cinderella, too, believed that she has to translate the texts into the students' native language.

> *This semester, the general level of the students is very poor and I have to. It depends on the level of the students.*

Except for Architect who did not believe in the usefulness of guessing the meanings of words, the rest of the teachers attempted to encourage their students to guess the meanings of words based on the context. As Architect stated,

> *Sometimes. But usually I tell them "please go and look up the words in dictionary or in the pdf that I am giving you" because you see, English language, I do not work with estimations and guesses and usually those estimates, they are not correct. I usually say "let's forget about guessing and make sure what the words mean". And I have a problem, of course, with the questions, especially the questions that I have seen in the exams and supposedly they are testing the ability of the students for guessing the words. At least, the way that I've seen it; this is not the proper way.*

Rose, on the other hand, maintained that she, first, teaches them the procedures and the way they can guess the meanings and then, asks them to do it. Lily and Cinderella, too, applied this technique in their classes. However, none of them made use of communicative activities such as pair and group work because of the students' lack of familiarity with such activities (Rose) which results "in a lot of noise in the class, waste of time, waste of energy, and, in fact, achieving no goals" (Rose). Furthermore, lack of time (Lily) was also another factor hindering the application of group work in their classes. Nevertheless, all of them shared the idea that the students themselves discuss the texts in groups informally albeit the discussion is mostly held in their native language.

Teachers' Practice of Teaching ESP Reading

Observation results

Observing these teachers’ classes, the researcher found out that after translation, giving definitions, and discussing factual meanings, guessing the meanings of new words and finding the main idea of each paragraph were the most salient teaching techniques applied by them. However, teaching the students to read the texts critically was missing in all teachers’ classes, although Lily and Architect believed that sometimes, the students themselves engage in such activities by questioning the scientific propositions made in the texts. Cinderella, however, thought that students do not like to do such activities because they are not motivated enough. As she put it,

> *Again depending on the level, it normally doesn't happen. Honestly, no. It is good if they do participate this way but again, you see, considering the question of motivation, it rarely happens because they don't have any kind of strong motivation. They do see and consider this kind of marginal and they don't pay enough attention to that because they are preoccupied and obsessive with those major units that they have. They are that much occupied that they do ignore such participation. It is a question of motivation again.*

During the observation, it was seen that Rose asked the students to read the first and the last sentence of each paragraph silently and guess what the whole text was about. Silent reading, then, in Rose’s class, was restricted to this activity. However, none of the other teachers tried silent reading because they did not have enough time to focus on this type of reading. As Lily asserted, “we do not have time to give them a couple of minutes for silent reading. I have never tried it. Maybe it works”. Cinderella, on the other hand, had never tried it since she believed that,

> *This would be quite misleading for them because they are going on in the very wrong way that they are supposed to, when they are by themselves. And then, sobriety is a very important factor. They are not sober when are silent-reading. Sobriety is kind of obtainable through loud reading.*

And in Architect's opinion, reading aloud could be more beneficial than reading silently. He admitted that between these two types of reading, he preferred to implement reading aloud.

Rose tried to engage her students in deep thought processes during the classes. To put it more clearly, in the pre-reading phase, she focused on the key words presented at the beginning of the chapter and defined them using both English and Persian languages; then, she asked the students to read the title as well as the first and last sentence of each paragraph and try to guess the content of the chapter on the basis of this information. After that, she herself read the text aloud and did not ask them to do that. Furthermore, during reading, she drew the students' attention to the pronunciation of the words. As an example, she explained the difference in pronunciation between "minute" as either a noun or an adjective.

In addition to providing the English equivalents of the difficult words, she translated them into Persian too. The native language of the students served as a facilitator helping the students to understand the text better. She also provided the opposites of some words in the text. For example, she talked about "light-weight" and "heavy" attempting to make the students aware of their meaning differences. Even though, in her class, a large amount of time was devoted to vocabulary teaching, she also did her best to incorporate a variety of comprehension questions into the reading process. That being so, she asked the students to find the main idea of each paragraph, find the explicitly stated information, talk about the inferential meaning, and find pronoun references.

Unlike Rose's class, Lily's and Architect's classes were mainly devoted to reading the texts aloud by the teacher and giving the English definitions of the words along with translating the words and the texts. Translation was the most dominant and observable teaching technique applied in these two teachers' classes and they attributed the reason for doing so to the students' lack of motivation, their low proficiency in English and lack of enough time. Cinderella, on the other hand, provided the students with a synopsis of the coming unit at the outset of each session. Then, she asked the students to read short pieces, for example, a single sentence, of the text aloud and paraphrase it using their own words. She herself read the same sentence aloud after the students and paraphrased it once more in a new way. She also wrote the definitions of new words on the board and explained about the parts of speech of the words and the way they can be used in English sentences. Nevertheless, what is worthy of notice is that in all four teachers' classes, the teacher served as the main initiator of the discussions, with students having little or no role in initiating conversations. The teacher-whole class pattern constituted the prominent classroom interaction mode, while there was no pair or group work activities. Acknowledging the importance of pair and group work in enhancing students' reading proficiency, Rose attributed her own reluctance to implement these two important teaching techniques to lack of enough time, the students' low proficiency in English, and their lack of interest in doing such activities.

Content Analysis Results

As part of the data analysis, an in-depth analysis of the content of the courses was also run by the researcher, the results of which are presented in the following sections. Most of the questions posed in the textbooks taught to Engineering students were fact questions asking the students to locate the explicitly stated information in the text. The following examples will illustrate the point (The parts which contribute to finding the correct response are underlined for the purpose of clarity).

> ***Extract:*** *In a data-base, the program <u>is independent of the file</u>. This characteristic makes <u>changes to the data-base simpler</u> with little impact on most programs.*
>
> ***Question (T/F):*** *Making changes to the data-base is not easy since the program in data-base depends on the file.*
>
> ***Extract:*** *A data-base is <u>a collection of data in a single location</u> designed to be used by different programmers for a variety of applications.*
>
> ***Question 1 (MC):*** *A data-base may best be defined as ………*
>
> *a) a collection of interrelated data stored together with minimum redundancy.*
> *b) a collection of data in a single location.*
> *c) a storage unit permitting selection of data for specific applications.*
> *d) a storage unit where updating and modification of data can be done easily.*
>
> ***Question 2 (ET):*** *What is a data-base?*

Some other questions were mainly concerned with the definition of new words and necessitated the use of a dictionary to look the word up. For example,

Question (MC): *Anything that is vulnerable is ……………….*

a) protected against attack
b) centralized in one place
c) inaccessible to different people
d) liable to damage

Still, there were some questions which could be answered by just looking at the text and locating the intended sentence. Answering such questions did not necessitate any reflection or comprehension on the part of the students. As an example,

Extract: *Pulses indicate that the shock wave has been reflected or refracted from an interface between rock layers.*

Question (MC): *Pulses indicate that the shock wave has been reflected or ……………… from an interface between rock layers.*

a) drawn
b) received
c) refracted
d) conducted

Although it seemed that the authors attempted to incorporate different types of questions needing diverse levels of understanding in the book, even those questions which needed some degrees of making inferences were so simple that no struggling was needed to come to a final decision on the correct response. For instance,

Extract: *An electric log will indicate the presence of oil by the decreased resistance of oil-bearing rock strata.*

Question 1 (T/F)*: An electric log is based on the common observation that oil-bearing sands conduct electricity better than ordinary earth.*

Question 2 (MC): *According to the passage, an electric log can show the presence of oil because ……………….*

a) oil-bearing rock layers are good insulators.
b) rock layers which contain oil can let electric currents pass more easily.
c) oil-bearing rock layers contain ample supply of oil.

d) the sedimentary rock beneath the surface is not an obstacle for the researcher.

Even though answering these latter questions might seem more challenging compared to responding to the former ones, they just made the students pay attention to surface meanings without requiring them to engage in deeper thinking processes. As for Sciences students' textbook, it was observed that like Engineering students' textbook, the majority of questions posed in the book required paying attention to surface meaning. For instance,

> ***Extract:*** *Sciences can basically be <u>subdivided into two main groups</u> or categories. <u>First, we have the natural sciences</u> which deal with the study of natural phenomena, such as earthquakes, rain, and tree growth. <u>Second, we have the social sciences</u> which deal with the social life and relations between human beings. Such sciences include history, political science, political geography, and <u>human psychology</u>.*
>
> ***Question 1 (MC):*** *Two of the basic subdivisions of science are ………….*
>
> *a) the natural and physical sciences*
> *b) the physical and biological sciences*
> *c) the chemistry and physical sciences*
> *d) the natural and social sciences*
>
> ***Question 2 (MC):*** *Human psychology is a branch of ……….*
>
> *a) the natural sciences*
> *b) the physical sciences*
> *c) the social sciences*
> *d) the biological sciences*
>
> ***Extract:*** *Many kinds of substances can be electrified by rubbing. When electric charges are produced through the friction of one material upon another, these charges are called static electricity.*
>
> ***Question (T/F):*** *The electric charges produced as a result of friction are called electricity in motion.*
>
> ***Extract:*** *They knew, too, that most substances in their normal state are neutral;*

that is, that they carry neither a positive nor a negative charge.

Question (MC): *Most substances in their normal state ………….*

a) carry only negative charge
b) carry only positive charge
c) are artificial
d) are neutral

Extract: *Statistics is at present a reliable means of reducing information to numerical values. It can describe accurately the numerical values of economic, political, social, psychological, and biological data.*

Question 1 (T/F): *Statistics has to reduce facts to figures for study.*

Question 2 (MC): *Paragraph 4 does not mention the use of statistics in …………….*

a) social sciences
b) psychological sciences
c) biological sciences
d) teaching

As observed in the extracts above and the accompanying questions, there were very few comprehension questions dealing with deep level understanding of the text; that is, questions asking the students to make inferences, find the main ideas, or evaluate the content of the passage were almost overlooked in the books.

Considering the midterm and final exams, it was found that each exam constituted 50 items which made up 50% of the students' final score. A close inspection of the exam questions revealed that more than half of the questions dealt with vocabulary (26 to 35 out of 50 questions in each exam), while the other half was devoted to reading comprehension questions. The sheer importance attached to vocabulary knowledge in the exams can be considered as the driving force for the teachers to allocate a much longer time to teaching word meanings in each session. Nearly all vocabulary items were incomplete sentences which needed to be completed by the students by choosing the most suitable alternative from among four options provided. As an example,

Question (MC): *This new device can tolerate...........cold, so they have planned* *to use it in polar regions.*

a) *delicate*
b) *extreme*
c) *invisible*
d) *straight*

While the bulk of the exam was concerned with vocabulary knowledge, the rest of the questions which dealt with comprehension of paragraphs taken from either the textbook (seen passages) or other sources (unseen ones) were mainly surface meaning questions needing just a little or no effort on the part of the students to figure them out. For instance,

> ***Extract:*** *The atoms of which the molecules of matter are composed contain very tiny particles which are held together by electrical forces. The nucleus, which is the heart – the center – of atom, is composed mainly of particles called protons and neutrons. The proton carries a charge of positive electricity and the neutron is without electrical charge of any kind. It is neutral. Revolving around the nucleus, are particles called electrons which carry charges of negative electricity* (Akhavan, Behgam, Faghih, & Haghani, 2007: 25).

Question 1 (MC): *The small particles of the atoms do not break away because of …………….*

a) *like charges*
b) *magnetic force*
c) *gravity*
d) *electrical charges*

Question 2 (MC): *Which of the following is true about the nucleus?*

a) *It is negatively charged because of its particles.*
b) *It is positively charged because of its protons.*
c) *It has no charge because of the equal number of its protons and neutrons.*
d) *It is neutral because it is the heart of the atom and is composed of three particles.*

Question 3 (MC): *This paragraph is mainly about ………….*

a) the structure of an atom
b) particles of the nucleus
c) types of electrical forces
d) electrons and neutrons

Considering all the above-mentioned results, we can answer the research questions of the study. In response to the first research question, it can be said that although these four teachers perceived ESP reading as an interactive process of making meaning from both the text and the readers' background knowledge, in practice, they treated ESP reading as a linear process of decoding meaning in which knowing the meanings of words and sentences was of paramount importance. By trying to consider and explicate all the details of the texts and asking the students to analyze the texts in detail, in both the target and the native languages, these teachers may impose this belief on the students that reading is just a decoding process of making meaning from the printed page. However, we fully agree with Hamp-Lyons (1984), who convincingly argues, if we ask the students to read short texts carefully and expect them to understand every detail of them and finally test them on this comprehension by surface level questions, we are, in fact, reinforcing the tendency to read slowly and discouraging the development of reading speed. Furthermore, as Nuttall (2005) rightly puts it, all words in a text are not equally important and students are able to understand texts without the need to know the exact meanings of all words because their background knowledge can bridge the gap in their lexicon. Nuttall (2005: 73) believes that our "knowledge of the world helps us narrow down the possibilities when we are looking for a concept to fill a gap in the sense". Contrary to their perceptions, while teaching ESP reading, the present teachers restricted their practice to translating words and texts, giving the definitions of words, and discussing the texts with the whole class.

Considering the second and the third research questions, it was found that although these teachers' perceptions were partially compatible with reading research findings, divergence could be found between their perceptions and their practices, on the one hand, and their practices and reading research findings, on the other. Previous research has emphasized the importance of vocabulary knowledge in improving foreign language reading and the necessity of focused vocabulary instruction (Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005), which clearly supports the emphasis put on vocabulary teaching by the teachers in this study. However, it has largely been suggested that teachers teach vocabulary learning and coping strategies rather than explicit teaching of specific words in a text (Nuttall, 2005). Apart from teaching how to guess the meanings of new words, the present teachers were mainly attempting to define words rather than teach students the use of such strategies.

There is no unanimous agreement on the role and effectiveness of translation in enhancing FL learners' reading ability. That being so, different people have voiced diverse viewpoints on the role of translation in reading comprehension; some scholars have pointed to the positive effects of translation on FL learning (Atkinson, 1987; Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Corder, 1981; Ellis, 1985; Kobayashi & Rinnert 1992; Prince, 1996; Wenden, 1986), while some others have drawn our attention to the infrequency of translation among advanced FL learners (Wen & Johnson, 1997). However, it is worth mentioning that translation tasks need to be carefully and systematically designed and implemented by the teachers in order to be able to play an optimal role in students' ultimate achievement (Kaye, 2009).

In contrast to what was found in the present study, silent reading has been considered more effective in comparison to reading aloud. While reading aloud, the reader's attention is directed to pronunciation, sentence structure and lexical choices, while silent reading is indicative of a whole-language approach in which meaning making and understanding the author's ideas is of high priority (Goodman, 1989). According to Dwyer (1983) and Gardner (1986), reading aloud is time-consuming; it is also unreal reading which promotes slow reading while it can be boring for the rest of the students who have to listen to their classmates read the text aloud. Nuttall (2005) also maintained that while reading aloud, the reader focuses on pronunciation and thereby cannot understand the meaning of the text deeply since the mind is not capable of simultaneous processing of both the form and the meaning. Nevertheless, reading aloud can still be considered a useful learning strategy when the goal is to develop or improve students' accuracy, fluency, or pronunciation skills, especially at the beginning stages of language learning (Dhaif, 1990; Swaffar, Arens, & Byrnes 1991) or even at the advanced levels, when the students' speed and accuracy need further improvement (Kailani, 1998).

Despite the fact that all four teachers admitted the important role of extensive reading in enhancing students' reading ability, none of them implemented this useful strategy in their classes. A plethora of studies (Al-Homoud & Schmitt, 2009; Cha, 2009; Huffman, 2014; Iwahori, 2008; Krashen, 2004, 2012; Mason & Krashen, 1997; Rodrigo, Krashen, & Gribbons, 2003) have introduced extensive reading as a reading strategy which improves reading rate, fluency, and comprehension. However, this kind of reading which mainly refers to reading easy texts for enjoyment and understanding the general idea, has often been neglected in the majority of reading classes (Meltzer & Hamann, 2004) including ESP reading courses. Instead, the majority of reading courses are obsessed with intensive reading or reading shorter, more difficult texts along with vocabulary and comprehension exercises.

The beneficial outcomes of pair and group work have largely been mentioned in the literature. For instance, Meltzer and Hamann (2004) argue that collaborative learning in content-area courses leads to enhancing students' motivation which, in turn, contributes to their ultimate achievement. Nevertheless, it was found that the present teachers were mainly in favor of whole class discussions and maintained that pair and group work activities may result in students making a lot of noise, wasting time, and achieving no goals. One reason for these teachers' reluctance to implement pair and group work activities in the classrooms, as mentioned by them, was their unfamiliarity with these kinds of tasks and the way they should be run and managed. As Lily argued, "maybe, some training courses must be established for us. For the teachers, I don't really know how to treat them. I can easily teach literature but I don't know how to teach this course which is related to engineering". Regarding the last research question, results indicated that the teachers attributed this divergence to the contextual constraints, the most important of which were the unsuitability of the textbooks, lack of enough time, lack of knowledge of those specific subjects on the part of the teachers themselves, untrained teachers, and students' lack of motivation.

Conclusions

This study attempted to examine the possible links between teachers' perceptions, practice, and the research findings in ESP reading. Using observations and interviews, the researcher found that the teachers' perceptions almost matched the existing theories on the nature of ESP reading, its teaching as well as learning. Nevertheless, mismatches were found between their perceptions and their actual teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom context. Furthermore, their practices did not enjoy the support of ESP reading theories either. To put it more clearly, the results of previous research recommend a metacognitive-strategy approach to teaching reading comprehension, while the participants in this study mainly utilized a skills-based approach in that they taught ESP reading through translating vocabulary and texts, asking the students to read the texts aloud, defining most of the words in each text, and explaining grammatical structures. Contextual constraints and the students' lack of motivation were the two most important factors, mentioned by the teachers, which hindered the application of either ESP principles or the teachers’ perceptions in real classroom situations. The main reason, however, was that the teachers were not involved in decision making processes, thereby feeling totally disempowered to be real agents of change in the situation.

Implications

The results of the current study can be illuminating to those in charge of ESP courses who are attempting to achieve the most effective outcomes. It can be argued that an attempt needs to be made to eliminate some of the obstacles existing in the teaching environment so as to help ESP reading teachers implement either their perceptions or reading research findings in the field. As mentioned by all four teachers, a major problem in this context was the textbook which was considered unsuitable for the majority of the students in each class. Therefore, materials developers can step in to develop more suitable materials in line with ESP students' needs and wants. Also, the subject matter and language teachers can collaboratively teach such courses so that the burden on language teachers' shoulder will be lightened. Furthermore, some training courses may prove helpful especially for those teachers with non-TEFL backgrounds who may feel confused because of not knowing how to cope with such a complicated teaching situation. Finally, ESP reading teachers need to be made more empowered and be allowed to adopt or adapt the teaching materials considering their own students' needs because they are the ones who are in direct contact with the students and know what challenges they encounter while learning ESP reading comprehension.

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

This study, like many other studies, suffers from a number of problems and limitations which leave room for further studies in this area. The first and foremost problem could be the limited number of participants which may be justified on the grounds that there were just four English teachers teaching ESP reading at this university in this term. Future research can examine the links between subject matter teachers' perceptions, practices, and reading research findings, especially those who are expert in their own fields but may not have enough expertise in the English language. Other studies can also compare the perceptions and practices of English and subject matter teachers who are teaching ESP reading in different disciplines. In this specific context, the researcher was not allowed to record the teachers' classes. Further studies can be conducted on the issue using more sophisticated instruments and more rigorous data collection or analysis procedures. Additionally, other studies can be done on other skills in ESP courses; for example, ESP teachers' strategies for the development of listening, speaking, or writing skills of the students. Comparing and contrasting ESP teachers' and students' perceptions could also be a fruitful area of enquiry in order to find out how similar or divergent their perceptions are and what the effects of these similarities and divergences could be on students' ultimate achievement.

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Appendix 1: Observation Scheme

Skills-based approach	Understand all words
	Extract meanings
	Focus on factual meaning
	Focus on reading aloud
	Focus on vocabulary
	Focus on translation
	Discuss texts with class
Whole-language approach	Guess words
	Construct meaning
	Let learn to read naturally (e.g., home reading)
	Do pre-reading activities
	Focus on inferential meaning
	Set communicative activities (e.g., role play)
	Discuss texts in groups
Metacognitive strategy approach	Read with purpose
	Monitor reading
	Teach to monitor reading
	Teach to solve comprehension problems
	Teach to identify main ideas
	Teach to evaluate text information

Adopted from Kuzborska (2011)

Teach to monitor reading (e.g., to recognize and attend to comprehension difficulties);

Teach to solve comprehension problems (e.g., to use text structure awareness);

Teach to evaluate text information (e.g., to think of arguments for and against the ideas presented in the text).

Pre-reading activities:

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

While-reading activities:

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Post-reading activities:

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Student initiations

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Teacher initiations

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Pair works

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Group works

………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix 2: Interview Questions

1. Would you please define ESP reading? What do we mean by ESP reading?

2. When teaching ESP reading, is it necessary to define all the words in the text for the students?

3. While teaching ESP reading, should we focus on factual meaning?

4. Should we correct students' mispronunciations when teaching ESP reading?

5. What do you think of students reading the texts aloud in ESP reading classes? How about asking the students to read silently?

6. In your opinion, is extensive reading useful in ESP reading courses?

7. What do you think of using students' native language while teaching reading? Is translating words and sentences a good way of teaching ESP reading?

8. Should we encourage students to try to guess the meanings of new words whose meanings are unknown to them?

9. How about using pair- and group-work activities in ESP reading classes?

10. What do you think of teaching the students to read critically? Or to read between the lines?

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Developing a Questionnaire for Critical Needs Analysis in EAP

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Abstract

In the context of a longitudinal critical needs analysis to identify the English for academic purposes needs of undergraduate medical students, this study reports on the development, reliability and validity of a questionnaire in which the items were built from medical students' essays. The procedure followed in this study is expected to contribute to the recommendations put forward by Serafini, Lake and Long (2015) on the reliability and validity of the outcomes of the needs analysis. The methodology that has been followed while developing the questionnaire in this study has not been previously performed in English for specific purposes and English for academic purposes in the context of a needs analysis, which is the main contribution of this study. Three key stages were present in this longitudinal study: pre-pilot stage, pilot stage and main stage. For the content validity, eight experts, (i.e., two lecturers from Educational Sciences, three lecturers from English Language Teaching, and three lecturers from the Medical School) were used and for the face validity, eleven medical students participated with their feedback. 507 medical students participated in this study actively: 183 students took part in the pilot study, and 324 students participated in the main study. After factor analysis, the questionnaire developed in this study comprised 45 questions. The items in the questionnaire were collected according to the items' factor loadings for the main study.

Eight sub-scales were developed as study findings to investigate medical students' needs and expectations regarding medical English: instructor qualifications, shortcomings, methods and strategies, affective domains, setting (where English is used), problems (during the medical English learning process), the importance of English and aims regarding language competence. Cronbach's alpha was performed for each scale to determine the internal consistency and the reliability of the questionnaire. The results ranged from 0.6820 to 0.8061.

Keywords: Critical needs analysis; English for academic purposes; medical English; questionnaire design

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1. Introduction

Needs analysis is a prerequisite for an effective programme design in English language teaching. Despite the significance of needs analysis in education, language needs have never been clearly defined for higher education disciplines and remain ambiguous, which leads to various interpretations in the literature. Conventionally, in the literature, needs are defined as the gap between what is and what should be (Brindley, 1989).

Needs analysis to tailor learner needs tends to be associated with English for academic purposes (EAP) and English for specific purposes (ESP) in the literature; despite that needs analysis is crucial for general English classrooms and even for general education. However, criticisms in the literature have been attached regarding the neglect of needs analysis in the mainstream general English classrooms (Seedhouse, 1995, p. 59) regarding practice and application. Research and discussions on the theory and practice of curriculum design suggest that needs should be considered as the main focus to plan to teach systematically as an ongoing process, which paves the way for needs-based curriculum for good and effective practices in education as a well-accepted path. It is notable that the association of needs-based curriculum development is studied in mainstream EAP/ESP classrooms, while there is little discussion in general English classrooms compared to EAP/ESP. Given the significance of needs analysis, empirical studies should be examined to benefit from practical and pedagogical implications about the data collection instruments used to provide new insights how we can adapt these approaches to our teaching context in mainstream classrooms to satisfy learner needs and implementation of language teaching programs (see Bocanegra-Valle, 2016 for a detailed review on needs analysis). Recent research and discussions on needs analysis are questioning the data collection materials with empirical evidence (see Onder-Ozdemir, 2018, 2014; Serafini, Lake & Long, 2015).

2. Literature Review

There are a variety of needs analyses in the literature. In the 1970s, with Munby's (1978) approach, needs analysis became the centre of attention among researchers and paved the way in English language teaching for the growth of ESP and EAP, which are based on tailored-to-fit instruction (Belcher, 2006). Target situation analysis focuses on the learners' needs upon completion of a language course. Because target needs analysis provides only limited direction to classroom practitioners, deficiency analysis examines the differences between target-language use and current learner proficiencies to reveal needs (Jordan, 1997). In the present-situation analysis, learners take responsibility for their learning, and they are the source of information, which can be viewed as a complement to target-situation analysis (Richterich & Chancerel, 1977). Means analysis investigates "contextual constraints and strengths" about the institutional context, such as teaching facilities, materials and a cultural environment, such as teacher's proficiency in English and students and parents' attitudes toward learning in general (Brown, 2016, p. 25, see also Holliday & Cook, 1982). Similarly, Hyland (2016) noted that sometimes kinds of teaching and goals that the learning context offers, including teachers, methods and relationship of the course to its immediate environment, are considered as means analysis.

Benesch (1996) proposed the critical needs analysis as an alternative approach to examining target situations. She argued that critical needs analysis considers the target situation as a site of possible reform to treat inequality. She compared needs analysis with critical needs analysis and criticised needs analysis because of its identification and description of existing elements of the target situation. Therefore, as an alternative to traditional needs analysis, Benesch proposes critical needs analysis, to focus on inequalities both inside and outside the organisation while considering hierarchical positions (see Pennycook, 1994).

Critical needs analysis, which is the focus of the present study, pinpoints democratic participation and power relations and views students as members of society by demystifying inequalities and encouraging learners to question and to democratise the learning process and work life. Benesch (2001) examines the term “needs analysis” and proposes “rights analysis” for the learners’ needs, emphasising that critical EAP depends on needs analysis and critical needs analysis.

In education, some of the target needs may be supplemented and modified. Perceiving needs analysis as a political and situated process to focus on social and cultural inequality in education, in an intermediate-level ESL writing class, Benesch (1996) conducted a critical needs analysis as a guide to the EAP curriculum development for a paired ESL/psychology course. Her study revealed that target needs were in the form of requirements and some of them were contradictory. The target situation presented various contradictory demands on students from different levels of the academic hierarchy, including university, college, departmental (Psychology), and classroom (ESL) levels. Benesch notes that this hierarchy complicates the development of curricula for teachers. To address the different levels, she developed three types of activities thereby creating possibilities for change driven by both needs analysis and critical needs analysis: (i) dealing with the unmanageable amount of material in the psychology course through traditional EAP activities, such as note-taking and oral presentations, (ii) challenging the requirements by inviting students to generate questions for the psychology instructor to answer during the psychology lectures and the instructor’s visit to the ESL class and (iii) creating possibilities for social awareness and action by providing socially-relevant research topics, such as anorexia, and the relationship between governmental politics and education to encourage students’ participation in democratic processes in higher education.

The literature covers a variety of needs analysis approaches that highlight the importance of needs and methods (see Basturkmen, 2014; Benesch, 2001; Bocanegra-Valle, 2016; Bosuwon & Woodrow 2009; Chia, Johnson, Chia & Olive, 1999; Ferris, 1998; Green, 1999; Holme & Chalauisaeng, 2006; Huang, 2010; Hwang & Lin, 2010; Irby, 1994; Jiajing, 2007; Macalister, 2012; Shi, Corcos & Storey 2001; Onder-Ozdemir, 2018). However, emerging empirical studies have limitations concerning their methodology and pedagogical implications while identifying needs. The methods, i.e., validity and reliability of the instruments, are rarely discussed and largely under-researched (Long, 2005; Onder-Ozdemir, 2018; Van Hest & Oud-de Glas, 1990; West, 1994). Serafini, Lake and Long (2015) highlighted that despite the improvements in needs analysis, problems are still present that decrease the reliability and validity of the needs analysis. They called for “consistent application of criteria for the use of methodologicalprocedures” (p. 24). Many research methods use structured or semi-structured interviews and written questionnaires to reveal learner needs, although these approaches have been heavily criticised (see Brown, 2016, 1995; Long, 2005; Onder-Ozdemir, 2018; West, 1994). Surprisingly, the triangulation of the data and methods has rarely been employed, although cooperation among parties in teaching is highly recommended. Notably, West (1994) has criticised how little attention is paid to learners as a source of information. Because needs may vary depending on the learners’ backgrounds, aims, priorities, job requirements or culture, there is an on-going debate on the methods employed to define such needs. Needs analysis obtains subjective and objective information through its data collection methods. If the needs are identified, they can include a basis on which to improve teaching by providing goals and objectives and to develop materials, tests and teaching activities (Brown, 2016, 1995).

Considering the variables that were discussed above, interpretations, assumptions or instincts, evaluating needs from the outside may be misleading when a course must be designed. Therefore, there is a consensus that data should be collected through triangulation, which increases the reliability and validity of the data. There are various problems with needs analysis, including management problems, the nature of the identified data and the relationship between the findings and a given curriculum. One striking criticism was posited by Chambers (1980), who noted that “…whoever determines needs largely determines which needs are determined” (p. 27). The critical points in the criticisms focus on the question of whether learners are reliable sources. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) suggest that there is no single, unique set of needs. The findings depend on who asks which questions and how the responses are interpreted. Surprisingly, however, when the data collection methods are scrutinized on needs analysis, the questionnaire items and the interview questions tend to be prepared without any input from the learners. Thus, in this study, the criticisms compose a rhetorical question because the individuals in charge of the educational process, e.g., in medicine, are likely to favour personal interest over learner interest in questionnaires. Does such personal interest reflect learner needs?

This study has highlighted the theoretical and methodological underpinnings of a new questionnaire in a Turkish context in light of detailed empirical data in a longitudinal study. In this study, a new questionnaire was developed that was specific to the target teaching context in Turkey in line with Chamber's (1980) insightful suggestion while identifying medical students' needs. Although questionnaires possess certain significant advantages, i.e., they can be more reliable and economical than interviews, questionnaires also possess serious limitations. The principal contribution of the present study is the development of a new questionnaire from essays written in Turkish by medical students in the Medical School. The essay topic was about medical students' expectations and needs. This study demystifies the process of why and how this instrument has been constructed by examining the instrument's validity and reliability (see Yin, 2014). The findings may have significant implications for course design and the implementation of EAP/ESP programmes to meet the needs of medical students in academic and professional settings while responding to changing needs in the mainstream EAP/ESP classrooms.

3. Methods and Procedures

To compose a well-constructed questionnaire for the main study considering the criticisms, first, a pilot questionnaire was designed. The design of the pilot questionnaire in this study had eight phases as follows:

(i) An open-ended question was asked: "What are your expectations and needs regarding medical English?" to which the medical students responded by writing an essay;

(ii) the themes and sub-themes in the students' essays were analysed to develop an item pool;

(iii) an item pool was created;

(iv) feedback from lecturers was collected to ensure content validity;

(v) feedback from students was collected to ensure face validity;

(vi) a pilot study was performed on 183 medical students;

(vii) factor analysis and reliability assessment were conducted (Cronbach's alpha); and

(viii) the main study was conducted on 324 medical students.

For the content validity of this newly developed questionnaire, each item was checked from the viewpoint of *formatting, clarity of the questions, instructions, content of the questions, measurement and assessment*, *language teaching* and *medical education* by eight experts from the relevant fields: two lecturers from Educational Sciences, three lecturers from English Language Teaching, and three lecturers from the Medical School. For the face validity, to check the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions, layout and the readability level (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007) and feedback was collected from the medical students in case there was any aspect that was not clear regarding the items in the questionnaire given that the items were prepared in light of medical students' essays and each students' background may be different. All in all, it was necessary to ensure that respondents understood despite that the items were created from medical students' own essays. The medical students who participated in the face validity process of this study were asked to respond to each item using a 5-point Likert scale that included degree of importance, degree of validity and degree of priority while medical students specified the degree in their judgements (i.e., □top priority; □priority; □low priority; □not a priority; □absolutely not a priority). Higher item scores indicated a more favourable attitude. As indicated in Appendix 1, this scale enabled students to identify the importance, the relevance and the priority of the items that were extracted from their essays. Additionally, the questionnaire contained a short section that elicited participant background information, including gender, age, grade and high school.

This study can be distinguished from previous studies because, as the present study's questionnaire was being developed, students had a critical say regarding their needs, wants, expectations and the aspects that were lacking in medical English education while each item in the present study was built. Accordingly, the ambiguous phrase "needs in EAP" was revisited critically with the active participation of the learners using the question "What are your expectations and needs regarding medical English?" This question was asked at the beginning of the term, and 193 students voluntarily wrote responses in the form of essays in Turkish that were full of suggestions and recommendations. The written responses as essays medical students wrote were examined to build items to identify medical students' needs. This process can be viewed as an example of critical needs analysis or rights analysis and an attempt to prevent inequality in the power relations between learners and practitioners (see Benesch, 2001, Onder-Ozdemir, 2014). Enabling the students' own words, sentences and voices to be heard, the essays promoted critical thinking and learner autonomy, as reflected in the sample of raw data below from the medical students' essays about their expectations and needs regarding medical English.

An extract from a medical student's essay:

> "*...I want to be a prominent surgeon in the world. Some people may laugh at this. I am aware that I need to speak English fluently to realise my aim. Thus,*

Medical English course is vital to my future profession to access resources in English and to study/work abroad. My expectations with regard to the course cover learning many medical words, doing practices, and I want my knowledge of English to be permanent. I need to learn idioms, medical words and collocations, etc. In addition, I will be pleased if you use visual materials during the Medical English course..."

Piloting the questionnaire, field testing (Dörnyei, 2007, pp. 112-113), required various steps, including drawing up an item pool and post-hoc item analysis. After analysing the raw data, the main themes in the medical students' essays were classified using content analysis. The content analysis results showed that medical students expressed their needs and expectations regarding medical English in ten salient domains as follows:

A- Structure and Vocabulary Knowledge
B- Classroom and Interaction Characteristics
C- Language Proficiency
D- Settings where English will be Used
E- Individual Aims
F- Shortcomings
G- Methods and Strategies
H- Instructor Qualifications
I- Linguistic Characteristics
J- Affective Domains

Feedback was collected several times from all the stakeholders in the present study, including medical students, medical specialists, lecturers from educational sciences and English language teaching, until all of the parties were satisfied with the main data collection instrument, which affected the quality of the collected data. The feedback, which was provided by academics and students, was examined in light of the literature, and suggestions for fundamental changes to the questionnaire were considered. The feedback from insiders was significant because a questionnaire must be clear and comprehensive for the respondents to answer effectively (Stone, 1993). In other words, it was necessary to ensure that students as respondents understood the questionnaire, even though the items were created based on the students' essays. The students were provided with information concerning the research aims and were asked if the questionnaire was easy to understand or if there were any difficult words. The researcher and 11 students met in the researcher' office to examine the questions in the questionnaire. Students read the questionnaire silently and took notes regarding their questions, unknown words and ambiguous structures and sentences. The meeting took almost one hour, and the written feedback was discussed to improve the questionnaire. The students highlighted certain important issues that had been taken for granted in the preparation of the questionnaire. The students concurred on the problem of understanding the abbreviations used in certain national English examinations in higher education. Because the instructors who examined the pilot questionnaire were academics, they had experience with these examinations and were accustomed to using the abbreviations rather than the unabbreviated forms. However, the feedback from the students revealed that the students did not understand the abbreviations in the questionnaire. When the researcher shared the full forms of the abbreviations, the students explained that they had heard of these examinations but did not distinguish the purposes of each examination. Further feedback was related to certain items in the pilot study which were found to be too complicated. After modifications, the pilot study questionnaire comprised 77 questions. This study was announced a few days in advance using a notice with information about the aim and nature of the questionnaire and inviting study participants on the scheduled days. Confidentiality was assured, and a consent form was signed by each medical student. To collect data for detailed analysis, assess the questionnaire's effectiveness and locate potential problems in collecting data in the pilot study, the raw instrument was applied with the participation of 183 first-, second- and third-year medical students in an approximately 50 minute-session.

As explained above, the questionnaire embodied ten domains, and the domains included a total of 77 items in the pilot study. The items were closed-ended questions with ordered choices (Likert response scales). The domains were determined by considering the consensus and theoretical background expressed in the relevant literature described in the introduction. Items were extracted from the sample essays that represented the target population of medical students whose needs were in question. To check the inter-correlated measures among the items and to identify the major dimensions, a factor analysis (i.e., "to identify clusters of key variables and to identify redundant items" Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 342) was conducted with the support of an expert in statistics to extract ten factors. As a result of the factor analysis, the items to be removed were identified, and representative sample items were formed for the reliable data. In the first run, a screen test i.e., a test to identify the optimum number of significant factors (see Cattell, 1966) indicated that the number of initial factors extracted was too small to reflect the dimensions of the tool that are necessary to determine the needs of the students in a wide range. Thus, the data forced extraction of the ten factors. During this procedure, the statistical and the conceptual assumptions of the test were considered. Regarding the factor loadings after the first factor analysis, the items that had factor loadings less than +0.33 and the items that had significant cross-loadings were omitted. For the items that met the expected level of significance (items that had a factor loading greater than 0.33 without significant cross-loading), the analysis was repeated. Variables for the factor analysis were measured at the ordinal level (five-step scale), and the number of cases was sufficient to show the normality (183 participants). Test results for the appropriateness of the factor analysis were as follows. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test measure of sampling adequacy was 0.724 (good), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was p=0.000, which was additionally utilised to evaluate the applicability of a principal components analysis. Factor analysis may not be valid if Bartlett's test of sphericity is not significant. The correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. In other words, there are significant correlations. After the factor analysis, the questionnaire comprised 45 questions, and the items were collected according to their factor loadings for the main study (see Appendix 1 for the newly designed questionnaire).

The questionnaire developed for the needs analysis was administered in two different academic years in the Medical School, which may reveal the applicability of the newly developed instrument. 206 students who did not participate in the pilot study and who had followed the medical English course for at least for one year responded to the questionnaire in the main study. In addition to the first group of students, the same questionnaire was administered to new medical students who started their education in the Medical School in the following year. Of the students, 118 answered the questionnaire. In sum, 324 students responded to the questionnaire for the findings of the critical needs analysis to develop the questionnaire to be used. In the main study, the chief data-collection instrument was a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire written in Turkish and translated into English for this paper, which was considered to be the most suitable technique to collect information from the majority number of students (see Onder-Ozdemir, 2014, for further information on the needs analysis results that were obtained using the questionnaire introduced in this study).

4. The Validity and the Reliability of the Questionnaire

As reported above, validity and reliability are significant issues for an effective research instrument. The term validity was formerly defined as a demonstration that a particular instrument measures what the instrument aims to measure. However, recently, validity has acquired various definitions, which include many terms, such as triangulation, richness, depth, careful sampling and appropriate statistical treatments of data and honesty. In the present paper, reliability refers to "…dependability, consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007, p. 146). Collecting data from different sources was an attempt to ensure the validity of the findings. Based on triangulation, which is of vital importance to an experimental study, the researcher adopted mixed method research by interrelating qualitative and quantitative data. Method and data triangulation can provide strong evidence concerning the validity of the research. Four types of evidence regarding the validity and reliability of the questionnaire were employed, including content, consistency, face validity and accuracy as follows: (i) face validity was ensured in designing the questionnaire with the feedback from medical students; (ii) content validity was obtained from lecturers' comments and feedback; (iii) internal consistency was evaluated for the summed rating scales using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and (iv) the accuracy of the completed questionnaires was verified using an intensive interview. The questionnaire's accuracy was addressed using an intensive interview to determine the validity of the questionnaire following Belson (1986). In addition, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaire, which ranged from 0.6820 for item H to 0.8061 for item B, justifying the derivation of a composite score for the items A to H by averaging the responses of the constituent items in the main questionnaire. After ensuring the validity and reliability of the tool, the questionnaire in the main study had the following eight domains, which were used as sub-scales in the questionnaire:

A- Instructor Qualifications
B- Shortcomings
C- Methods and Strategies
D- Affective Domains
E- Settings (where English is used)
F- Problems (during the medical English learning process)
G- Importance of English
H- Aims regarding Language Competence

"Affective domains", which focused on student attitudes, may seem irrelevant. However, I tentatively suggest that these domains could be a sign of the awareness of medical students' needs. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) noted, the awareness of the need characterises the situation. I should note that the findings as domains revealed in this study are compatible with the types of need highlighted by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, p. 121) and in accord with Richard (2001), who suggest that needs analysis aims to cover the types of need shown in Figure 1. This result may suggest that students can be reliable sources of information about their needs. The key difference in the present study is the focus of medical students on the instructor's qualifications. The possible explanations for this focus could be that the classrooms in the Medical School are crowded, and the courses are instructor-oriented, i.e., around 200 students in a lecture hall. Thus, medical English courses tend to be in the form of a lecture in which academics are dominant. Another reason could be the shortage of experts in medical English language. Accordingly, EAP/ESP practitioners are highly likely to have various responsibilities that might have influenced the students' concentration on the instructor's role while identifying their needs (see Onder, 2012 for the role of the EAP/ESP practitioner).

A. Professional communication about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for target situation analysis and objective needs
B. Personal information about learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English wants, means, subjective needs
C. English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are present situation analysis-which allows us to assess
D. The learners' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) lacks
E. Language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) learning needs
F. Professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis
G. What is wanted from the course
H. Information about the environment in which the course will be run means analysis

Figure 1. Types of Needs

5. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

This study presents an approach to designing a questionnaire for a critical needs analysis with a focus on medical students in the context of teaching medical English. A comprehensive account of the questionnaire development process is provided. The principal contribution of this study to the field of EAP/ESP is a new questionnaire for the critical needs analysis, which was developed specifically for the teaching context of medical students. The main questionnaire comprised of 45 items. The findings have significant implications for future efforts to develop an EAP/ESP course for medical students. Active student involvement could promote learner autonomy and encourage students to think about and understand their needs critically while learning. Adopting the critical needs analysis approach is likely to scaffold this process. The questions in the questionnaire may change according to teaching culture and milieu. It is notable that the steps followed to develop a questionnaire for needs analysis in this study could be adapted to the different educational milieu. Hence, questionnaires should be designed to serve as the basis for the interviews to diagnose learner needs, and the research design can be replicated in other teaching contexts.

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Appendix 1: Newly Designed Questionnaire for Critical Needs Analysis in EAP

A- INSTRUCTOR QUALIFICATIONS

Instructors have various roles in English language teaching process. It is thought that these roles affect the teaching process. First and foremost, the language instructors interact with the students and prepare the learning environment. In addition, it is regarded that the qualifications of the teacher have considerable effects on learning environment.

In this respect, please specify the "**degree of importance"** concerning the qualifications of the teacher for you.

Please use the following scale in your judgements.

□very important □important □partially important □unimportant □absolutely unimportant

1. Instructors should make the course interesting and entertaining, to facilitate learning English	□ □ □ □ □
2. Instructors should plan teaching process in detail beforehand.	□ □ □ □ □
3. Instructors should make preparation before coming to the classroom.	□ □ □ □ □
4. Instructors should care his/her job, love teaching, and have high motivation.	□ □ □ □ □
5. Instructors should make sacrifices for his/her students such as allocating time for a particular period of time for the questions which are not understood.	□ □ □ □ □
6. Instructors should have professional competencies including asking relevant questions and explaining the important points in a comprehensible way.	□ □ □ □ □
7. Instructors should have a high level of proficiency in English.	□ □ □ □ □
8. Instructors should create a relaxing atmosphere in the classroom.	□ □ □ □ □
9. Instructors should teach English in a way that students love English.	□ □ □ □ □
10. Instructors should understand students' feelings and opinions.	□ □ □ □ □

B- LACKS

Learning a language is an individual process and learners need to identify the weak points and look for ways to compensate them by being open to the self-criticism. The problems which English language learners might face are listed below. Please specify the "**degree of validity"** of these problems for you.

Please use the following scale in your judgements**.**

□top validity □valid □low validity □invalid □absolutely invalid

11. Difficulty in understanding medical articles	□ □ □ □ □
12. Not to be able to pronounce the words	□ □ □ □ □
13. Difficulty in expressing myself while speaking	□ □ □ □ □
14. That the level of English, which has been gained through preparatory classroom, is not sufficient	□ □ □ □ □
15. Problem in understanding English expressions and statements	□ □ □ □ □
16. Difficulty in translating a text from English to my native language	□ □ □ □ □

C- METHODS AND STRATEGIES

There are various method and strategies which are employed by students and teachers during learning and teaching process. The aim of using these methods and strategies is to make the education process more effective, make students aware of the teaching methods and personal strategies while learning English and also enable the students to become successful. Please specify the "**degree of importance"** of methods and strategies that are listed below.

Please use the following scale in your judgements.

□very important □important □partially important □unimportant □absolutely unimportant

17. Learning English through using English words in sentences	□ □ □ □ □
18. Learning English words not only with the meanings but also learning word classes (such as adjective, verb) and collocations (conduct research)	□ □ □ □ □
19. Reinforcing the target words by repeating them	□ □ □ □ □
20. Learning English words in sentences and in different contexts	□ □ □ □ □
21. Learning words through experiencing different learning strategies	□ □ □ □ □
22. Learning words through emphasizing how the words are used in medical articles	□ □ □ □ □
23. Learning English structures and words through the sample texts which include the target structures and words a lot	□ □ □ □ □
24. Learning through emphasizing the differences between some medical English terminology and General English words	□ □ □ □ □

D- AFFECTIVE DOMAINS

Affective domain is related to the subjects such as your interests, attitudes, emotions, and tendencies. Determine "**the degree of validity"** of the following judgements which cover your interest, attitudes and emotions regarding Medical English.

Please use the following scale.

☐top validity ☐valid ☐low validity ☐invalid ☐ absolutely invalid

25. I regard English as a need that I am learning through this course	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
26. English, which I am learning now, is significant for my professional development	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
27. Taking this course makes me happy	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
28. My belief in succeeding in learning Medical English affects my attitude towards the course	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
29. I think English is a common global language in the world and it is crucial to learn	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

E- SETTINGS (WHERE ENGLISH WILL BE USED)

There are different settings in which people who are learning English think of using English. There are some settings below that English is used in different ways. In this respect, the following statements determine "**the degree of priority"** of settings that you will use English. (in a way to be compatible with your learning needs)

Please use the following scale in your judgements.

☐top priority ☐ priority ☐low priority ☐not priority ☐absolutely not priority

30. While writing a paper, article, etc.	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
31. While exchanging knowledge and experience with the colleagues abroad through individual correspondence (including e-mails)	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
32. While watching or participating in the discussion forums or a platform, etc. on the Internet	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
33. Using English in the settings where distance communication access is available and also while taking part in the medical operations or such activities which are carried out with the collaboration of the participants	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

F- PROBLEMS (DURING THE MEDICAL ENGLISH LEARNING PROCESS)

When we are learning English, we face with a variety of problems and these problems make the learning process difficult. In this scope, the answers you give to the questions will determine "**the degree of priority"** of the problem.

Please use the following scale in your judgements**.**

□top priority □ priority □low priority □not priority □absolutely not priority

34. Not to be able to get prepared for the English courses	□ □ □ □ [
35. Not to be able to benefit from the course materials which are presented while learning English	□ □ □ □ [
36. Problems in understanding English expressions, statements	□ □ □ □ [
37. The relationship between functions in communication (such as showing contrast, explanation, characterization)	□ □ □ □ [
38. I have a bias towards learning English. (I have positive or negative opinions due to some people or events that I was affected in the past.)	□ □ □ □ [

G-IMPORTANCE OF ENGLISH

Language learning is coming into prominence in the education process. In this scope, the answers you give to the questions will determine "**the degree of importance"** of English in your education life.

Please use the following scale in your judgements**.**

□very important □important □partially important □unimportant □absolutely unimportant

39. That Medical English is a tool to realize occupational aims	□ □ □ □ □
40. That English will be "Medical English"	□ □ □ □ □
41. That English is relevant to my work environment for my future profession	□ □ □ □ □

H- AIMS REGARDING LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

Your answers to the questions will determine "**the degree of priority"** of your aims concerning language competence.

Please use the following scale in your judgements**.**

□top priority □ priority □low priority □not priority □absolutely not priority

42. To become successful in the international English proficiency exams which are prerequisite to conduct research and work abroad	□ □ □ □ □
43. To have education abroad on medicine	□ □ □ □ □
44. To be successful in the Foreign Language Examination- It is an examination that officers, research assistants, or the people who want to study abroad must take	□ □ □ □ □
45. To be successful in the [National Foreign Language Examination], which can be used when applying for MA/[MSc] or PhD degree	□ □ □ □ □

Demographic Information

1. Your gender: □ Male □ Female

2. Your age: _________________

3. Which grade are you in?

□ Preparatory □First □ Second □ Third □ Fourth □ Fifth □ Sixth

4. Which high school did you graduate from?

□ Anatolian High School

□ Private High School

□ General High School

□ Other (Please specify)…………………………………

5. Please write the name and place of the high school you are graduated from.

I hope that you will be professionally qualified and widely respected doctors. Thank you for your time and vital contribution for the research.

Best wishes,

Lecturer Neslihan Onder Medical English I- Course Coordinator

THE ASIAN ESP JOURNAL

What Skills do College Students Require in the Workplace? A Research Study Based on Discursive Competence

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Abstract

Aimed at clarifying students’ specific needs for English learning, this study, based on Bhatia’s (2004) notion of ESP discursive competence : textual competence, genre competence and social competence, is to investigate students’ needs for professional contexts through questionnaires, interviews and text analysis. The study shows that three levels of discursive

competence are required by graduates. Textual competence, mainly with reference to professional words, sentence structures and translation skills, etc., is the foundation of the other two competences. As for generic competence, the competences for reading and writing CVs, advertisements, invitation letters, complaint letters, etc. are more urgently required by the students than listening and speaking competences such interviews, receptions, presentations at meeting, transferring calls, etc. In terms of social competence, the abilities to communicate with the specialists of human resources and express social identity as interviewees are very important (mean score=4.40, SD=0.81). The HR competence to express company policy is also seen as important. This study is to specify students' needs for English and to certify whether an ESP course can help meet those needs through clarifying discursive competence, so as to provide another perspective for the policy of mainland college English course reform.

Key Words: college English; English for specific purposes (ESP); discursive competence; needs analysis; genre

1. Introduction

For the past two decades, with the development of the economy, a qualification in English has been required for Chinese people to communicate with foreigners in business and the academic world. However, the momentum of college English in China is not satisfactory. Cai's (2010) survey shows that more than 42.8% students lack motivation to learn English except for passing examinations. One of the reasons why students lose interest in learning English is that, what students learn is neither relevant to their present professional study, nor their future workplaces. Many experts have discovered deficiencies in college English teaching, supports the idea of shifting teaching emphasis from EGP to ESP, and considers ESP as a practical English learning approach. Some other experts like Zhang (2005), also hold that the combination of specific English teaching and general English teaching are conducive to avoiding the low motivation of English study in college. Chang (2007) through a qualitative study finds that the relevant specialized courses have exerted positive impacts on students.

A large number of scholars have devoted considerable effort to investigating the language skills used in a variety institutional, academic and professional contexts. A variety of specific language skills have been discussed, such as linguistic skills (Wang, 2007; Yeung, 2013; Aryadoust, 2016), user-friendly communication skills (Beaugrande, 2000), systematic schematic structuring and linguistic realization patterning of the genre (Flowerdew & Wan

2010; Ding 2007), listening, speaking, reading and writing skills (Chia et al. 1998; Bacha & Bahous， 2008; Washington, 2014; Wang, Y. C., 2015; Brink & Costigan, 2015); general English skills (Chew， 2005; Evans， 2010; Cowling， 2007). At the same time, the international economic development has driven the boom of language research on genre analysis in professional contexts and workplaces, for instance, analyzing letters of application, admission letters, negotiation, business replies and tax commutation (Henry & Roseberry, 2001; Pinto dos Santos, 2002; Mulken & Meer, 2005; Yeung, 2007; Flowerdew & Wan, 2010; Khan & Tin, 2012; Nguyen & Miller, 2012; Rahim & Zainal, 2014; Bremner & Phung, 2015; Hutiu, 2015; Liton, 2015; Chiu, 2016;), and all kinds of reports (Badger, 2003; Flowerdew & Wan, 2010; Hyon, 2008; van den Eertwegh, et al. 2013; Fitchett & Caruana, 2015; Parkinson, 2017) in terms of medicine, business, taxation, accounting, aviation and news. Linguistic skills, communication skills in context, and generic competence are the indispensable skills that students should acquire before they graduate and the staff are bound to use during their work. Chomsky (1965) proposes the notion of language competence as speakers' knowledge of their ability to produce and understand language, which is distinctive from performance, the specific utterances, including grammatical mistakes and non-linguistic features. Bhatia argues that "communicative competence may be for general ability to use language in social contexts, it undermines the specific concerns of individual professions and institutions" (Bhatia 2004, p. 143). So he summarizes language skills at three levels by using the concept "discursive competence" rather than language competence: textual competence which means the competence to understand the text and to consider textual, contextual and pragmatic factors; Generic competence, the competence of constructing and interpreting genres according to specific disciplines; and Social competence, the competence of constructing and interpreting the author or the speaker's social identity. The three levels of discursive competence cover most of the language skills in our real discourse world.

Bhatia (2004) argues that in academic or professional areas, no matter how complex and dynamic the discourse in the real world is, there are three other important elements of professional expertise, which should be exploited in their day-to-day professional work: the knowledge of the system of genres they own, the knowledge of the specific discipline they use, and the nature of professional practice.

Fig.1 Specification of Professional Expertise (Bhatia 2004, p. 146)

The competences the students should acquire before they graduate and step into the workplaces are still fiercely controversial. On one hand, students are not able to conjure up their future position in the company and in society. On the other hand, students are supposed to pass miscellaneous English examinations according to their different future plans. For example, they are asked to pass CET (College English Test) for graduation; some of them should take part in IELTS, TOEFL for further study abroad, and especially some may take part in TOELC for better work, etc. Curriculum and courses are designed to equip students with the linguistic competences such vocabulary, grammar, translation, etc. to help students pass the examination while no consideration is given to the discursive competences that students are required to display in future jobs. It is unanimously claimed by companies that college students are short of discursive competences in the three levels in spite of their high motivation for passing examinations and graduation. Hence, the types of discursive competence that students require arouses our research interest.

In order to function effectively in the target situation and to investigate their needs in workplaces, this study aims to examine students' needs for discursive competence in workplaces by using a combination of quantitative and qualitative research, applying three instruments: a survey, semi-structured interviews, and textual analysis to answer the following questions from three aspects:

1. What specific ESP discursive competences (textual competence, generic competence, and social competence) do the students need in tertiary education?

2. What specific ESP discursive competencies are covered in a sample of Chinese

ESP textbooks?

3. Do the discursive competences in the current ESP textbooks meet students' needs for their later occupation?

2. Research Method

This study integrated quantitative research methods with qualitative research methods using three instruments: a survey, semi-structured interviews and text analysis.

Questionnaires were distributed to 100 employees with the following principles:

- The participants should work in foreign-invested companies and have a stronger desire for learning English. Although graduates with good English proficiency are strongly needed in the society, some employers still only choose the students who have passed CET (College English Test); Employees in foreign-invested companies are the main groups who still use English after graduation.
- According to the needs analysis, the research should be done among graduates who work in foreign-invested companies at the moment. Only the students who have worked in the target situation for a period of time can provide information about the needs students really face in the workplaces.
- The employees should serve the companies for at least one year, so they have a panoramic overview about English needs in the workplaces and they have a better understanding of the exact discursive competences that are needed in tertiary education. Meanwhile, some implications can be obtained from their reflection.
- Employees who were English majors are not included in this survey since this study aims to provide some implications on the reform of college English of non-English majors rather than English majors.

Five foreign-invested companies were selected: APL (American President Lines), DHL (Deutsche Post DHL), DAMCO, HP (Hewlett-Packard), Pfizer. 79 were responded, but only 60 were valid, among which 5 informants were selected randomly to conduct the semi-structured interview.

Table1: Background Information on Employees in Foreign Companies for Interviews

Name	Age	Gender	English level	University	Major	Company
Andy Xia	26	Male	CET-6	Chongqing Technology and Business University	Psychology	DAMCO
John Chen	27	Male	CET-6	Sichuan University	Politics	DAMCO
Yu Zou	26	Female	CET-6	University of Shanghai for Science and Technology	Biology and medicine	Pfizer
Qing Liu	24	Male	CET-6	Chongqing University	Computer	APL
Chuan Wan	24	Female	CET-4	Chongqing Normal University	Chinese	HP

For the text analysis, 6 textbooks were selected with the following criteria:

- the selected textbooks must be a series of national planned textbooks themed with the "Tenth Five-year Plan" in China since those books are selected and promoted by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China.
- they must have been published within the last ten years.
- they must be published by authoritative publishers.

With these criteria in mind, the following 6 textbooks were selected, among which 3 books were selected from social science, and the other three from natural science and engineering.

Table 2: 6 Textbooks Selected for Text Analysis

Book name	**editor**
English for Management	*English for Management* writing group, **Higher Education Press, 2007**
English for Finance	*English for Finance* writing group, **Higher Education Press** , 2000
English for Fashion	*English for Fashion* writing group ,

	Higher Education Press , 2004
English for Mechanical and Electrical Engineering	*English for Mechanical and Electrical Engineering* writing group, **Higher Education Press,** 2008,
English for Chemistry and Chemical Engineering	*English for Chemistry and Chemical Engineering* writing group, **Higher Education Press** , 2002
English for Automatic Control	*English for Automatic Control* writing group, **Higher Education Press, 2008**

Most of these textbooks cover three main areas: reading and translating, listening and speaking, simulated writing. There are two types of articles involved in reading and translating: highly theoretical articles and practical articles. In the simulated writing, various genres such as business letters, consultative letters, etc. are included. As for listening and speaking, plenty of dialogue and listening practice themed with negotiation, consultation, etc. are chosen.

2.1 Research Instruments

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed for the employees in foreign-invested companies based on Bhatia's (2004) classifications of discursive competences, specifically, textual competence, generic competence and social competence. All the items were designed on a five-point Likert scale, 5=this competence is very important, 4=important, 3=somewhat important, 2=not important, 1=not important at all.

Semi-Structured Interview

Questionnaires were applied to know the categories of discursive competences the students urgently need. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted among 5 employees during April, 2015 to obtain in-depth information. The interview informants were selected randomly to be asked some questions like "why do you think translation skills are much more important than professional vocabulary?" The interviews were recorded with a voice recorder, and then transcribed into scripts. Different themes of the interviews were labeled and relationships between the themes were found and displayed during the text-analysis process.

Textual Analysis

Textual analysis was used to find out the discursive competences and categorize the specific discursive competences that are demonstrated in the current Chinese ESP textbooks, as well as the in-depth needs of students by analyzing the transcripts of semi-structured interviews.

2.2 Data collection and analysis

100 questionnaires were handed out in September, 2015, but 79 were returned among which 60 questionnaires were usable, so the effective rate was 75.95%. According to the questionnaires, 5 semi-structured interviews were conducted. 3 were conducted in Chongqing Municipality, and 2 were in Chengdu, the capital of Sichuan Province. All the conversations were recorded with a voice recorder, and then transcribed.

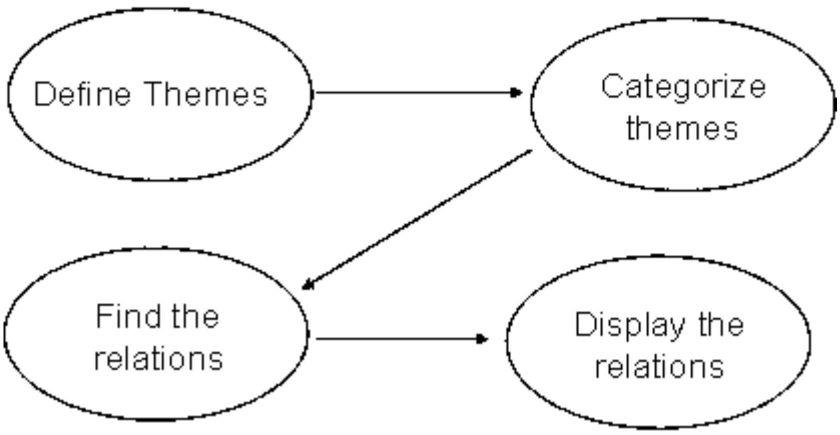

Figure 2: Data Analysis Mode from Freeman (1998)

Freeman's (1998) data analysis mode (see Fig.2) is used in this study to find out the discursive competences from the 6 ESP textbooks and semi-structured interview data.

Textual analysis is applied to further understand the underlying reasons of employees' needs with the following steps:

- Step 1: define the discursive competences in the six books and interview script according to the definition of Bhatia (2004).

- Step 2: categorize the specific discursive competences by the criteria of three levels, textual competence, generic competence, and social competence.

- Step 3: distinguish the common and peculiar discursive competences in the three levels.
- Step 4: display the relationships between common and peculiar discursive competences

The discursive competences were examined and categorized into three classifications with textual analysis as Table 3 shows.

Table 3: Discursive Competence in *English for Finance*

ESP book	English for Finance
Textual competence	New words and expressions; translation skills; abbreviation
Generic competence	Reading and writing: checks, negotiable certificate of deposit, letters, letter of credit, insurance policy, market quotations, bill of trust selling valuable securities, trial balance, income statement, balance sheet, Auditor's report letter, income tax, annual return, baggage declaration
	Listening and speaking: opening a bank account, depositing money, Automatic Teller Machine, collecting remittance, changing Yen into U.S. dollars, cashing a traveler's clerk, applying for a mortgage loan, insurance, talking about discrepancies, securities, inquiring about sending money abroad, running a spot inspection, obtaining auditing evidence, pointing out errors, talking about audit report, consulting about the accounting software, looking for cooperation, discussing investment, discussing the brand and cost, tax preferential treatment

Social competence	As a banker, as a customer in the bank, as a tourist, as the credit department manager, as an importer, as an exporter, as a CPA (Certified Public Accountant), as an auditor, as an tax collector

The textual analysis is also applied to examine the discursive competences in the interview script to understand the in-depth reason of students' need.

3. Results and Discussion

This study examined students' needs for discursive competence through a combination of quantitative and qualitative research, applying questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and textual analysis to answer (1) what specific ESP discursive competencies (textual competence, generic competence, and social competence) the students need in the tertiary education and (2) What the specific ESP discursive competences are covered in the samples of Chinese ESP textbooks , and (3) whether the discursive competence in the current ESP textbooks meet students' needs for their later occupational career.

3.1 The specific ESP discursive competencies students need

At textual levels, students hold that professional words and phrases are the most important, while clause analysis is the least important (see Table 4). This finding is supported by the interview scripts to some extent.

Table 4: The Textual Competence Students Need

Textual competence	Mean score	SD
Professional words and phrases	4.27	0.88
Translation skills	4.22	0.76
Clause analysis	3.73	0.97

Most interviewees (see Extract 1) think that it is not very urgent to master good translation skills. However, they also concede that the translation skill is crucial in the international context and is difficult due to the difference of culture and thinking patterns between China and English-speaking countries.

Extract 1 *We do not have a lot of opportunity to translate some materials or speeches, and translation is not part of our work. But in China, if you want to express in English, translation is necessary, for example, when we write emails, we think the content in Chinese first, then we translate the letter into English. I think most of the new entrants in our company do this as the same as me.* (interview date: April, 9, 2015)

At the second level of generic competence, the results show a stark contrast between reality and preconception. Before conducting the questionnaire, we thought that speaking and listening skills should be enhanced. However, after analyzing the questionnaire, it can be concluded that students have a stronger desire for discursive competence in writing and reading, such as writing and reading E-mails, contracts and annual report, since most employees who work in foreign-owned enterprises are Chinese staff. So they usually communicate with others in Chinese but frequently-used abbreviations or jargons, such as OT (overtime), CUS (customer service). Generally speaking, it is not really necessary that the employees communicate with senior managers, so they only need to master some frequently-used English words. The reason why they read and write in English is that the documents and materials about business are all written in English. Additionally, they are required to write E-mails in English to communicate with each other. However, the results reflect that the senior officers think speaking and listening are as important as writing and reading since they are more likely to speak in public and discuss issues with foreigners, as mentioned in Interview Extract 2.

Extract 2 *We read and write in English more frequently than listening and speaking. The most common genre is writing emails to communicate with our colleagues; this is the most important way. And then, personal report, the report of the team, the achievement report, personnel transfer notice, journals of our companies are all in English. In conclusion, we write and read English more, compared with listening and speaking. However, as for listening and speaking, we listen more, because we have no chance in staff meetings. We often have such kind of meetings once every two months.* (Interview date: April, 9, 2015)

Table 5: Mean Score of Listening and Speaking Generic Competence

Generic competence	Mean score	SD
presentation in the meeting	4.450	0.79
discussing plans in the meeting	4.433	0.81

discussing cooperation details with clients	4.417	0.87
performance reviewing in the meeting	4.350	0.88
Interviews	4.300	0.79
telephone conference	4.267	0.84
talking with HR as new comer	4.067	0.94
introducing others in the conference	3.950	1.03
showing around	3.917	0.96
talking in the dinner	3.817	0.97
transferring the calls	3.783	0.90
talking with colleagues as new comers	3.733	1.09
meeting somebody in the airport	3.633	0.97
arranging hotels for clients	3.600	1.01
telephoning to check the booked hotels	3.533	1.00
seeing off somebody in the airport	3.483	0.95
Entertainment	3.433	0.96

Table 6: Mean Score of Reading and Writing Generic Competence

Generic competence	Mean score	SD
Resumes	4.550	0.57
Applications	4.417	0.72
Contracts	4.416	0.85
relevant documents and regulations	4.333	0.86
invitation letters	4.300	0.93
Quotation	4.267	0.90
order goods	4.217	0.90
company introductions	4.217	0.94
recruitment advertisement	4.167	0.96

appreciation letters	4.150	0.92
Inquiry	4.100	0.93
personnel transfer letters	4.050	0.93
complaint letters	3.950	0.95

The top five most important generic competences are writing resumes (mean score=4.55, SD=0.57), making presentations in meetings (mean score=4.45, SD=0.79), writing application letters (mean score=4.417, SD=0.72), discourse in discussing cooperation details (mean score=4.417, SD=0.87), composing contracts (mean score=4.416, SD=0.85).

The top five least important generic competences are discourse in entertaining customers (mean score=3.433, SD=0.96), discourse in seeing off the customers (mean score=3.483, SD=0.95), and discourse in telephoning (mean score=3.533, SD=1.00), discourse in meeting somebody at the airport (mean score=3.633, SD=0.97), discourse in transferring calls (mean score=3.783, SD=0.90). The discursive competences related to telephone discourse or customer reception are less commonly required by the companies.

It is unanimously acknowledged that the competences related to job-hunting are paramount when joining companies. How to have a good performance in the interview is crucial for the employees since this is not only the skill required to enter the company, but also to have a better position. The ability to make good English presentations in face-to-face meetings and telephone conferences is also a key generic competence for both the ordinary employees and senior officers.

Similarly, in the area of social competence, employees think that the most important competence is the ability as an interviewee (mean score=4.4, SD=0.81). The second most important is the HR ability to convey the company's concept to employees in English (mean score=4.283, SD=0.87), followed by the ability as a guide to show clients around (mean score=4.233, SD=0.89). The fourth and fifth are the ability as a client to express the standpoint of company (mean score=4.2, SD=0.84) and the ability as a receptionist (mean score=4.117, SD=0.90).

This kind of social competence can be considered as acquired if the interviewee can properly express his or her social identity, specifically, through the appropriate dress, body language and facial expressions. It is necessary for senior students to master the generic competence related to interviews such as writing resumes, or application letters, to prepare for the future interview. So in agreement with generic competence, the social competence as an interviewee is taken as the most important one for graduates who are stepping into the society. The ability to show clients around has also been taken as the second important social competence. In general, it is acknowledged that good communication is a reflection of one's social competence.

3.2 The Specific ESP Discursive Competences in ESP Textbooks

Textual competence is usually demonstrated at the very beginning of every unit which illustrates the detailed textual competence which should be mastered by students. New words and expressions, and translation skills can be extracted from the text and the exercises. For example, in *English for Fashion*, the specific and professional word "armhole" is explained (a hole through which one can put the arms and where a sleeve can be attached). Additionally, the guide and practice of clause analysis has been examined in *English for Automatic Control*. So most textbooks are traditionally written with some linguistic points, such as clause analysis which requires students to distinguish the exact clause patterns in a sentence.

The generic competences which are required by each textbook can be easily defined and distinguished. (See Table 4.4 below)

Table 4.4 the generic competence in individual ESP textbooks

ESP textbooks	Reading and writing generic competence	Listening and speaking generic competence
English for Mechanical and Electrical Engineer	Menu of a software, Commercial correspondence (Letter of credit/ Commercial invoice/Bill of exchange/Bill of lading/Certificate of origin/Safety precautions), Bids, Advertisement, Insurance policy, Sales contract, Right and interest assignment Products introductions	Meeting customers in fairs, Introducing products, Introducing companies, Discussing cooperation details(advertising and sales promotion/ technology transfer), Presentation on conference
English for Chemical Engineering	Letters (application letters for school/cover letters/appreciation letters), Commercial letters (bill of lading/ letters of credit), Trial contract, Recruitment advertisement, Memos, Products introductions, Patents, Slogans, Bid, research report and abstract	Interviews, Contract negotiation, Cooperation details (advertising and sales promotion/ technology transfer), formal speech
English for	Recruitment advertisement, Letters	Interviews, Meeting/seeing

Automatic Control	(application letters/ Appreciation letters/ invitation letters), Commercial letters (inquiry/ quotation/complaint/ order), Resumes	off others in the airport, Telephoning to check the booked room, Communicative speaking(in a dinner/party/daily workplaces), Showing clients around, Discussing on cooperation in detail
English for Management	Letters (appointment letters), Commercial letters (fax/quotations/invoice/bills of exchange/letters of credit/insurance/bill of lading), news, Recruitment advertisement, Income statement, Bids, Sales contract, Memos	Business dialogues (inquiry/offer/order/payment), Cooperation details (technology transfer/insurance/packing and shipment/joint venture)
English for Fashion	Commercial letters (offer and counter-offer/ Letter of credit/ Shipment advice/ sales confirmation/ packing list), Letters(invitation), Designer work sheet, Costing sheet, Sales contract, cloth delivery control sheet, Advertisement, quality control and inspection report, Notice, Resume, Contract	Retailing and shopping, Products presentation , Business dialogues(inquiry/offer/ Insurance and claim), negotiation and contract, exhibition, Cooperation details (joint venture)
English for Finance	Checks, Negotiable certificate of deposit, Commercial letters (letter of credit), Insurance policy, Market quotations, Bill of trust selling valuable securities, Trial balance, Income statement, Audit report	Opening a bank account, Depositing money, Automatic teller's machine, Renewing a deposit, Collecting remittance, Currency exchange, Applying for a mortgage loan, Amending terms in an L/C, Arranging insurance, Talking about discrepancies, Renting a safe box

All of the generic competencies can be categorized into three purposes: daily communication, foreign trade communication, and specialized communication. The first two generic competences are usually embodied in the daily conversation and the trade communication with foreigners. But the specialized communication genres are only emphasized in specific professions and fields. For example, in the fashion world, the designers use a worksheet to record the information that guides the production department to figure costs and trim. So it can be reasonably concluded after the analysis that most of the specialized communication genres are found only in finance and fashion. Figure 2 shows the three types of generic competences.

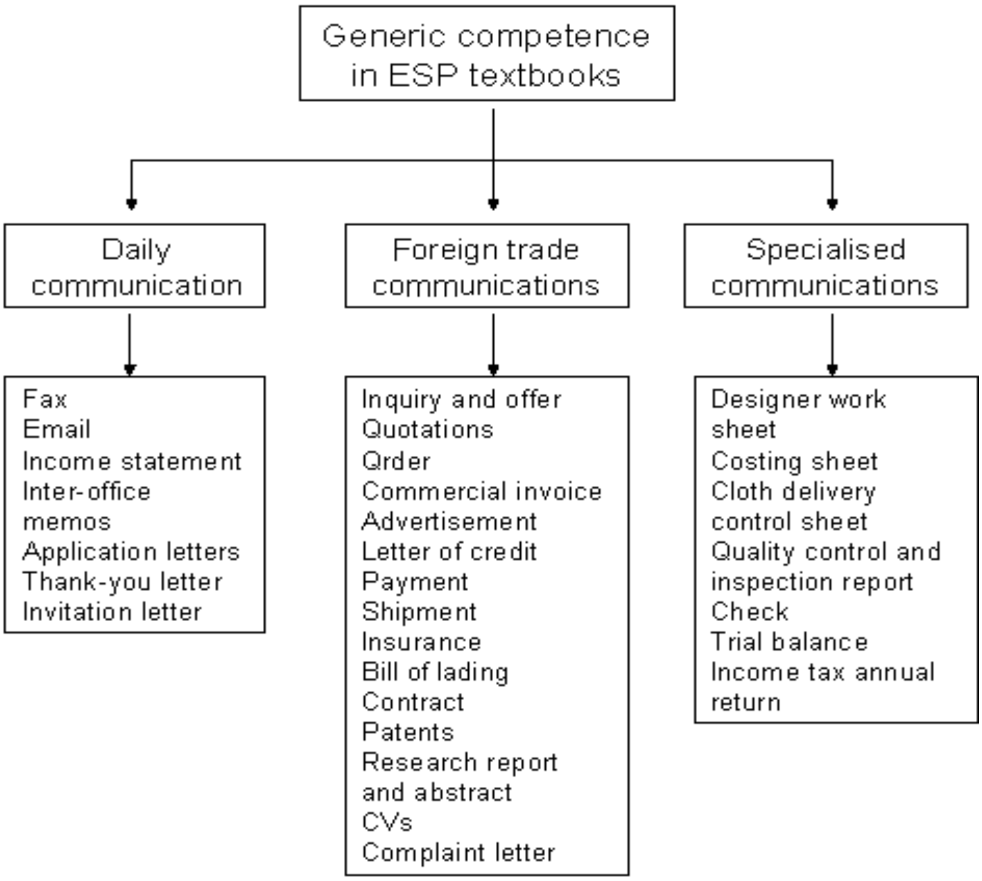

Figure 3: Categories of Generic Competence in ESP Textbooks

Due to the requirement of more contact with foreign countries, effective communication with foreigners is indispensable in foreign trade. In particular, in commercial correspondence, genres such as inquiries, offers, quotations, orders, commercial invoices, bills of lading are required. Although many generic competences are common to the six different ESP textbooks such as interviews, commercial letters, recruitment advertisements, some area specific genres can also be examined, especially in *English for Finance* and *English for Fashion*. In *English for Finance*, some banking-related activities such as negotiable certificates of deposit, checks, trial balances, and audit reports have been introduced, and in *English for Fashion*, cloth delivery control sheets, designer worksheets, and costing sheets are not familiar to outsiders and cannot be found in the other four ESP textbooks. The relationship between common genres and specific genres can be witnessed. All of the generic competences in the six textbooks can be summarized under the speaking, listening, reading and writing competences which are embodied in different disciplines and fields with regard to the orientation and nature. The discourse in different fields vary, as does the discursive competence.

At the social competence level, graduates' ability as salesmen is the most important one. It is interesting to note that students who major in natural sciences, such as mechanical and electrical engineering, automatic control, desire social competence as salesmen rather than as scientists, which suggests that the role of employees who can communicate with foreigners is much more important than their role as scientists or researchers. Additionally, it should be emphasized that more and more students, in recent years, have not chosen the jobs related to their former majors.

Apart from the ability as salesmen, the competence as a job hunter is also very important since hunting for a job is the prerequisite for the future career. It is primordial for students' careers to perform well in the interview.

In sum, whatever the subject area, is all six ESP textbooks are designed to deliver the knowledge of Business English. Students will communicate with their colleagues and customers in the company as soon as they step into society. But in fashion and finance, graduates can be designers and bankers, so their job nature has been changed, as well as the generic competences which are required.

3.3 The Demands of Discursive Competence in ESP Textbooks

At the textual level, students prioritize the requirement of professional words, expressions, translation skills and clause patterns. The six ESP textbooks have covered professional words, expressions and translation skills. So we can make a brief conclusion that at this level, students' needs can be completely met.

At the generic level, the generic competence that students need can be found in ESP textbooks, except discourse on telephone conferences. So it can be concluded that at this level, students' needs can be mostly met.

At the social level, in both students' needs and ESP textbooks, the abilities as a job hunter, a salesmen or a receptionist can be found, so the conclusion can be reasonably reached that students' needs could be met at social competence level.

As a whole, from the perspective of the employees, college students must have a clearer and more suitable goal of learning English. However, the topics and materials that most current college English textbooks provide are somewhat similar to those in the middle or senior high school, which will lower their learning motivation. So this study argues that English for specific purposes, such as for occupational purposes, academic purposes, should be provided to improve students' discursive competence. This study provides evidence that the business English required by company employees should include discursive competences, such as inquiries, letters of credit, emails, etc. are included. However, compared to textual competence and generic competence, social competence which is viewed as a crucial component is less emphasized in the textbooks.

4. Conclusion

This study analyzed the discursive competences at three levels from two perspectives: surveys of company employees and the text analysis of 6 ESP textbooks. Through the combination of qualitative and quantitative analysis, this study found the common and specific discursive competences in different ESP contexts. Additionally, this study found employees' needs for discursive competence in workplaces. By comparing the needs of their discursive competence, we attested the English discursive competences the students should acquire in tertiary education. We therefore conclude that the students should be taught ESP-oriented courses which prioritize the common English discursive competences that will be required in the workplace.

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Linguistic Patterns in PhD Acknowledgements Written in Turkish and English

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Biodata

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Abstract

Acknowledgement writing has become a widespread and important academic practice in the expression of gratitude towards addressees for their assistance and it plays an essential role in the establishment of scholarly and social identity. Despite its importance, the expression of gratitude in acknowledgements has been neglected. So, this study aimed to analyze acknowledgements in PhD dissertations (DAs) written in English by speakers of English as a native language (NSE) and non-native learners (NNSE) and in Turkish by Turkish native speakers (NST) in terms of language expressions used for thanking. 150 DAs in the Social Sciences and the sub-field of English/Turkish language teaching (ELT/TLT), equally selected from three groups were compiled in a corpus and analyzed based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) language pattern framework. Findings yielded cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variations among three groups in the expression of gratitude. In all acknowledgements, performative verbs accompanied by modal auxiliaries were predominantly used whereas passive was rarely used. Turkish postgraduate students differed from the other two groups and employed the least numbers of linguistic patterns and the least variety of items in their native language. Unlike their Turkish counterparts, NNSE used nominalization to a great extent and provided the kind of support received from the addressees while thanking through mainly bare mentions. Apart

from that, English native and non-native students made use of similar lexical choices for expressing their thanks even though they differed in terms of frequency of the use of their types. In the light of the findings, a number of suggestions for further research and pedagogical implications were provided.

Keywords: acknowledgements, linguistic patterns, PhD dissertations, native and non-native postgraduate students, contrastive analysis

Introduction

Background to the Study

Acknowledgement writing has become a common practice in academic writing especially in postgraduate writing and has been considered as a 'distinct genre' with an explicit purpose and a physical location (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 260; Jaroenkitboworn, 2014). Acknowledgements, considered as composite in character, are widely used in academic discourse for the expression of gratitude towards the academic, institutional, financial, moral or technical support received from multiple addressees such as individuals and institutions (Al-Ali, 2006; Cheng, 2010; 2012; Cronin, McKenzie & Rubio, 1993; Jalilifar & Mohammadi, 2014; Mingwei & Yajun, 2010). It is said that this genre is not solely 'a naive listing of gratitude' but a short and important part of postgraduate writing as it enables writers show their awareness of academic values such as modesty and gratitude, establish their credibility, recognize their debts and achieve a sense of closure after completing a long and demanding research process (Hyland, 2004, p. 261; 304; Jalilifar & Mohammadi, 2014). In this sense, acknowledgements are "sophisticated and complex textual constructs which bridge the personal and the public, the social and the professional, and the academic and the lay" as stated by Hyland (2003, p. 265).

As macro manifestations of appreciation and indebtedness, acknowledgements give an insight into the persona of writer as a unique and valuable rhetorical space since writers convey their debt for all contributions they receive and create a capable academic and social identity (Gesuato, 2004; Hyland, 2003, p. 3; Rattan, 2014). As an important well-established feature of scholarly communication process, they exhibit a high-degree of cultural consensus and the webs of interaction and influence and that is why acknowledgement writing deserves serious scrutiny due to its social, instrumental and cognitive significance (Cronin & Weaver, 1995, p. 175).

Even though acknowledgement has become an obligatory part of postgraduate writing, it has been largely disregarded as an academic genre and its importance has been overlooked in postgraduate education (Giannoni, 2002; Hyland, 2003; 2004). Little or no explicit instruction is given to students on how to organize their acknowledgements and to express their thanks for the contribution provided (Hyland, 2004; Jaroenkitboworn, 2014). Accordingly, as postgraduate students are not informed about what an acknowledgment should include and through which linguistic patterns gratitude can be expressed, they are often left to their own intuitions and they mostly imitate what other writers have done. It is a problem for postgraduate students to provide an appropriate degree of competence in scholarly identity and intellectual autonomy in recognition of readers' experiences and knowledge of field (Hyland, 2004, p. 323). It is much more challenging for the students writing in another language as they are not only expected to conform to the conventions of acknowledgement writing but also to comply with the expectations of discourse community in that language. Moreover, students from different language communities reflect their own socio-cultural beliefs and values in their L2 acknowledgements due to the influence of their own culture on L2 writing (Al-Ali, 2006; Jaroenkitboworn, 2014; Mingwei & Yajun, 2010; Nkemleke, 2006). This means that socio-cultural values and norms influence the way writers thank and the language expressions they use to thank different addressees in their theses and dissertations (Cheng, 2012). In this sense, there is the convention of acknowledgement writing which both signifies the interpersonal relationships and reflects the socio-cultural values and identity in academia (Cheng, 2012; Yang, 2012). Therefore, writers are expected to follow this convention to be a member of this discourse community.

An insight into earlier studies on acknowledgements has shown that little attention has been paid to the expression of gratitude in acknowledgements in PhD dissertations (Cheng, 2012; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Kuhi & Rezaei, 2014; Mohammadi, 2013). Most of the previous research focused on English acknowledgements of L2 writers such as Taiwanese, Iranian, Arabic and Iraqi learners of English and revealed their way of organizing acknowledgements and expressing gratitude through linguistic patterns (i.e. Al-Ali, 2010; Al-Zubaidi, 2013; Lasaky, 2011; Nyugen, 2017; Quarshie, 2017). Little is known about how gratitude is expressed in languages other than English. Additionally, thanking expressions in non-native English, native English and other languages have not been comparatively and contrastively studied. In this sense, considering the lack of study on the analysis of acknowledgements written in Turkish language, it is necessary to reveal the socio-cultural practices and preferences of Turkish students to find out whether there are distinct Turkish language features that constrain their use of thanking expressions. Comparing non-native learners with native English writers could also highlight to what extent Turkish students' English acknowledgements show parallelism with or deviation from the academic and social norms of English acknowledgement writing. Considering all these aspects, the present study makes in-depth analysis of acknowledgement writing in Turkish and English languages.

So, the purpose of this study is to examine the acknowledgement sections in PhD dissertations (DAs) written *in Turkish* by Turkish native speakers and *in English* by Turkish learners of English and American native speakers in terms of linguistic patterns used for expression of gratitude.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed within the scope of this research:

1. Which linguistic patterns are used in DAs written in English by American native speakers and Turkish learners of English and in Turkish by Turkish native speakers?
2. What are the differences and similarities among three groups of DAs in terms of the frequency of linguistic patterns?

Review of Literature

A review of studies on acknowledgements has shown that previous research mainly focused on two broad areas, i.e. *the generic structure* and *the expressions of gratitude* in various genres such as research articles, theses, dissertations, textbooks and private letters (e.g. Al-Ali, 2006; Giannoni, 2002; Jaroenkitboworn, 2014; Kuhi & Rezaei, 2014; Lasaky, 2011; Nkemleke, 2006; Nyugen, 2017; Rattan, 2014; Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz-Ariza, & Pabón-Bervesí, 2009; Yang, 2013). Having been built mainly upon the theoretical framework of generic analysis of academic texts posited by Swales (1981; 1990) and other models proposed by scholars such as Giannoni (2002) and Hyland (2004), these studies have shown that English non-native learners from various language backgrounds organize their acknowledgements in different ways due to the socio-cultural contexts and cross-linguistic differences.

Considering the studies on specifically *the expression of gratitude*, Hyland and Tse's (2004) study was the first one to explore linguistic patterns used for thanking in MA and PhD acknowledgements. According to these researchers, thanking is expressed through five linguistic patterns as displayed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Hyland and Tse's (2004, p. 266) Framework of Expressions of Gratitude

Patterns	Forms	Examples
Nominalization	*thanks*	"My sincere thanks to . . .",
	gratitude	"The author's gratitude goes to . . ."
Performative verbs	*thank*	"I thank . . ."
	appreciate	"The author appreciates . . ."
Adjectives	*grateful*	"I am grateful to . . ."
	thankful	"The author is thankful for . . ."
Passive	*be thanked*	"Y is thanked for . . ."
	be given	"Appreciation is given to . . ."
Bare mention	*cannot go without mentioning…*	"I cannot go without mentioning . . ."
	be helpful in…	"X has been helpful in . . ."

A review of earlier studies on the frequency of expressions used for thanking has shown that five linguistic patterns were employed in different frequencies in acknowledgements of L2 writers from various L1 backgrounds (i.e. Golpour, 2012; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Mingwei & Yajun, 2010; Nyugen, 2017; Yang, 2012; 2013). For instance, performative verbs were mainly used in DAs written by Thai and Taiwanese EFL learners (i.e. Jaroenkitboworn, 2014; Nyugen, 2017; Yang, 2012; 2013), nominalizations were predominantly used by Iranian and Hong Kong EFL learners (i.e. Abdollahian & Hashemi, 2013; Hyland & Tse, 2004) and bare mentions were mainly used by Chinese EFL learners (Mingwei & Yajun, 2010). Focusing on the comparative analysis of English native speakers' and EFL learners' MA and PhD acknowledgements, several studies illustrated the employment of different thanking strategies and the variation in the generic structure of acknowledgements written by American and Taiwanese postgraduate students (i.e. Cheng, 2012), and English native writers and Iranian writers of English (i.e. Lasaky, 2011). Besides, very few studies were conducted to contrastively analyze acknowledgements written in English on the one hand and other languages such as Persian, Spanish or Italian on the other hand (i.e. Giannoni, 2002; Jalilifar & Mohammadi, 2014). Based on their findings, similarities and differences were found between languages in the expression of gratitude and organization of acknowledgements in various genres such as research articles, PhD dissertations and MA theses. It has been concluded that socio-cultural norms and academic conventions have an influence on the rhetorical organization of this genre and the choice of expressions (i.e. Al-Ali, 2010; Giannoni, 2002).

In this regard, it is important to explore other languages since each language is socially characterized by different lexico-grammatical expressions appropriate to its context (Afful &

Mwinlaaru, 2010). It is also important to gain insights into the productions of writers writing in another language as they are expected to use linguistic patterns appropriate to the language features and expectations of this discourse community. Hence, the present study is an attempt to fill this gap in the literature by shedding light on Turkish language as well as English language.

Regarding the studies conducted in Turkey, there seems to be only one research conducted by Karakaş (2010) that focused on MA and PhD acknowledgements written in English by American native students and Turkish learners of English and revealed similarities and differences between the two groups. American students were found to employ far more varied and explicit thanking expressions compared to Turkish students. Despite the revelation of the variation in the expression of thanks and organization of acknowledgements written in English by American and Turkish writers in Karakaş's study, the variation between English and Turkish acknowledgements has not been studied yet. To address this gap in the relevant literature, the current research aims to compare and contrast the way how Turkish native postgraduate students and English non-native and native students expressed their thanks.

This comparative and contrastive study is expected to contribute to an understanding of norms and expectations of different cultural, environmental and linguistic communities in terms of the expression of gratitude in structuring postgraduate writing, that is, DAs by the future writers in that genre. Specifically, this study sheds some light on cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variations in Turkish DAs written by Turkish native speakers and in English DAs written by American native speakers and Turkish learners of English. Moreover, it also aims to provide valuable insights into whether students from a shared cultural background (Turkish) structure their DAs and express their thanks similar to those in their native language or harmonize themselves with the English language while writing in English.

Methodology

Research Design

This study adopted a mixed methods design covering both quantitative and qualitative methods. Specifically, qualitative methods were applied to identify linguistic expressions used for thanking within their contexts and to exemplify them through in-depth function analysis. Quantitative analysis was carried out to calculate the frequency of occurrences of the expressions in terms of raw and normalized frequencies and percentages.

Data Collection

Corpus*:* For data collection, a corpus was compiled to meet the aims of the study. The term 'corpus' here is defined as "the collection of texts that were written for a specific purpose in a particular type and collected and stored electronically for analysis of language use" (Hunston, 2002, p. 2-3). The corpus with its three sub-corpuses covers a total of 150 DAs written by three groups of postgraduate students as displayed below in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of the Total Number of Words in DAs

Sub-corpora	No. of DAs	No. of words
NSE	50	17.260
NNSE	50	17.602
NST	50	17.949

NSE: Native Speakers of English
NNSE: Non-native Speakers of English
NST: Native Speakers of Turkish

Data were collected from online databases of theses and dissertations in Turkey (i.e. *Turkish National Thesis Centre* (YÖK)) and the United States (i.e. *ProQuest* and *PQDT Open* Databases) through simple random sampling method. As these databases included DAs written in different universities from various parts of the country, they were specifically used to select a representative sample of DAs.

For a proper representation of homogenous sample, all dissertations were carefully selected based on the following criteria: identities of postgraduate students, the year of publication, discipline, sub-discipline and research design. The identities were checked to make sure that they are native speakers of English/Turkish language by making contact with the writers through e-mails. Native speaker here refers to the speaker of a language who speaks that language as his/her first language (www.collinsdictionary.com) and non-native learner refers to the speaker who learns another language other than his/her first language as a foreign/second language in a country in which this language is not spoken as a native language. DAs written between 2005 and 2015 in a single discipline, that is, the Social Sciences, and a single sub-discipline, that is, the English/Turkish Language Teaching were collected. The reason behind this selection is that writing norms are specific to the discipline in which dissertations are written (Pooresfahani et al., 2012). Due to the nature of fields, the purpose and the way of conducting the research, the methods applied, the participants studied with and the types of help provided may differ across sub/disciplines. As for acknowledgement sections, 'the wording and tenor of acknowledgements are field-dependent (Cronin et al., 1993, p. 30) and the rhetoric and lexico-grammatical features of DAs differ across different sub/disciplines (Afful & Mwinlaaru, 2012; Yang, 2013). Previous studies reflected the disciplinary variations in language use in the acknowledgements written in certain disciplines such as Hard/Medical and Soft sciences and sub-disciplines such as sociology, history, psychology, philosophy, and medicine (Cronin et al., 1992; Demirel & Ahmadi, 2013; Giannoni, 2002; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Salager-Meyer et al., 2009). It has been also demonstrated that acknowledgements were observed in hard disciplines more frequently than social sciences and that writers reflected their gratitude for the institutional and financial support as well as materials and pre-prints (i.e. Cronin et al., 1993). However, not much is known about the language use in acknowledgments written in the Social Sciences (Demirel & Ahmadi, 2013) and in the English/Turkish Language Teaching sub-discipline. In this respect, every sub/discipline is worth exploring to have a clear sense of linguistic patterns in acknowledgements for two reasons. Firstly, the way how science is conducted influences the act of acknowledgment writing in a particular discipline and sub-field. Secondly, the exhibition of affect and intimacy in acknowledgements vary across writers from different sub/disciplines (Cronin et al., 1992, p. 109). Further, Wingate (2012, p. 26) claims that analyzing discipline-specific texts is the best way for learning academic writing, which would enable students to take a critical perspective and control disciplinary discourses. Thus, addressing this issue in the discipline of the Social Sciences and the field of the English/Turkish Language Teaching for the first time is believed to add a new dimension to the existing relevant literature.

Other than that, one type of research design, that is, the empirical study covering both quantitative and qualitative analyses, was specifically selected since there might arise variations across different research designs in the materials/instruments/sample selected and thus the reasons for thanking people as the type of support received from other people would differ as well as the way of reporting of thanks.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in three phases.

In the first phase, DAs of Turkish native, English native and non-native postgraduate students were collected and compiled in a corpus for analysis.

In the second phase, Ant Conc. 3.4.2. software program was utilized for both qualitative and quantitative analyses, that were, function and frequency analyses. Specifically, each thanking expression was automatically searched and qualitatively identified based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) framework (i.e. nominalizations, adjectives, performative verbs, passive voice and bare mention) (see Table 1) through the manual analysis of context where it occurred with a focus on the types of forms used for thanking. For instance, the word '*thank*' could be used either as as performative verb or nominalization. To identify the part of speech and to explore how and to whom the writer expresses thanks, each concordance line was read and the context where each form occurred was carefully analyzed. Apart from that, the forms in bare-mention category are not easy to detect as they are not overt expressions of gratitude. Thus key terms such as *help/ful, without, support*, *guide* and so on. were searched for in the data and analyzed in each context where they occurred to identify them as bare-mentions.

As far as the researcher has read in the relevant literature, there exists no framework that describes the linguistic patterns in the Turkish acknowledgments. Having insight into the categories proposed by Hyland and Tse (2004) for the English acknowledgments produced by L2 learners, this framework can be said to apply to the Turkish language, too since in Turkish, gratitude is also expressed through these patterns. Nevertheless, the occurrence of forms specific to certain categories in Turkish would probably differ from the one in English. The reason is that for instance, the verb teşekkür et- (*to thank*) in Turkish is more deferential and has less frequent occurrence among intimates specifically family members compared to the nominalized form teşekkürler (*thanks*) which is less formal (Ruhi, 2006, p. 54). Therefore, it is probable that the performative verb and nominalized form of *thank* may differ depending on the context where writers acknowledge supervisors and family members. Besides that, frequencies of these two different forms could differ due to the formality of academic language and the genre.

In the last phase, for frequency analysis, the thanking expressions identified in the texts were calculated in terms of raw numbers and percentages in each sub-corpus. Then, the sizes of each sub-corpus were normalized to per 1000 words as they are not exactly the same to compare and contrast the occurrence of thanking expressions in terms of frequencies and to find out the dis/similarities across three sub-corpora.

Results and Discussion

The analysis of DAs written in English and Turkish revealed that there were similarities and differences across three groups in the lexical realization of thanking. First, the findings based on the analysis of linguistic patterns in three sub-corpora were explained and illustrated. Then, the variation across three groups were highlighted and interpreted.

Linguistic Patterns Used for Thanking in DAs

The analysis of expressions used for thanking in NSE, NNSE, and NST acknowledgements indicated that linguistic patterns were used in different frequencies across three sub-corpora. Table 3 below demonstrates the overall frequency of each pattern used in the DAs.

Table 3: Overall and Categorical Distribution of Patterns in DAs

Linguistic patterns	**NSE**	**Per 1000 words**	**NNSE**	**Per 1000 words**	**NST**	**Per 1000 words**
Performative verb	**184**	10.6	**276**	15.6	**115**	6.4
Nominalization	**128**	7.4	65	3.6	**5**	0.2
Bare mention	**102**	5.9	**81**	4.6	**4**	0.2
Adjective	57	3.3	**81**	4.6	**9**	0.5
Passive	10	0.5	3	0.1	-	-
Total	**481**	**27.8**	**506**	**28.7**	**133**	**7.4**

As it is demonstrated in Table 3, there were differences and similarities in the raw and normalized frequencies of different linguistic patterns across three sub-corpora. NNSE data (506 instances) included the highest numbers of patterns used for thanking whereas NST data (133 instances) included the least numbers of patterns. This means that the number of occurrence of linguistic patterns in non-native DAs was almost as four times as those in Turkish native DAs. As for the NSE data, overall, there were 481 instances of five patterns.

To have a clear understanding of the differences across three sub-corpuses and five categories of patterns, Figure 1 below depicts the visual representation of quantitative findings based on percentages.

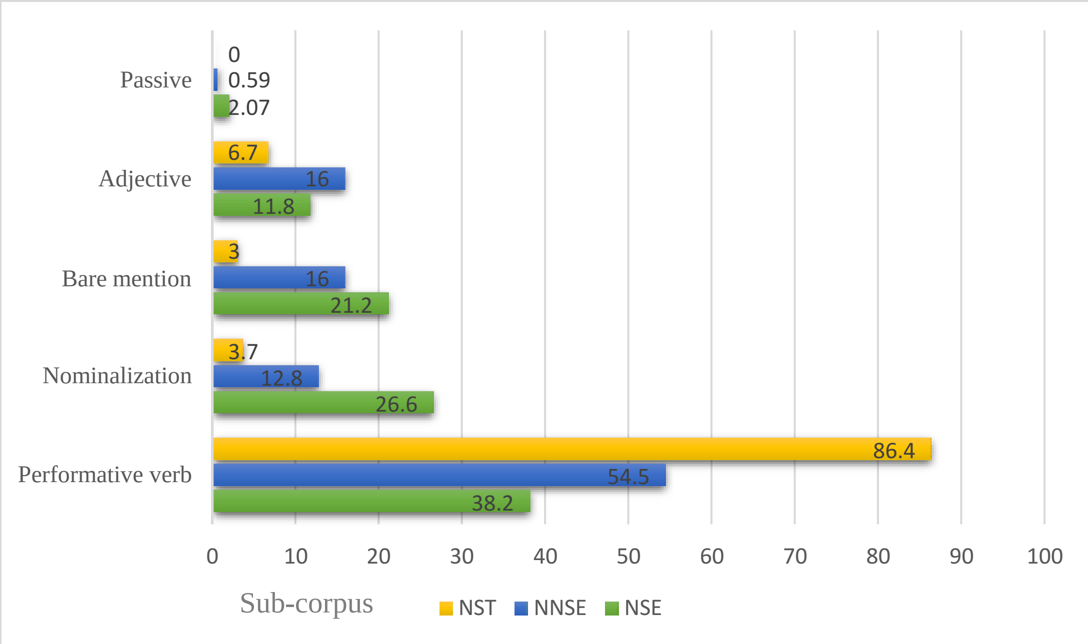

Figure 1: Percentage of Each Linguistic Pattern in Three Sub-corpora

In Figure 1, performative verbs were the most frequently used pattern in all three sub-corpora whereas passive was the least frequently used one. The differences and similarities among three sub-corpora in terms of each pattern are explained in the following part.

Performative Verbs

Performative verbs outnumbered all other patterns in all groups of DAs. Here are the instances obtained from NSE, NNSE and NST data respectively where the performative verb *thank (teşekkür etmek)* was used:

1a. *I thank* you for your love and support. (NSE)

1b. *I thank* X, an instructor at X University, for her contribution during the treatment phase. (NNSE)

1c. Çalışma süresi boyunca yardımlarını ve desteğini her zaman yanımda gördüğüm değerli hocam Doç. Dr. X'e *teşekkür ederim. (NST)* *(I thank* my dear teacher Assoc. Prof. Dr. X who accompanied me along this research period and helped me)

Other than that, it was found out that *thank you* was used in imperative form in NSE DAs 67 times whereas it occurred in far less numbers in NNSE (15 instances) as illustrated below.

3a …my husband, Bill, who has steadfastly encouraged me towards this goal. *Thank you*, Bill. (NSE)

3b. She was the first teacher of mine who cultivated the seeds of research in my mind and soul. *Thank you* from the very bottom of my heart. (NNSE)

Nominalizations: The analysis of nominalizations indicated that this language pattern type ranked the second in terms of frequency of use in native English DAs whereas it was used only five times in native Turkish DAs. NNSE stood between these two groups of writers.

Considering the scarce occurrence of nominalizations in Turkish in the current study, Aksan and Demirhan (2015, p.150) state that single expressions of gratitude such as *teşekkürler* (*thanks*) and *sağol* (*may you be well*) are predominant in Turkish spoken language. According to the authors, interlocutors complete speech turns through these forms to establish harmonious rapport between interlocutors in conversation. In this sense, it might be possible that Turkish writers tended to use less nominalizations in written and academic language. Furthermore, Ruhi (2006, p. 54) claims that *teşekkürler* is less formal in Turkish compared to the performative verb *thank*. This may be why all five occurrences of nominalizations in the Turkish native data were observed in the contexts where family members and friends were acknowledged rather than supervisors or institutions as illustrated below.

> 2a. sıkıntılı süreçleri birlikte üstesinden geldiğim canım arkadaşım X'e *sonsuz teşekkürler*. (NST)
>
> *(Endless thanks* go to my dear friend X together with whom I overcome this distressed process.)

In contrast to this finding, English native and non-native students used nominalizations to thank addresses such as advisors, committee members, participants as well as family members and friends as illustrated below.

> *2b. My heartfelt thanks go to* my first core advisor, Dr. X, for her constant guidance and mentoring of my work throughout this program in order to keep me on track. (NSE)
>
> 2c. *My first acknowledgement goes to* my supervisor, Prof. Dr. X not simply because I have to do it but especially because I am really profoundly grateful to him. His understanding, encouraging… (NNSE)

In addition, nominalization was realized by only one word, that was, teşekkürler (*thanks*) in Turkish DAs whereas words synonymous with *thanks* were also used in English DAs produced by native and non-native students. In this regard, in Turkish, it is not common to use words such as *minnet/şükran* (*gratitude*) as nominalizations other than *thanks*. Thus, Turkish data included rare instances of nominalizations through only *thanks*.

Bare Mentions: There were substantial variations in the use bare mentions across three sub-corpora. Specifically, English native DAs included the highest frequency of use (102 instances). In contrast, Turkish native DAs had the least numbers of instances (only 4 instances). As it is the case with nominalization use, non-native acknowledgements stood between these two groups in terms of frequency of bare mentions with a total of 81 instances. Here are the instances of bare mention in three sub-corpora below:

> 4a. X *provided invaluable assistance* through his reliable talent for noticing important connections and implications which no one else would have. (NSE)
>
> 4b. She *provided me with guidance and thought- provoking questions throughout* the various stages of this dissertation. (NNSE)
>
> 4c. Hocam X, bana zaman ayırarak karşılaştığım güçlükleri yenmemde *çok yardımcı oldu.* (NST)
>
> *(*My teacher X *helped me* in overcoming the difficulties I met by sparing time with me.)

Adjectives: Adjectives were used most frequently by NNSE (i.e. 81 instances) compared to other two groups. In parallel with the findings of nominalization and bare mention use, Turkish native students utilized very few adjectives in their Turkish DAs. In the following extracts, the use of adjective in three sub-corpora is illustrated:

> 5a. *I am also deeply thankful* to my close peers X, ... (NSE)
>
> 5b. *I am grateful* to all the future English language teachers who contributed data for... (NNSE)
>
> 5c. analizinde dikkat ve özeniyle beni yönlendiren X'e *müteşekkirim*. (NST)
>
> (I'm *grateful to* X who guided me with his care and attention in the analysis)

Considering this finding, it may well be that adjectives that express thank such as *müteşekkir* and *minnettar* is not varied in Turkish language and this may be why adjectives were used only nine times in the Turkish DAs.

Passive Structures: The analysis of passive use indicated that passive was the least frequently employed language pattern type in all DAs. Accordingly, there were only 10 instances of passive in NSE data and 3 instances in NNSE data. However, no instance was found in NST data. The following extracts illustrate different types of expression of gratitude through passive use in NSE and NNSE data respectively.

6a. Genuine thanks are given to X… (NSE)

6b. Thanks must also be bestowed on cohort mate, friend, proofreader, and source of materials, X, without whom this journey... (NSE)

7a. Special thanks are extended to TUBITAK, who supported me financially during my PhD study. (NNSE)

7b. Additional gratitude should be expressed to Dr. X who offered me... (NNSE)

As illustrated above, English native and non-native students expressed their thanks through very few passive structures such as *'thanks are given/must be bestowed/given'* in NSE data and *'thanks are extended and gratitude should be expressed to...'* in NNSE data.

Having explained overall findings obtained from frequency analysis of patterns in three sub-corpora, the following section shows the findings obtained from the analysis of lexical items that belong to each pattern in detail.

The Analysis of Lexical Realization of Thanking in Three Sub-Corpora

The item types and frequency of all nouns, verbs and adjectives used for thanking were examined in three sub-corpora as depicted in Table 4.

Table 4: Frequency of Types of Lexical Items Used for Thanking in Three Sub-corpora

Parts of Speech	**Lexical items**	**NSE**	**NNSE**	**Lexical items**	**NST**
	thanks	**60**	**96**	teşekkür *(thank)*	**53**
	gratitude	**16**	**75**	minnet *(gratitude)*	12
Nouns	appreciation	11	29		
	indebtedness	-	1		
	debt	**3**	**13**		
	recognition	1	1		
	acknowledgement	4	3		
Total raw no.		**95**	**218**		**65**
Per 1000 words		**5.5**	**12.3**		**3.6**
	thank	**113**	**127**	teşekkür etmek *(thank)*	**42**
	acknowledge	34	8	borç bilmek *(owe a debt)*	24
	extend gratitude/thanks/ appreciation	9	12	teşekkür sunmak *(present thanks)*	28
	owe debt/thanks/appreciation/gratitude/	8	**30**	şükran sunmak *(express one's gratitude)*	12
Verbs	appreciate	6	4	minnet sunmak *(show gratitude)*	3
	express appreciation/ gratitude/thanks/ acknowledgement	5	**76**	minnettarlığı ifade etmek *(express gratitude)*	2

	recognize gratitude	4	**-**	teşekkürlerimi arz etmek *(give thanks)*	1
	dedicate thanks	4	8	minnettarlığı bildirmek *(express one's gratitude)*	1
	send/give gratitude/thanks	**1**	**11**	sevgilerini sunmak *(send one's love)*	1
				şükranlarımı bildirmek *(present gratitude)*	1
				teşekkür etmeyi yerine getirilmesi gereken bir görev sayıyorum *(take it as one's duty to thank)*	1
Total raw no.		**184**	**276**	**115**	
Per 1000 words		**10.6**	**15.6**		**6.4**
Adjectives	grateful	**32**	**49**	minnettarım (*grateful)*	2
	indebted	15	19	teşekkür/minnet	
	thankful	10	12	borçluyum *(indebted)*	**5**
	obliged	-	1	müteşekkirim *(thankful)*	2
Total raw no.		**57**	**81**		**9**
Per 1000 words		**5.5**	**4.6**	**0.5**	
Overall		**336**	**575**		
Per 1000 words		**19.4**	**32.6**	**189**	
				10.5	

In Table 4 above, a variety of lexical items were used in different frequencies in each sub-corpus. In terms of variety of items, all three groups made use of similar numbers of lexical item types in their DAs for thanking although sub-types of items differed across three sub-corpora. Specifically, NSE and NNSE data included 18 different types of items (6 types of nouns, 9 types of verbs and 3 types of adjectives) and 19 item types (i.e. 7 types of nouns, 8 types of verbs and 4 types of adjectives) respectively. In NST data, 16 different types (i.e. 2 types of nouns, 11 types of verbs and 3 types of adjectives) were used for thanking.

As for the frequency analysis, lexical items differed in terms of frequency of use across three sub-corpora. Accordingly, NNSE data included the highest frequency of lexical items (32.6 per 1000 words), which was followed by NSE (19.4 per 1000 words) and NST (10.5 per 1000 words). This means that Turkish students used items to thank in their English DAs more than three times than those used in Turkish DAs. There was a strong preference for verbs and nouns in all three sub-corpora with regards to variety of items and frequency of occurrence.

Among the nouns examined, *thanks/teşekkür* outnumbered other nouns in three sub-corpora and *gratitude* was the second most frequently used noun used in all DAs. In terms of verbs, *to thank/teşekkür etmek* was mainly used in all NSE, NNSE, and NST data with 113, 127 and 42 instances respectively. It was followed by *to acknowledge* in NSE data with 34 occurrences. Regarding NNSE data and NST data, mental state verbs such as *to express gratitude/appreciation/thank/ acknowledgement (teşekkür sunmak)* ranked the second in terms of frequency of use in NNSE data (76 instances) NST data (28 instances) as illustrated below.

> 8a. I would like *to express my deepest gratitude* to my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. X for his invaluable support. (NNSE)

It was also observed that most of the verbs were accompanied by various modal auxiliaries in each sub-corpus. Thus, the types of modals/ auxiliary verbs were identified and calculated as displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: Modals/Modal Auxiliary Verbs Used in NSE, NNSE, and NST Corpora

Modals/ auxiliary verbs	**NSE**	**NNSE**	***Modals/ auxiliary verbs***	**NST**
would like	**84**	**74**	(teşekkür etmek/şükranlarımı bildirmek) istiyorum *(want to thank/express my gratitude)*	**8**
want	**18**	**9**		
wish	**13**	7		
must	**9**	1		
need to	**2**	3	teşekkür etmeliyim *(should thank)*	1
should	1	2		
Total	**127**	**96**		**9**

According to Table 5, a number of modal auxiliaries were used in three sub-corpora in different frequencies. Accordingly, six types of modal auxiliary verbs *(would like, want, wish, must, should, and need to)* were very frequently employed by both NSE and NNSE. However, there were only two types of modal auxiliaries *(want (istemek), should (-meli))* with nine occurrences in NST data.

As indicated above, the modal auxiliary *would like* had the highest frequency of use in NSE and NNSE data. Specifically, 42 out of 84 instances of *would like* in NSE data and 47 out of 74 instances in NNSE data were used with the performative verb *thank* as illustrated below.

> *9a. I would like to thank* my supervisors and tutors, Roger and John, for their... (NSE)
>
> *9b. I would like to thank* specifically my participants in this study. (NNSE)

Apart from that, the modal auxiliary verb *want* was used in NSE data (18 times) twice much more than in NNSE data (9 times) as illustrated below.

> *9c. I also want to acknowledge* Dr. X and Dr. X, both members of my committee..(NSE)

> *9d. I want to express my gratitude* to other professors whose courses I had the pleasure and honor to attend and from whom I learned a lot: Prof. Dr. X, X, X… (NNSE)

The analysis of data also revealed that the nouns/verb used in three sub-corpora were accompanied by intensifiers, i.e. adverbs or adjectives, to intensify the degree of author's gratitude. Table 6 below displays each intensifier with its frequency of occurrence in each sub-corpus.

Table 6: Intensifiers Used in DAs

Intensifiers	**NSE**	**NNSE**	**Intensifiers**	**NST**
special	**24**	**51**	sonsuz (endless)	**27**
very	**20**	**27**	çok (very)	8
endless	3	**18**	en içten (warmest)	4
especially	11	8	gönülden (heartfelt)	1
deeply	10	8	büyük (great)	1
sincere/ly	**9**	**24**	içtenlikle (sincerely)	1
greatly	7	4		
heartfelt	6	9		
deepest	**5**	**28**		
deep	5	5		
wholeheartedly	1	-		
significant	1	-		
profound	1	-		
warmly	-	1		
TOTAL	**100**	**165**		**42**

As shown in Table 6 above, a variety of intensifiers were employed by three groups in their acknowledgments with different frequencies. Accordingly, NNSE data included the highest frequency of intensifiers, which was followed by NSE data. In contrast, NST data included the least numbers of intensifiers (42 instances). As for types of intensifiers, NSE data included more diverse types of intensifiers compared to NNSE data. NST data had only 6 different types of intensifiers.

In addition, the nouns were accompanied mostly by the intensifiers *special* and *very* in NSE and NNSE data as illustrated below.

> 10a. *A special thanks to* Dr. X for keeping of the project. (NSE)

10b. My special thanks go to Prof. Dr. X for his sincere attitude... (NNSE)

In addition, *deepest, sincere/ly and endless* were also among the frequently used intensifiers in NNSE data as illustrated below:

10c. I would like to express *my deepest appreciation* to my key participant …(NNSE)

10d. My sincere thanks for her continuous and valuable support and…(NNSE)

Besides, the analysis of NST data showed that *sonsuz (endless)* was predominantly used by Turkish students (i.e. 27 instances) in their L1 DAs as illustrated below:

10e. Çalışmamda büyük katkısı olan ve bana her türlü desteği sunan, bilimsel çalışma yolunu öğreten danışman hocam, Sayın Doç. Dr. X'e *sonsuz teşekkürlerimi* sunarım.

(I express my endless thanks to my advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. X who contributed to my research and provided me will all kind of support and taught me the way of scientific study.)

Discussion of the Findings of Linguistic Patterns Used for Thanking in Acknowledgements

The analysis of lexical choices of postgraduate students showed that there were major similarities and differences across three groups.

As for similarities, all three groups chose explicit way of thanking and made use of predominantly *performative verbs* specifically *'thank'*. The frequent use of performative verbs was also evidenced in MA and PhD acknowledgements of Taiwanese and Vietnamese EFL writers in earlier studies (Nyugen, 2017; Yang, 2013). In contrast, *passive* was found to be the least frequently used language pattern in all three sub-corpora, which was also revealed in Vietnamese L2 learners' MA and PhD acknowledgements (Nyugen, 2017). Similarly, in Karakaş's (2010) study, performative verbs accompanied by modal auxiliary verbs were the most frequently used pattern in both English native students' and Turkish L2 learners' MA and PhD acknowledgements whereas passive was the least frequently employed pattern in both groups. The possible reason for the low numbers of passive is that as acknowledgement section is the only section that dissertation writers express themselves freely and thank people from whom they get support, this section includes heavy use of the first person pronoun 'I'. As revealed in the data, students expressed themselves subjectively through the frequent use of performative verbs along with the first person pronoun ‘I’ and did not employ passive to be objective as they revealed their feeling of gratitude towards people whom they acknowledged.

As for the differences, one major finding was that following performatives, *bare mention* was the second most frequently employed language pattern for thanking by both English native and non-native students whereas Turkish students did not make use of bare mentions in their Turkish DAs. This finding suggests that Turkish learners of English behaved like their English native counterparts and preferred similar lexical choices as English native students did. In relation to this, Mingwei and Yajun (2010) whose study showed the extensive use of bare mention in Chinese L2 learners’ MA and PhD acknowledgements suggest that Chinese students tend to be less explicit in the expression of feelings and emotions. In this regard, scarce use of bare mentions in Turkish DAs implies that unlike Chinese ones, Turkish native students express their gratitude explicitly by using overt thanking expressions in their L1.

Another difference among three groups was observed in nominalization use. NSE were the only group who utilized nominalization with the highest frequency of use. In contrast, Turkish native students made bare use of this pattern. In addition, non-native students stood between the two groups in terms of nominalization use. Unlike this finding of the present study, in his study, Karakaş (2010) found that Turkish L2 students used nominalization to express their gratitude far more frequently than American native students.

In terms of intensifiers accompanying nouns and verbs in terms of types and frequency of occurrence, both English native and non-native students employed such qualifiers while expressing their thanks. Specifically, the former utilized more diverse types and the latter utilized intensifiers more frequently than the other group. As for Turkish students, they employed the least numbers and types of intensifiers in their L1. This finding suggests that Turkish students might have regarded acknowledgement writing as a formal genre and did not elaborate on their feelings through intensifiers while expressing the degree of their gratitude whereas non-native students behaved similar to their English native counterparts and made far more exaggerated use of intensifiers in their L2 DAs to convey their strong emotions.

Other than all those what have been aforementioned, the overall comparison among three groups showed that acknowledgements written in Turkish differed from the ones in English to a great extent in terms of overall frequency and types of linguistic patterns. Turkish data included at least three times as less frequent forms as the English native and non-native groups. Such very low frequency of thanking expressions in Turkish acknowledgments may stem from several factors. One probable factor is the number of audience who are being thanked. In one study, Hatipoğlu (2010) found out that in Turkish thank-you e-mails, the number of participants affected the e-mail writers in terms of both quality and quantity of thanks (as cited in Karakaş, 2010). According to her findings, in cases where there was only one writer and one recipient of thank you mail, the writer utilized numerous and various expressions whereas in cases in which there was more than one writer and recipient of *thank you* mail the writers used only one expression '*thank you'*. In parallel to this finding, in the current study, 115 out of 133 instances of thanking expressions were components of only one category, i.e. performative verbs, which indicates that Turkish writers relied heavily on a particular pattern while addressing a group of audience. So, the low numbers of expressions in Turkish DAs may be attributed to the fact of addressing a wide range of audience that includes both the recipients of thanks and people who are interested. Another reason may be that passive and nominalization use is a rare feature in acknowledging in Turkish language and adjectives used for expressing gratitude are not much varied in Turkish language. This may be why these patterns were infrequently used by Turkish students in their native language. Another factor is that majority of Turkish students thanked all the individuals such as academics, committee members, friends, and participants in one main clause which was like a long paragraph as illustrated below:

> 11a. Araştırma sürecinin her aşamasında akademik ve manevi olarak hiçbir yardımı esirgemeyerek desteğiyle hep yanımda olan tez danışmanım ve çok değerli hocam X'e, tez süreci boyunca bana rehberlik eden tez izleme komitemdeki çok değerli hocalarım X'e ve X'e, tezimin yapılandırılmasındaki desteğinden dolayı X'e, analiz sürecindeki yardımlarından dolayı çok değerli dostum Yrd. X'e, web sitesinin geliştirilmesindeki desteği için X'e, araştırmanın uygulama aşamasında okuldaki teknik alt yapı ve web sitesinin geliştirilmesindeki katkılarından dolayı X'e, uygulama okulundaki yönetici, öğretmen ve öğrencilere, hayatım boyunca maddi-manevi desteklerini esirgemeyip bu günlere gelmemde en büyük paya sahip olup varlıklarından hep güç aldığım çok değerli annem X'e, babam X'e, ablam .. moral ve desteğini hep hissettiğim sevgili eşim X'ye *sonsuz minnet ve şükranlarımı sunarım.*
>
> *(I express my endless gratitude to my invaluable advisor and teacher X who…, committee members X and X who guided me through …, my friend Ass. Prof. X for…, X for his support in…, mother X, my father X, my sister who….and to my husband whose support and help I...)*

As indicated above, only one performative verb *'minnet ve şükranlarını sunmak' (express my endless gratitude)* was used by the postgraduate student to thank all people. Similarly, in the following extract, another Turkish student expresses her gratitude to a number of people in one clause with one verb *'şükranlarını sunmak' (express one's gratitude)*:

> 11b. Başta Prof. Dr. X, Prof. Dr. X olmak üzere Doç. Dr. X, Doç. Dr. X, Doç. Dr. X, Yrd. Doç. Dr. X, Yrd. Doç. Dr. X, ve burada adını sayamadığım maddi ve manevi olarak desteklerini eksik etmeyen hocalarıma, meslektaş ve arkadaşlarıma *şükranlarımı sunuyorum.*
>
> *(I express my gratitude to* first Prof. Dr. X, Prof. Dr. X…….and all teachers, colleagues and friends whose names I could not list here that provided financial and moral support.)

Unlike Turkish L1 acknowledgements, English acknowledgements written by non-native students included the highest frequency of lexical items as well as the most diverse types used to thank each individual by explaining the kind of support received. As for English native data, the case similar to Turkish DAs was observed only in three acknowledgments. In all three cases, similar to non-native students, English native ones provided the kind of help received from each individual as illustrated below:

> 12a. "*I would like to extend my thanks to the following organizations and people:*
>
> - *All the colleges in the survey in particular the managers who took time to complete and return the questionnaire*
> - *Colleagues in the four case study colleges for their time and courtesy*
> - *Professor tony bush for his initial guidance with this thesis*
> - *My supervisors Dr Janet Ouston for the excellent support and guidance …*
> - *My grandmother, mary Riley, for her faith in me…'" (NSE)*

As it is clear in the extract above, the English native student used the verb *'extend thanks'* to thank all the organizations and people including participants, supervisors, colleagues, family members and provided the kind of assistance received from these participants in one main clause.

Conclusion and Implications

This study investigated the expression of gratitude in DAs written in English by native and non-native postgraduate students and in Turkish by Turkish students and found out that acknowledgements written by three groups share some common features in the expression of gratitude such as the predominant use of *performative verbs* along with modal auxiliaries/modal auxiliary verbs and the rare use of *passive* forms. In addition to these common features shared by all groups, there were variations among three groups of students. Turkish L1 acknowledgments were organized in such a way that students thanked more than one addressee in one main clause by using few numbers and types of thanking expressions in their L1. In English acknowledgments, unlike Turkish DAs, each addressee was thanked in separate clauses through the use of various lexical expressions. Apart from that, English native students' DAs were shaped by frequent use of nominalization and bare mentions. As for the non-native students' DAs, the kind of support were provided while acknowledging addressees in most cases especially through bare mentions.

Based on these above-mentioned findings, it can be concluded that lexical choices in the expression of gratitude differ across languages due to different socio-cultural features. For instance, Turkish culture exhibits features of a collectivist and high-power distance culture in which indirect mode of verbal style is emphasized and power is positively associated with kindness and supportiveness (Zeyrek, 2001). In Turkish culture, students view their professors as polite and sympathetic individuals who are worthy of showing respect and positive politeness to (Zeyrek, 2001, p. 57). In contrast, English culture has individualistic nature in that self-reliance, autonomy and self-assertiveness, i.e. 'I' identity, are valued and information is explicitly conveyed (Bayraktaroglu & Sifianou, 2001; www.hofstede-insights.com). Considering acknowledgment writing in dissertations, there may be a link between writers' verbalization of thanking and their cultural characteristics. Thus, exploring the variation in different languages could be of great help for students writing in another language to have a better understanding of differences in the language patterns used in their native languages and foreign/second languages and to use appropriate thanking expressions.

Another conclusion is that writers' choices of language forms in the expression of gratitude are shaped by the influence of culture-specific variations, social values and expectations of different discourse communities as well as individual writing styles of writers. Thus, it is important to convey the feeling of gratitude and solidarity to readers in acknowledgements in a particular language by using appropriate lexical expressions as the lack of knowledge in constructing acknowledgements may result in 'improper expression of gratitude' and failure in establishment of competent academic and social identity (Karakaş, 2010, p. 4).

In postgraduate education, supervisors could provide students with explicit information both about the language such as what lexical items to use and how to express thanks for them to be able to maintain social relationships in the target community. In addition, supervisors could draw their attention to the possible factors such as socio-cultural expectations, academic conventions, genre of acknowledgement and the field of study which affect their choice of language expressions while thanking in DAs. In parallel with this, as for ESP practitioners, adoption of genre-based approach in writing courses could assist postgraduate students in effective use of linguistic patterns in the genre of acknowledgements with in-depth focus on the fundamental lexical choices while organizing thanks in the acknowledgment writing. In this respect, as offered by Yang (2012, p. 66), ESP teachers could make use of a list of frequently used keywords in various sources of DA corpuses to introduce possible linguistic patterns and constraints in different settings thereby providing valuable insights into the linguistic, academic, socio-cultural and contextual variations.

The scope of the present research was limited to the analysis of DAs written in Turkish by 50 Turkish students and in English by 50 native and 50 non-native postgraduate students in the field of English/Turkish Language Teaching in terms of similarities and differences in the expression of gratitude in their acknowledgements. Further research could extend its scope of investigation to the analysis of larger sample of acknowledgements written in various disciplines as well as languages to find out whether the difference in the organization of acknowledgements stems from the languages or discipline-specific conventions. Other than that, interviews could be conducted with the writers of acknowledgments to explore their preferences in their language choice and to gain insight into their thanking strategies, individual styles and cultural conventions based on their comments.

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Code-Switching in Ads in Bangladesh and its Effects in Culture

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Biodata

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Abstract

Code-switching, according to Hudson (1999), is the inevitable consequence of bilingualism. Language code-switching refers to the practice of alternating between two languages during any given conversation (Scotton, 1988). Though there is a plenty of research on this practice among sociolinguists and sociologists, a relative dearth of research on this topic exists among marketing academics, except for several recent works by Luna and Peracchio (2005a, b) and Luna, Lerman and Peracchio (2005). Furthermore, previous research in marketing that has focused on bilingual language processing issues in advertising has generally only incorporated the traditional view of bilingual advertising, in which a single message is presented in entirety in both languages. Code-switching has received little attention though it has already become a regular and important part of marketing strategy throughout the world. Based on a sociolinguistic frame-work, this paper explores the impact of code-switching on the persuasiveness of marketing messages in ads specifically in Bangladesh. Moreover, the purpose of this research is to examine how language code-switching interacts with the context

language of the medium to influence certain outcomes related to advertising effectiveness. The paper explores how message recall is enhanced through the use of code-switching in communication among bilingual individuals and measures the advertisers' cultural sensitivity. In fact, the paper reflects the impact of code-switching on L1 as a whole.

Keywords: Code-switching, advertising, marketing, cultural sensitivity

1. Background

The history of English in the language behaviour of the people of Bangladesh (Bangladesh was a part of the then undivided India) dates approximately 500 years back when the British landed on the then India along with their language (Alam, 2006). The then Indian people had to learn English, which was an official language, to get a better job in government sector and students had to have a very good command over English because most of the books of occidental knowledge, history, philosophy and technology were written in English. In 1947 the British colonial rule in the then India ended but surprisingly English continued to reign the linguistic domain. In 1952 the then Pakistani rulers attempted to establish Urdu, neglecting Bangla, which agitated the then East Pakistanis (now Bangladeshis) and it resulted in the Language Movement of 21 February 1952 when police fired on the agitators. Bangla was declared as one of the state languages of the then Pakistan at the cost of the martyrdom of patriots. It is a matter of great honour that 21st February has been declared as International Mother Language Day by UNESCO on 17 November in 1997 and it is the first ever formal step to recognize the honour of mother tongue.

Naturally Bangla language is simultaneously an issue of both sensitivity and pride for the people of Bangladesh. After the Language Movement in 1952, the official activities used to be carried out in English to avoid language clash in two regions (East Pakistan and West Pakistan). On 16 December, 1971 the Pakistanis were ousted from the soil of Bangladesh and so was their language Urdu, but English still remained in the language behaviour of the Bangladeshis.

1.1 Status of English and Bangla in Bangladesh: A Brief Overview

The role of English in Bangladesh is purely functional as English is used as an international link language. Unlike India, English is not used as an interpersonal and inter-institutional communication and there is seemingly no possibility of English becoming the *lingua franca* in

Bangladesh (Rahman, 2005). But English has been used for years and for different purposes and gradually it is becoming part of the socio-cultural system. As the use of English is increasing day by day in different forms, there is significant evidence of use of English along with Bangla as code-mixing and code-switching (Banu & Sussex, 2001).

Since the birth as an independent country, Bangladesh has witnessed an over-whelming importance of 'Bangla everywhere' (the *Bangla Procholon Ain* or Bangla Implementation Act was implemented in 1987), which inevitably affected and limited the use of English in the socio-cultural domain. Since then Bangla language has been used in much wider fields than ever before. This provides an adequate 'background to the policy decisions and the current status of English' (Banu & Sussex, 2001). Surprisingly this has not extinguished English. Though in the constitution of Bangladesh there is no declared place for English yet the use of English is found in some government events or activities if the situation demands. On 19 January 1989, English was introduced as a compulsory language from Class I to class XII with students having to qualify in both English and Bangla in the board examinations. That means, in Bangladesh English is taught, in primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary levels, in all three categories of education system: Bangla Medium, English Medium and Madrasa system.

Moreover, at the university level, in addition to the regular courses, English was introduced as a compulsory subject in many disciplines since 90s. Because of faulty language policies since 1972, English was set back and English education suffered tremendously, leaving a vacuum which is yet to be filled. Interestingly, instead of having different political ideologies on the concept of nationalism, all the leaders of subsequent governments of the country, since independence, stress on shedding the so-called dominance of 'imperial English', and assigning new roles to Mother Tongue (*Bangla*) in public life. But English has continued to be an important part of the communication matrix, especially of urban educated Bangladeshis. While the government continually tried to establish *Bangla* everywhere, the space and the role of English, though not defined, could not be ignored due to strong presence of English as the language of international correspondence.

Since the enactment of Private University Act 1992, Bangladesh witnessed a significant growth in the number of private universities, especially in the cities. Though there was no clear indication about the choice of the medium of instruction, interestingly in all private universities, the medium of instructions is inescapably English. Banu and Sussex (2001) observes “Although the charters of the private university have no reference to the language of instruction to be used, what is interesting is that all these are English-medium institutions...in fact private universities are a natural extension of the English-medium schools”.

English has a strong demand in white-collar job market especially in multinational companies, UN projects, renowned NGOs, private banks and renowned private companies, which is evident in their job advertisement and it has created a strong motivation among the Bangladeshis to be proficient in English. But the majority of rural population using only Bangla is considered to be the pure Monolinguals.

1.2. Most Common Code-Switch Types Among the Current Generation in Bangladesh: Banglish

According to Bay(2018) “Bangreji” or “Banglish,” is “the modern-day practice of speaking a mix of Bangla and English, with sometimes anglicised pronunciations of the Bangla alphabets.” Bay also considers Banglish to be “the increasing tendency to speak a distorted form of Bangla by radio jockeys and others,” in Bangladesh. In fact, most common Code-switch Types among the current generation in Bangladesh could be deemed as a side effect of globalization of the English language. The children of the middle class and above are now more and more exposed to the world media through satellite channels, which predominantly use English as the medium of communication.

However, the reasons are not limited to watching TV. There are other factors involved. English medium schools have been operating in Dhaka and in other big cities for a long time. However, for the past 10-12 years, the number of these schools has exploded and they now accommodate a significant number of children in the city. This new generation of kids, and they are not small in number, are the most prone to code-switch between Bangla and English than any other layer in the Bangladeshi society.

Moreover, professionals like doctors, engineers or lawyers are quite in the habit of mixing their professional jargon (English) with everyday Bangla. The Bengali kid cannot speak English like a British or an American because no matter how much he watches American/British programs on TV, he cannot relate those experiences to his day to day lives. He cannot speak the shuddho cholito Bangla because he has been institutionally away from the Bengali cultural roots and has not been exposed to much of the rich Bengali literature that came out in the 20th century.

For example:

> “Like, *ami jikhon shekhane jai (*when I go there), he keeps an eye on me.”
>
> “*Shedin* (that day) he was just doing *chapabaji* (making tall talk).”

Bay(2018) further adds,“A majority of Bangla words came from other languages including modified, unmodified and corrupted forms of Sanskrit words, as well as loanwords from various other sources. Language, like culture, is ever-evolving, and with globalization allowing languages and cultures to mingle at a scale never seen before, the pace of evolution will only quicken, whether we like it or not.”

1.3. Motivations for Code-Switching

There are various reasons why Bengali speakers switch from one language to another in the course of conversations. These speakers use an English word when they are unable to find an equivalent term for the word in the lexicon of Bengali, or when they are not familiar with the term. For example, there are no equivalent terms for table, coffee, glass, hobby, etc. in everyday Bengali use. The Bengali terms for pencil, committee, chair, library, graduate, candidate, etc. are not readily available to all (Baksi, 1983).

Language facility implies that, for the bilingual, it is simply easier to express oneself using code-switching rather than remaining in a single language. This may occur when a term was first learned in a second language. For example, Bangla/English bilinguals may switch from Bangla to English when introducing vocabulary into the conversation that relates to occupations, education and medicine. Redlinger (1976) states that these code-switched elements “may have been first encountered through characteristically Anglo institutions or otherwise identified with them in some significant way" (p. 50).

Language economy refers to a word or phrase that is able to be expressed more succinctly in another language than one’s native tongue (Becker, 1997). Language economy thus serves as another motivation for the use of code-switching. For example, since the English word “chair” is more linguistically economical than the “kedara” equivalent, bilinguals often use the English version in order to save time in reference to this household machine (Becker, 1997).

Heller (1988) claims that “code-switching provides a clear example of the ways in which individuals draw on their linguistic resources to signal changes in the different aspects of context which they wish to foreground, to make salient…” (p. 10). The purpose for these shifts in discourse modes is to provide a momentary break from the main focus of the dialogue.

According to Gal (1979), “Differences between speakers occur in part because linguistic features can assume social significance, symbolizing the statuses and values of the subgroups with which they are associated. They can therefore be used by speakers in impression management” (p. 5).

2. Literature Review

Studies have shown that nowadays in many of the non-native English-speaking countries advertisers are making strong efforts to target and persuade bilinguals. The advertisers are highly creative and innovative in producing code-switched ads which simultaneously manipulate and appeal the bilinguals to a great extent. Likewise, the trend of code-switching in ads in Bangladesh has become a regular phenomenon as well as well accepted by the consumers all over the country.

The debate over language choice in international and cross-cultural advertising has to this point focused on mainly three alternatives. That is to use the original language in all regions, translate the content into the relevant local language or employ bilingual advertising. Past studies have found bilingual advertising to be effective in increasing advertiser cultural sensitivity and positively affect the advertisement (Koslow, Shamdasani &Touchstone, 1994).

Code-switching in advertisements differs from the traditional way in which bilingual advertising is considered in that the message is not presented in its entirety in both target languages. Instead, two or more languages may be alternated between any given conversations. According to Scotton (1988), code-switching is “the use of any two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation, whether they are different languages, styles, or dialects” (p. 201). In this research, I am examining language code-switching—particularly, that which occurs between Bangla and English. In many multilingual societies, code-switching represents more accurately the way individuals actually communicate.

Research on code-switching in advertising has been undertaken in a limited extent. Preliminary findings reveal that using code-switching can either positively or negatively influence product image formation and overall product evaluation, depending on the nature of the code-switch. For example, Luna and Perrachio (2005a, b) demonstrated that switching from Spanish to English within an advertising slogan resulted in higher product evaluations than switching from English to Spanish. Thus, there exists some evidence that code-switching may be a practical tool advertisers can employ to reach different ethnic groups.

2.1. Code-Switching in Advertising

Language is important to consider in an advertising context because the effectiveness of the messages in ads depends on how properly words and other symbolic representations are employed and received (Neelankavil, Mummalaneni, & Sessions, 1995; Ueltschy & Ryans, 1997).

The inclusion of foreign languages in advertisements is a growing trend throughout the world and is attributed to the increasing number of emerging global brands and the marketing practices of multinational companies (Cutler, Javalgi, & White, 1995; Domzal, Hunt, & Kernan, 1995; Hancock 1999; Neelankavil et al., 1995; Ray, Ryder, & Scott, 1991; Wang, Jaw, Pinkleton, & Morton, 1997).

As a potent symbol of globalization, English has become one of the most popular foreign languages used in advertisements in many non-native English speaking markets such as Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, and Korea (Crystal, 1997; Cutler et al 1995., Mueller, 1992; Ray et al., 1991).

Some studies in marketing have begun to explore the influence of language on information processing and, in particular, on memory processes (e.g., Schmitt, Pan, & Tavassoli, 1994; Schmitt & Zhang 1998). That research highlights the link between language and consumers' cognitive structures, illustrating the importance of linguistic theory for consumer research.

Recent research by Tavassoli and Han (2001) with Chinese-English bilinguals has identified language-based processing differences that impact memory. Studies by Luna and Peracchio (2001) have found that processing a message in a first versus a second language can impact bilinguals' memory.

In advertising, code-switching generally consists of inserting a foreign word or expression into an ad slogan, resulting in a mixed-language message. Code-switching is a linguistic practice employed by bilinguals around the world (Grosjean, 1982).

2.2. Appropriateness of Code-Switching in Advertising

As advanced bilingual speakers evidence skill in the art of code-switching, most advertisers skillfully employ code-switching as well. This includes knowing when it is and is not appropriate to communicate to a target audience in this manner. Even though an audience may be facile at more than one language, this does not mean that code-switching occurs in all multilingual communities (Scotton, 1993) nor is the best candidate for language medium. Attitudes toward languages, attitudes toward the practice of code-switching and the presence of inter-group tension as expressed through language usage should be taken first into consideration.

2.3. Attitudes Toward Code-Switching

A bilingual's attitude toward code-switching is one of the most important determinants of whether or not he practices it and how he views others who use it (Grosjean, 1982; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a). Therefore, for code-switching to be a candidate for a language advertising medium, attitudes toward the practice should not be negative. Luna and Peracchio (2005a) define attitudes toward code-switching as the extent to which individuals believe code-switching to be a desirable practice. In general, bilinguals are believed to possess negative attitudes toward code-switching, even when its use is common among community members (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a; Hidalgo, 1986; Ramirez, Milk & Sapiens, 1983).

Past research has indicated that bilinguals have a negative attitude toward code-switching in spite of its widespread use in society (Hidalgo, 1986; Ramirez et al., 1983; Luna & Peracchio, 2005a). Individuals tend to believe that code-switching somehow violates the "purity" of their home language (Hussein, 1999). According to Alvarez (1997), "Traditionalists have sometimes deplored this 'code-switching' between languages, often calling it a product of laziness and ignorance." Others consider mixing two languages as a sign of "linguistic dexterity" (Alvarez, 1997) and a tool to evidence another positively evaluated identity.

On the other hand, Cook (1997) suggested that monolinguals have a dubious view towards bilingualism. Monolinguals tend to believe that members of the human race are supposed to know only one language (Cook, 1997). The people who usually use two languages to communicate are viewed as eccentric (Cook, 1997). Cook described the monolingual depiction of a bilingual person having two mouths whereas a monolingual person has one mouth. From a monolingual perspective, bilingualism is seen mostly negatively (Grosjean, 2010). Monolinguals consider bilingualism as a “grammarless mixture” of L1 and L2 and as an “insult to the monolingual’s rule-governed language” (Grosjean, 1982; p. 146).

2.4. Message Recall

A goal of most advertising is to achieve a high level of information retention through memorability (Olsen, Sternthal, Brian, 1997). Memorability is defined as the ability to recall an advertisement, and is measured primarily through experimental methods (Stone, Besser & Lewis, 2000). Recall is influenced by the way individuals process information (Unnava, Burnkrant & Erevelles, 1994) and is considered a necessary condition of advertising effectiveness (Dubow, 1994). As stated by Gibson (1983), “Recall is a relatively stable measure of something and that something must be related to advertising effectiveness” (p. 39). Regarding language choice in advertising, there is a lack of research as to how bilinguals process marketing messages (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a), including its impact on message recall. Therefore, how to increase message recall remains an important goal of advertisers.

To address this issue, the Markedness Model (Scotton, 1993) and concepts related to message salience are reviewed, along with the construct of message recall in terms of how code-switching may impact it. Hypotheses are then proposed linking together the relationships between language in advertising, the context in which an ad occurs and message recall.

2.5. Markedness Model of Code-Switching

According to the Markedness Model as proposed by Scotton (1993), code-switching may come in two forms—marked or unmarked. Unmarked code-switching may be thought of as the “expected” and “safer” (p. 75) medium in conversational exchanges, given the norms of society and the situational nature of the conversation (Scotton, 1993). These situational factors may include the speaker and the addressee, the topic and the setting. For example, if two speakers are bilingual and use code-switching as the “normal” or “expected” way of communicating on a regular basis, using code-switching in conversation with each other would be considered unmarked. According to Scotton (1993), “The majority of speakers will follow the known path and make unmarked choices, thereby maintaining the status quo…Thus, code-switching will not be a frequent choice except when it is an unmarked choice" (p. 153). Marked choices are more or less unexpected. They are "not usual, and in some sense they are a dis-identification with what is expected" (Scotton, 1993, p 151). According to Scotton (1993), "The more potential a group has for upward mobility, the more likely its members are to make marked choices in interactions allowing for status-raising" (p. 153). In this sense, marked choices are seen as "riskier" and occur when one believes that the rewards associated with code-switching are greater than the potential costs. For example, one may choose to risk being perceived as diverging from the group or what is expected in order to present himself as upwardly mobile and educated.

According to Luna and Peracchio (2005a), "…[I]f an individual is processing information in one language and the message switches one word to a different language, that code-switched word will be made salient, or marked in linguistic terms, because it stands out from its context" (p. 2). Luna and Peracchio (2005a) state that the term markedness is analogous to the concept of perceptual salience. Code-switching may be an important tool to increase message recall due to its inherent ability to make the code-switched ("switched-to" or embedded) elements salient (Heller, 1988). According to Heller (1988), "[C]ode-switching provides a clear example of the ways in which individuals draw on their linguistic resources to signal changes in the different aspects of context which they wish to foreground, to make salient…" (p. 10). That is, the bilingual is forced to cognitively switch from the main language of communication to a secondary one. This implies a cognitive transition from one language to another, forcing the receiver to change modes and process the information in the secondary language. Salience is important in terms of its ability to positively influence message recall. It has been shown that other marketing variables, including advertising and usage, that increase the salience of a brand have been directly related to recall (Hutchison, 1983). Similar effects of salience on message elements should also be evidenced. That is, message elements that are made more salient should stand apart from non-salient message elements.

2.6. Contextual Effects on Recall

Most advertising appears in a context or is contained in a medium. De Pelsmacker, Geuens and Anckaert (2002) use the term "media context" to refer to the characteristics of the content of the medium in which an ad is inserted (e.g., articles in a magazine, spots in a television program). Media context can be an important situational factor in terms of its ability to influence attention to and elaboration of an advertisement (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). The media context also can make certain needs more salient (De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). In particular, this occurs when the advertised product or service complements what is being viewed in the context, such as an ad for suitcases inserted into an article on traveling (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

In this research, the concern is about the language of the medium context in terms of its ability to influence message salience and, thus, recall of an ad. The language of the medium context in which an ad occurs may serve to alter the degree of salience of the matrix (“switched from”) and the embedded (‘switched to”) elements of a code-switched message. Therefore, it is important to consider the structure of code-switching used in terms of the medium language. The structure of the code-switched message refers to the direction of code-switching (in this case, switching from English to Bangla to English), and the context refers to the language of the medium in which the ad appears (all-Bangla vs. all-English). In code-switched advertising, when the embedded text differs from the context language, the embedded elements are made the most salient (stand apart the most). Therefore, when the embedded text does not match the language of the medium context, level of recall of embedded elements will be higher than when the embedded text matches the language of the medium context.

2.7. Salience and Recall Inhibition

Although the attribute of salience in message processing may increase recall, it has been shown previously that salience can serve to hinder recall of non-salient alternatives. For example, Alba and Chattopadhyay (1985) demonstrated that when consumers were provided with a subset of brands from a product category, recall of brands that were not included in the set was hindered. They found that the size of the effect of recall inhibition was directly related to the number of brands included in the subset. In further study, Alba and Chattopadhyay (1986) demonstrated that merely through increasing the salience of a single brand impaired an individual’s ability to recall competing brands. According to these researchers, the intuition behind these findings is that it is difficult for an individual to suppress recall of information that is made salient during memory search. They state (1986), “If a brand is particularly salient, it will come to mind continually when the consumer attempts to recall other brands from the same product category. As a result, the number of other brands recalled may be reduced” (p.363). Therefore, as salience may inhibit recall of non-salient brands, this same effect may be observed among message recall elements. That is, message elements that are made more salient should cause inhibition of the other message elements that are not as salient.

2.8. Advertiser Cultural Sensitivity

Perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity have been shown to be positively related to affect for the advertisement (Koslow et al., 1994). This is an important issue as the degree of positive or negative affect as experienced by the consumers can strongly influence their purchase interest (Oliver, Roland, & Varki, 1997). In terms of international audiences, an advertiser might be perceived as culturally sensitive by incorporating local language into the advertisement, using actors of corresponding ethnicity and/or incorporating cultural values into the advertisement. However, one must first perceive the advertiser as culturally sensitive in order for the advertisement to result in a higher degree of affect (Koslow et al., 1994). Thus, it is important to examine the role code-switching in advertising plays in forming perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity.

2.9. Speech Accommodation Theory

An advertiser cultural sensitivity may be measured by the fact that whether an advertiser is attempting to reduce/increase the social distance between the ad and its viewer. Code-switching may be used by multilinguals to either reduce or increase the social distance between conversing participants. According to Heller (1988b), “Code-switching can be used to appeal to the shared understanding characteristic of co-membership, or to create distance by associating oneself, momentarily, with the out-group” (p. 83). According to speech accommodation theory, speakers may use code-switching for the purposes of convergence or divergence in social settings (Scotton, 1993). Scotton (1993, p. 66) explains this position as follows:

> Giles suggests that, in many social interactions, speakers desire their listeners’ social approval, and use modification of their speech towards the listeners’ code as a tactic to get this approval. This is called *accommodation* or *convergence*. But in other situations, speakers may wish to disassociate themselves from listeners; they do this by accentuating their linguistic differences. This is called speech *divergence*.

Code-switching may reduce social distance when two people do not share the same native language. This may also result in reciprocal speech accommodation (see, Koslow et al., 1994);

in that both the participants use their non-native language (provided both individuals are bilingual). Code-switching may also occur between a bilingual and a monolingual. For example: In Bangladesh there are a number of bilinguals (they can speak both Bangla & English) who always speak in the native language (Bangla) to communicate with the monolinguals (speaks only in Bangla) (Finlayson, Calteaux, & Myers-Scotton, 1998). Another example comes from Scotton and Ury (1977) and is summed up by Luna and Peracchio (2005a, p.44) as follows:

> [S]witching to the local dialect can be an instrument to create a sense of proximity, as in the case of a Luyia (Western Kenya) shopkeeper's sister, who switches to Luyia, the minority language, to request some salt from her brother at his business (Scotton & Ury 1977). The woman uses Luyia instead of Swahili, the majority language of business, because she hopes to diminish the social distance with her brother so he will offer her a good deal.

3. Code-Switching in Advertisements in Bangladesh

Code-switching is a common affair in the marketing strategy in Bangladesh. Starting from a large billboard to a small flyer, code-switching is playing an important role in trade and commerce in Bangladesh. Banu and Sussex (2001) mention, "The socio-commercial profile of business names and the interpenetration of the two languages can be seen in most shopping-cum-residential areas which are largely populated by middle-class and upper middle-class educated Bengalis."

While national policy makers are actively promoting literacy in Bengali, they also realize that they have to accommodate to the dynamic and forceful effect of English, especially in the commercial world.

3.1. Bilingual Language Ability of the Community

According to Scotton (2002), "The degree of bilingual language ability depends on which languages are known, on when, why, where, and how they were acquired, and also how much of each, and how well, the languages were mastered and presently known" (p.33). Code-switching may not be a proper communication vehicle in communities where there are few people who know a second language, especially when it is important to process the information in an advertising message. This is because individuals with poor abilities in the second language will not be able to process the information to the same extent as bilinguals who are able to process information in both languages (Zhang & Schmitt, 2004). Language usage or ability of community members is the most popular behavior associated with the behavioral dimension of acculturation (Maldonado & Tansuhaj, 2002). In this research, language ability test confirms whether one particular message is comprehensible to an individual.

4. Objective of the Study

The purposes are to examine the role of language code-switching in advertising among bilingual consumers in Bangladesh in terms of message recall. More specifically, the objective of the study is to determine how language code-switching in advertising influences message recall depending on direction of the code-switch and the language context in which the ad appears.

There is currently a relative dearth of academic studies on how code-switching may be used strategically by advertisers and retailers. Despite the plethora of research performed by sociolinguists, psycholinguistics, and sociologists on code-switching, marketing academics have failed to significantly build on their findings and extend them to the advertising arena (Bishop, 2006). Furthermore, previous research in marketing that has focused on bilingual language processing has generally only incorporated the traditional view of bilingual advertising (Koslow et al., 1994). Traditional bilingual advertising in this paper refers to a single message being presented in its entirety on both languages. Code-switching has received little attention from marketing academics. However, this area does appear to be gaining interest as demonstrated by several recent works of Luna and Peracchio (2005a, b) and Luna, Lerman and Peracchio (2005).

5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Luna and Peracchio (2005a) believe that regarding language choice in advertising, there is a lack of research as to how bilinguals process marketing messages, including its impact on message recall. Therefore, how to increase message recall remains an important goal of advertisers. Thus, the purpose of this research is to examine Research Question 1, restated as follows:

Research Question 1

> How do code-switching in advertising and the context language of a medium in which an ad appears interact to affect message recall?

As to find the evidence of advertiser cultural sensitivity it is necessary to first perceive the advertiser as culturally sensitive in order for the advertisement to result in a higher degree of affect (Koslow et al., 1994). To restate from 2.8, it is important to examine the role code-switching in advertising plays in forming perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity. So the following Research Question 2 can be derived:

Research Question 2

> How does using code-switching in advertising interact with the context language of a medium to influence perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity?

The Markedness Model (Myers-Scotton, 1993) and the concepts related to message salience are reviewed, along with the construct of message recall in terms of how code-switching may impact it. Hypotheses are then proposed linking together the relationships between language in advertising, the context in which an ad occurs and message recall. On the other hand, when the embedded text does not match the language of the medium context, level of recall of embedded elements will be higher than when the embedded text matches the language of the medium context. Thus, my first hypothesis is:

> H1: When an ad's embedded language differs from the medium language of the context, recall of embedded elements will be higher than when the ad's embedded language is the same as the medium language.

The second hypothesis is:

> H2: When the matrix language of an ad matches the medium language of the context, recall of matrix language elements will be lower than when the matrix language differs from the medium language.

The third hypothesis is:

H3: When the embedded language matches the medium language of the context, the advertiser will be perceived not as more culturally sensitive than when the embedded Supported language differs from the medium language.

6. Research Design/Procedure

To illustrate the patterns and to find out the reasons and the impact of code-switching in ads (in Bangladesh), I had to go through some online articles, which helped me to get the information on both the attitudes of the advertisers and the consumers towards code-switching around the world. I also provided questionnaires to local consumers and the personals from four advertising firms, to get the real view of the situation (advertiser cultural sensitivity) of code-switching in ads.

A total of 60 people participated in the survey. They were divided into two groups in terms of their age. The range of age in group one was 30-45 while the range of age in group two was 20-30. The participants were all bilingual speakers living within Dhaka city. Their average education period is 15 years. The population I chose is the city dwellers who come across billboards and media where they find persuasive advertisements every day. Questionnaires were given to 60 people (local consumers) and 4 representatives from 4 different advertising firms.

The procedure employed in this research aligns with the procedure of Luna and Peracchio (2001) who tested for message recall issues based on language proficiency. Participants first received written instructions about the procedures for reading the materials and that they would have to answer several questions following their completion of this task (Appendix A). No mention was made about the memory test. They were instructed to turn the page and read an ad. This ad was mostly in Bangla with some switches to English (Appendix B). Individuals were given 5 minutes to read this ad. They were next instructed to read a magazine article titled *The Eyes Say It All* (Appendix C). Individuals were given 10 minutes to read this article, as this had proved sufficient time in the pre-testing stage. The purpose of this was to provide a brief distraction activity in order to test for message recall. After exposure to the reading materials, participants then took the first recall test, which was unaided (Appendix D). Next, participants were given the aided recall test (see Appendices E and F), which had a fill-in-the blank format. In this test, participants read the lyrics of the ad, with several omissions of phrases that included the code-switched elements. Rather than only omitting the single code-switched noun, it was decided to omit the entire short phrase in which the code-switched noun appeared to counter the possible guessing or inferring of the word based on the context. Through omitting the entire phrase, the possibility of guessing or inferring the word was reduced, as demonstrated through interviews during the pre-testing stage. Respondents were given 5 minutes to complete this task, as this time amount had proved sufficient to read through the claims and write a response, though not enough time to try to infer or guess a response. At the end, participants were given questionnaires which they had to tick mark. (To judge their opinion about code-switching)

6.1. Coding of Recall Data

Participants were given one point for each sentence or claim they could recall from the ad. As the code-switched (embedded) elements were single nouns, individuals received a point for each of these nouns that they wrote down. This word could appear as a single word or could be written in the phrase in which it occurred. For example, responses that stated

> "I'd have lots of fun, *gaibo je gaan"*

were scored the same as those that just included the single code-switched noun, "fun" or "gaan,". Any of these responses received one point for recall of an embedded element. This was the same for both the unaided and the aided recall test. A maximum score of ten points was possible for the embedded elements as it was convenient for later calculation. Scoring recall of the matrix elements was not as clear-cut. There were 06 total claims or phrases that could be recorded for points for embedded elements from English-to-Bangla code-switched sentences (Appendix E). There were 05 phrases that could be recorded for points for embedded elements from Bangla-to-English (Appendix F). An entire phrase or just a single noun from each of these phrases that was recorded received a point. Recall did not have to be exact, as a paraphrase of the claim could be acceptable.

7. Control Variables

In testing the above hypotheses in section 5, it is important to account for several characteristics of the respondents that may influence message recall, including age, level of involvement and the bilingual language abilities of the respondents. Age is currently the only demographic variable that appears to be conclusively correlated with message recall. According to Dubow (1994), age is negatively associated with the recall of advertising, in that younger adults demonstrate higher recall than older adults. Furthermore, advertising in a bilingual individual's non-dominant language also adversely impacts message recall (Luna, Peracchio, Mick, & Hoyer, 2001). According to the Revised Hierarchical Model (RHM) (Dufour & Kroll, 1995), processing a second language message at the conceptual level is less likely than processing conceptually a first language message. From this model, messages conveyed in a bilingual individual's less proficient language result in inferior memory as compared with messages communicated in their more proficient language (Luna et. al, 2001). Finally, a higher level of message involvement is associated with central message processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Munch & Swasy, 1988; De Pelsmacker et al., 2002). In contrast, low involvement individuals devote less attention to advertising stimuli (Zaichkowsky, 1985) and tend to use peripheral cues to process information (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986).

When examining the above hypotheses, it is also important to consider an individual's attitude toward code-switching and bilingual language ability as control variables. Per the former, attitudes toward code-switching refer to the extent to which individuals believe code-switching to be a desirable practice (Luna & Peracchio, 2005a). If code-switching is viewed by the individual to be a more negative practice, this could result in more negative perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity, and vice versa. Therefore, it is important to take into account individual differences in this attitude. In terms of language abilities, although this research focuses on bilingual Bangladeshi, this does not imply that these individuals are equally competent in both Bangla and English. Therefore, individual differences in language proficiency may provide an important moderator when examining cultural sensitivity of the advertiser, despite which language was used in the context medium. For example, a bilingual speaker who is more proficient in English may perceive the advertiser that switches from Bangla to English in advertising as more culturally sensitive to the audience, regardless of the language of the target audience of the medium. This is because the switch to Bangla (the more highly understood language in this case) from English is proposed to lead to the perception of decreased social distance on the part of the advertiser. Narrowing this distance should manifest itself in higher evaluations of advertiser cultural sensitivity based on this direction of the code-switch.

7.1. Definition and Measurement of Variables

7.1.1 Independent Variables

Codeswitching: Following Scotton (1988), code-switching is “the use of any two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation, whether they are different languages, styles, or dialects” (p. 201). In this study, it was referred to code-switching—or language alternation—between two languages, English and Bangla. Code-switching was manipulated at two levels, depending on direction of code-switch (per Luna and Peracchio, 2005a, b). In particular, English-to-Bangla code-switching was examined compared to Bangla-to-English code-switching. In the first type of code-switching, most of the advertisement was written in English with few lines switches to Bangla throughout the ad (see Appendix C for this advertisement: Clemon Drink).

Language Context of the Medium: In the advertisement, the language context of the medium was manipulated at two levels (Bangla vs. English). This variable was used to examine possible moderating effects that the context language may have on the dependent variables.

7.1.2 Dependent Variables

Message recall: Message recall is defined as the level of information retention based on exposure to an advertisement. It is measured by the number of statements or details an individual can recall after having been exposed to an advertisement for a set period of time. Respondents were permitted to write the information down in Bangla or in English or in both languages. Respondents were required to complete two recall tests, including an unaided recall test (administered first) and an aided recall test (fill-in-the-blank).These tests can be found in Appendices D, E and F.

7.2. **Results of Participant Tests**

Table 1. Unaided recall test of embedded and matrix message elements (out of ten)

Results: Group 1: 20 Participants average age 30-45

Number of People	Score
3	6
5	5

5	4
4	3
3	2

Mean = 4
Median = 4
Mode = 5

Table 2. Aided recall test of embedded elements (English-to-Bangla code-switched ad) (out of ten)

Results: Group 1: 20 Participants average age 30-45

Number of People	Score
4	8
5	7
5	6
4	3
2	2

Mean = 5.2
Median = 6
Mode = 7

Table 3. Aided recall test of embedded elements (Bangla-to-English code-switched ad) (out of ten)

Results: Group 1: 20 Participants average age 30-45

Number of People	Score
2	8
4	7
3	6
5	3
6	2

Mean = 5.2
Median = 3
Mode = 2

Table 4. Unaided recall test of embedded and matrix message elements (out of ten)

Results: Group 2: 40 Participants average age 20-30

Number of People	Score
11	7
8	6
10	4
6	3

5	2

Mean =	4.4
Median =	4
Mode =	2

Table 5. Aided recall test of embedded elements (English-to-Bangla code-switched ad) (out of ten)

Results: Group 2: 40 Participants average age 20-30	
Number of People	Score
12	9
10	8
7	6
6	5
5	4

Mean =	6.4
Median =	6
Mode =	2

Table 6. Aided recall test of embedded elements (Bangla-to-English code-switched ad) (out of ten)

Results: Group 2: 40 Participants average age 20-30

Number of People	Score
9	9
6	8
10	7
10	5
5	4

Mean =	6.6
Median =	6
Mode =	2

Table 7. Reading ability test (proficiency in English) (out of ten)

Total participants 60 (age 20-45)

Number of People	**Score (Out of 10)**
4	5
5	6
9	7
8	8
14	9
20	10

Average: 7.5

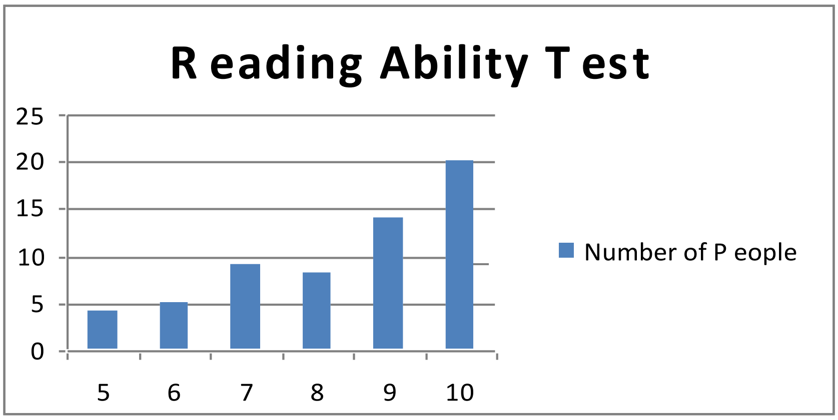

Figure 1: Reading Ability Test Chart

8. Analysis & Findings

Group 1 (range of age: 30-45):

For group 1 (range of age: 30-45) the mean for unaided recall test of embedded and matrix message elements is 4 (Table 1). For both aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 2) and aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 3) the mean remains the same that is 5.2.

Group 2 (range of age: 20-30):

Again, for group 2 (range of age: 20-30) the mean for unaided recall test of embedded and matrix message elements is 4.4 (Table 4). For aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 5) the mean shows 6.4. For aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 6) the mean shows 6.6. In each case participants of group two get higher than group one in measurement scale. As age is currently the only demographic variable that appears to be conclusively correlated with message recall, according to Dubow (1994), age is negatively associated with the recall of advertising, in that younger adults demonstrate higher recall than older adults.

Again, according to Heller (1988), "[C]ode-switching provides a clear example of the ways in which individuals draw on their linguistic resources to signal changes in the different aspects of context which they wish to foreground, to make salient…" (p. 10). So to judge the result, the mean remained the same which is 5.2 in group one (age: 30-45) for both aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 2) and aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 3). But it varied in group two(age:20-30) as the mean shows 6.4 for aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 5) and 6.6 for aided recall test of embedded elements (Table 6).

8.1. Discussion

The results show that "signal change(s)" or "salience theory" does make a difference in the memory of the participants (H1: When an ad's embedded language differs from the medium language of the context, recall of embedded elements will be higher than when the ad's embedded language is the same as the medium language). In other way, Alba and Chattopadhyay (1986) demonstrated that merely through increasing the salience of a single brand impaired an individual's ability to recall competing brands. According to these researchers, the intuition behind these findings is that it is difficult for an individual to suppress recall of information that is made salient during memory search. They state (1986), "If a brand is particularly salient, it will come to mind continually when the consumer attempts to recall other brands from the same product category. As a result, the number of other brands recalled may be reduced" (p.363). Therefore, as salience may inhibit recall of non-salient brands, this same effect may be observed among message recall elements. That is, message elements that are made more salient should cause inhibition of the other message elements that are not as salient. Regarding the language of the media context in which an ad occurs, when this language does not match the embedded language of a code-switched ad, the embedded elements will stand out more, causing decreased salience of the matrix elements in these conditions (H2: When the matrix language of an ad matches the medium language of the context, recall of matrix language elements will be lower than when the matrix language differs from the medium language). Again, my research question 1 (How do codeswitching in advertising and the context language of a medium in which an ad appears interact to affect message recall?) is clarified through this explanation.

As to deal with my research question 2 (How does using code-switching in advertising interact with the context language of a medium to influence perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity?) and my proposed H3 (When the embedded language matches the language of the medium context, the advertiser will be perceived as more culturally sensitive than when the embedded language differs from the medium language), an appropriate literature review of the use of code-switching and its impact on cultural sensitivity has been examined based on speech accommodation theory (Giles, Taylor, & Bourhis, 1973). Connections between language in advertising, medium context and this perception are then proposed, along with the controlled variables of bilingual language ability and attitudes toward the practice of code-switching. Applied to advertising, an attempt at a reduction in social distance on the part of the advertiser would result in the advertiser being perceived as more culturally sensitive. Alternatively, an increase in such distance through language choice should result in the advertiser being perceived as less culturally sensitive. Thus, the direction of code-switching is important to consider in these perceptions. Further, how this direction interacts with the language of the medium context in which the ad appears should have an impact on the perception of advertiser cultural sensitivity.

In particular, when the advertiser uses code-switching and switches from a second language to the language of the medium, the advertiser should be seen as attempting to reduce this social distance. This is because the advertiser may be perceived as coming towards the audience of the advertisement in terms of the language usage, and thus attempting to reduce social distance as implied by the theory of speech accommodation (Giles et al., 1973). For example, if an advertiser switches from English to Bangla in an-all Bangla advertisement, this will result in an attempt to come nearer to the viewer than if the advertiser were to switch from Bangla to English in this context. Greater perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity to the reader of the advertisement should be realized in this regard.

Again, after the survey, the average result of language proficiency was 7.5 out of 10 scales which was satisfactory. In fact, the survey was run among the bilingual Bangladeshi citizens who were able to read and understand English. To restate from 3.1 (Bilingual Language Ability of Community) language ability test confirms whether one particular message is comprehensible to an individual. Besides, to repeat point 7 (Control Variables**)** which elaborately explained that individual differences in language proficiency may provide an important moderator when examining cultural sensitivity of the advertiser, despite which language was used in the context medium. For example, a bilingual speaker who is more proficient in English may perceive the advertiser that switches from Bangla to English in advertising as more culturally sensitive to the audience, regardless of the language of the target audience of the medium. This is because the switch to Bangla (the more highly understood language in this case) from English is thought to lead to the perception of decreased social distance on the part of the advertiser. Narrowing this distance should manifest itself in higher evaluations of advertiser cultural sensitivity based on this direction of the code-switch.

Moreover, the questionnaires indicated that 40% of the consumers were attracted to the language of the ads, 60% did not notice the Bangla/English code-switch but it seemed that 70%

of the advertisers were careful about cultural sensitivity. To my point of view, further study should be done in a new dimension to find a clearer answer in this regard.

9. Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this research is that it was only conducted among individuals living in the urban area. Results could not be generalized to all the consumers even in the rural area. The advertiser cultural sensitivity could have been proved more accurately and prominently.

Another limitation of the study was that it used only one form of code-switching, that of the single noun and few words. Although the noun is the most commonly switched single element in code-switching (Poplack, 1981), there are many more types of code-switching that should be investigated. Different types of code-switching may impact our constructs under investigation quite differently.

10. Conclusion

In conclusion, the application of code-switching in advertising represents a wonderful field for future research. Marketing academics currently understand very little about the practice and how to use it to their advantage in terms of advertising. The purpose of this research was to better understand the effects of code-switching in advertising. Specifically, the study investigated the interplay of advertising code-switching and the language context of the medium in terms of 1) message recall, 2) perceptions of advertiser cultural sensitivity. The questionnaires were set to find out the consumers' reactions to the code-switched jingles and their overall likes and dislikes about the ads. The advertiser cultural sensitivity is also measured in the positive. In fact, The effects of code-switching in culture is viewed with interest as theses code-switched ads were able to draw consumers'(especially age between 20-30) attention to the jingles even more and able to act as a stimuli for the consumers to decide on purchasing a product.

Hopefully these code-switched ads would go a long way to motivate consumers even more in learning English as a second language in Bangladesh. Eventually, this study not only brought better understanding of these issues, but also suggested potentially valuable lines of future research for programs focused on bilingual (Bangla/English) consumers, a key segment for 21st century consumer researchers. Increased knowledge of language code-switching as it relates to advertising decisions and marketing effectiveness continues to await further investigation.

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Appendix A

INSTRUCTIONS TO PARTICIPANTS

Dear Participant,

Thank you for your participation in this survey! On the following pages you will find two magazine articles and a piece of lyrics of an advertisement. You will have 50 minutes to read these materials and take few tests later. When you finish reading these materials, please do not turn the page until you are instructed to do so.

Hope your kind cooperation would take me to my goal.
Thanks again
Rezina Nazneen Rimi

Appendix B

1. **Clemon(Akij Food & Beverage Ltd.):** I'd like to be under the sea

Jabo shanti aar sukher-i deshe

Shital mone shatejo-tai

Clemon haate bheshe bheshe

I'd have lots of fun, *gaibo je gaan ,*

Jibon take bhalobeshe………

I'd like to be under the sea

Jabo shanti aar sukher-i deshe

"Clemon live fresh"

I'd like to be under the sea…..

Appendix C

The Eyes Say It All

Tulip Chowdhury

The eyes say it all. The eyes are said to be mirrors of the soul. I wonder why God has made the eyes like a reflection of one's deepest thoughts. Was it because God wanted to give the soul an external image? Indeed how the eyes often give a person away! And there are times when the eyes can hide the feelings too.

A newborn baby has no language to voice the feelings. Yet the mother, just by looking at the baby's eyes can understand the baby's feelings. If the baby is hungry, cold, scared or hurt - the eyes give out the discomforts. As a child grows up the mother still looks deep into the eyes to get to the bottom of things.

First impressions are said to be the most important. Meeting a new friend or going for a job interview? Surely you will look into the eyes of the new acquaintances. The boss may select you for the job because he or she had seen that invisible link of trust in your eyes. When you meet a stranger the eyes seem to spark off messages. After a good look into the eyes you decide whether you want to get to know the person or not. And indeed there are cases where one can mask the feelings of a cunning person. One might run into a trap because the eyes refuse to give away the real feelings. A deceiver at heart may have cornflower blue eyes that seem to reach your heart. While you stare at the eyes and believe every word that comes out there may be murderous plans behind those lovely eyes.

Public speaking is often a complex task for many. There are some who go up to speak to the audience with shaky legs. The audience is like a vast, rough sea that one has to cross. At such times experts suggest that the speaker should make eye contact with those who are sitting in the front rows. In the classroom scenario teachers get better control of their classes when they go to eye contacts with their students. The most restless student is known to sit still under the eyes of the teacher.

Love at first sight? How often the eyes hold the mystery of it all! It is said that when the spell occurs the partners look into each other's eyes and get lost into the cupid's world. The longer they look the more they fall in love. Professor Eckhard found that enlarged pupils signal intense arousal. Love at first sight holds firm belief in the world of romantic love. And the eyes are said to do the first trick. When partners look into each other's eyes they see far beyond the eyes, they see into the soul.

Using figurative language? The eye of the hurricane can be disastrous to be in. The bull's eye in the other hand is something everyone wants to shoot the arrow on. We have our own eyes to choose the world with. And then, in this world we may not see eye to eye with others. On the other hand if you are naïve you may see the world through someone else's eye. If you have an eye for the smart things you are considered to be a worldly person. And there are times when a politician can go up and down in the public eye.

Eyes; black, blue, brown or green, all eyes hold so much weight behind them. Take care, don't be fooled by innocent looking eyes. They may be ready to pierce your heart. And on the other hand don't miss the cupid's message written in your love's eyes! The eyes say it all.

In some Gulf States staring at a man is considered flirtations. Tourists are advised to avoid too much eye contact. Dark glasses can reduce embarrassment, but be sure to take them off when you speak to people directly. In many cultures hiding the eyes can be seen as rude. And so the eyes, as parts of our bodies can do a lot for us beside their function; to help us see. In fact they help us to see beyond what is there in the vision. Take good care of your eyes. After all the eyes have it all.

Appendix D

UNAIDED RECALL TEST OF EMBEDDED ANDMATRIX MESSAGE ELEMENTS

Please write down as many of the claims in the **Clemon Drink (Akij Food & Beverage Ltd.)** advertisement that you can recall**.** Write your answers in both in English & Bangla.

1) ____
2) ____
3) ____
4) ____
5) ____

6) ____

7) ____

8) ____

9) ____

10) ____

Appendix E

AIDED RECALL TEST OF EMBEDDED ELEMENTS (English-to-Bangla CODESWITCHED AD)

Please fill in the blank with the missing text from the **Clemon Drink (Akij Food & Beverage Ltd.)** advertisement. You may write your answers only in Bangla.

1.I'd like to be under the sea

2. ____

3. ____

4. ____

5. I'd have lots the fun, ______________________________

6. ____

7. I'd like to be under the sea

8. ____

9. "Clemon live fresh"

10. I'd like to be under the sea…..

Appendix F

AIDED RECALL TEST OF EMBEDDED ELEMENTS (Bangla-to-English CODESWITCHED AD)

Please fill in the blank with the missing text from the **Clemon Drink (Akij Food & Beverage Ltd.)** advertisement. Please write your answers only in English.

1. ____

2. Jabo shanti aar sukher-i deshe

3. Shital mone shatejo-tai

4. Clemon haate bheshe bheshe

5.________________________, gaibo je gaan

6. Jibon take bhalobeshe………

7. ____

8. Jabo shanti aar sukher-i deshe

9. "_____________________________________"

10. ______________________________________

Appendix G

Reading Ability Test

Please take the following proficiency test to assess your English Language abilities. Use the context to help you determine the meaning of each highlighted word**.**

1. In the early 1600s, a dangerous trip across the Atlantic Ocean was a **daunting** idea. The Europeans, who would someday be known as the Pilgrims, must have been a very determined and brave group of settlers.

A *daunting* task is one that would________someone.

a. tickle

b. amuse

c. lose or misplace

d. frighten or intimidate

2. The **original** Pilgrims called themselves the “Saints” and referred to others who joined with them for the voyage as the “Strangers.”

In this context, “original” means________.

a. one of a kind

b. first

c. humorous

c. musical

3. The Saints and Strangers argued about how they would live in the New World. After much discussion, they came together and signed the Mayflower **Compact**.

The *Compact* was________.

a. a container for makeup

b. a small item

c. a machine used for mashing corn

d. an agreement

4. When the Pilgrims landed in what is now Massachusetts, they were fearful that the Native Americans would attack them. However, the people that they **encountered**, the Wampanoag Indians, were a peaceful and generous tribe.

To *encounter*, is to________.

a. meet

b. note how many

c. fight

d. exchange text messages

5. As the summer sun sent scattered rays through the maple and oak leaves overhead, the young deer stood **frozen**, making it almost impossible for the hikers to see her.

"frozen" means________.

a. very cold

b. visible

c. not moving

d. not melted

6.Christmas is a time when Dad **reverts** to his childhood. I really think he looks forward to Santa's visit more than any other member of the family. Mom says that he'll always be a child during this season.

What does "reverts" mean in the above passage?

a. stands up straight

b. peeks at presents

c. drinks too much egg nog

d. goes back to being what he was

7. Fortunately, the explosion **diverted** the asteroid from a course that would have sent it hurdling into our planet.

To *divert* is to________.

a. change the direction of

b. look for really high waves

c. jump into a dry river

d. look through a telescope

8. A wonderful 98 year old woman is working day and night to knit scarves to send as gifts for the troops. What a **selfless** person she is!

A *selfless* woman________.

a. is selfish

b. has no name

c. likes to wear scarves

d. cares more about others than herself

9. Speaking rudely to the judges was **rash** behavior. You really hurt your chances of winning!

In the above context, what does “rash” mean?

a. an itchy skin condition

b. funny

c. trying to hide or disguise a piece of cheese

d. with little thought or consideration

10. Wherever he goes, the **esteemed** Dr. Sanchez is applauded for his life saving research.

What does “esteemed” mean?

a. held over boiling water

b. very old

c. unable to chew gum

d. greatly admired

Appendix H

Questionnaire for the local consumers

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neutral

Disagree

Strongly disagree

I always buy Bangladeshi products	1	2	3	4	5
I always watch tv commercials to choose a product	1	2	3	4	5
I always check billboards to choose a product	1	2	3	4	5
I am attracted to advertisements	1	2	3	4	5
I like the theme of the advertisements	1	2	3	4	5
I like the jingles in the ads	1	2	3	4	5
I like the lyrics of the jingles & can sing later	1	2	3	4	5
Ads with both Bangla &English words are more interesting	1	2	3	4	5
The words in the ads always convince me	1	2	3	4	5
I buy product depending on how interesting the ad is	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix I

Questionnaire for the service providers

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neutral

Disagree

Strongly disagree

1.My company always produces both Bangla to English/English to Bangla Ads.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bangla/English languages in a single ad act as a stimuli for the consumers to decide on purchasing a product.	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is usual to encourage local models in any ads	1	2	3	4	5
4. Using two languages in an ad may enhance the service quality of the related firms.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think codeswitching between Bangla and English in ads could reach both bilingual and monolingual consumers in Bangladesh	1	2	3	4	5

THE ASIAN ESP JOURNAL

Organizational and Interpersonal Aspects of Scientific Conference Presentations: A Comparison of US and Japanese Presenters

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Biodata

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Abstract

With English now widely used as an international language in many professional and academic contexts, the ability to deliver an effective English oral presentation is becoming increasingly important for non-native English speakers (NNS) to advance in their respective fields. This is especially true for scientists and other researchers who are required to present their research at international events such as conferences. However, for many NNS, communicating specialized content in another language in real-time in front of a live audience in is a challenging proposition. Despite this, relatively few studies have investigated the specific problems these speakers are experiencing presenting in such contexts. This study compares native speaker (NS) and Japanese NNS speaker scientific conference presentations performed at an international bioscience event. It will be shown that NNS not only assign significantly less language to organizing content, they also assign less language to engage and identify with the audience. The findings not only have

implications for NNS conference presenters but also educators working in wider oral presentation contexts.

Keywords: conference presentations, spoken discourse, systemic functional grammar

1. Background

In the scientific community, in addition to reading and writing papers, participation in oral discourse at international conferences and other such events is an important part of building reputations and careers (Wallwork, 2016; Rowley-Jolivet, 2002). With these events now held almost exclusively in English, NNS scientists are faced with the additional challenge of presenting and interacting at these events in another language. This is particularly true for NNS speakers from Asian countries who often also come from different cultural backgrounds. While a number of studies have investigated issues for NNS in the written scientific paper genre (Schleppegrell, 2002), conference-type scientific presentations (CP) differ from their written counterparts in both participant motives and mode of communication, and therefore present different challenges and considerations.

One important difference is that CP are real-time events occurring in front of live audiences. Unlike the written papers, the audience does not have the same degree of control over the content. In other words, if the meaning becomes unclear it cannot be reread or reviewed by the receiver of the information. Consequently, there is a greater necessity for the CP content to be communicated in an organized and intelligible manner so it can be effectively processed by the audience in real-time (Wallwork, 2016).

The face-to-face nature of the CP also places more responsibility on the presenter to continuously engage and identify with the audience. Even though oral presentations are generally monologues, greater consideration needs to be given to interpersonal features such as eye contact and rhetorical questions to hold the attention of the audience. Such features also provide the opportunity for the presenter to establish rapport with other scientists, which can lead to further professional networking and collaborative projects. These interpersonal features are in sharp contrast to the written scientific paper genre, which is impersonal and detached, focusing more on the economical and objective communication of information (Bloor & Bloor, 2013).

1.1 Previous Studies

Although not limited to CP, a number of studies have investigated the general characteristics of spoken language by making comparisons with its written counterpart. Based on corpus studies, Eggins (2004) summarized spoken discourse as being comparatively more informal, spontaneous, and interactive compared to written language. Adding that, while grammatical complexity was generally higher in spoken language, the lexical density (the proportion of non-grammatical words to total words) in spoken discourse, was generally lower. In other words, in the spoken genre, more meaning is being conveyed through grammatical structures and relationships between clauses while in the written genre more meaning was being conveyed more through vocabulary.

Compared to academic writing, to date few studies have focused exclusively on CP genre. However, a small number of studies have investigated NS CP characteristics by comparison with their equivalent NS written scientific paper counterparts from the same conference proceedings. In one such study by Webber (2005), written papers were found to a have a lower degree of interpersonal language compared to their CP counterparts. One-way writers achieved this was by depersonalizing the text by removing references to people through nominalization and agentless passivization of verbs to remove human subjects. In contrast, there was a higher degree of interpersonal language in the spoken CP with more occurrences of personalized language such as human subjects acting on verbs in their active forms and use of personal deixis (personal pronouns and adjectives such as *I*, *we you, your*) to refer directly to the presenter or the audience. The CP also contained more occurrences of vague or colloquial language including imprecise quantifiers such as *pretty much* or *a little*. In another study comparing NS CP to their written conference proceedings (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2003), CP were found to have a higher degree of organizational language functioning to connect the different parts of the content and guide the audience through the narrative. This included more occurrences of discourse markers to signal changes in the discourse (e.g. *now* and *OK*) and other cohesive elements (egg. *so* and *but*) to connect between clauses and wider sections of the presentation. These studies were further supported by another study by the same authors (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2005b) comparing the rhetorical structure of introductions which also found significantly more resources in CP being devoted to reducing the information processing load and building rapport with the audience.

Only a few studies to date have compared NS to NNS presentations, particularly in the CP genre. In one such study, Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet (2005a) compared how effectively NS and NNS (of varying nationalities) could adapt their syntactic behavior between doing a CP and writing its equivalent conference proceedings paper. They showed that while the NS group was able to effectively adapt their syntactical structures to the different genres, the NS group were unable to do so. They found the NNS CP showed more occurrences of depersonalizing elements such as nominalization and agentless passivization, which had been found in previous studies to be more characteristic of the written scientific genre. In another study comparing US and British NS with Bulgarian NNS presenters (Vassileva, 2002), the NNS were found to be using the personal pronouns *I*, *we* and *you* only half as much as their NS counterparts. Another study involved compared a NS and a Japanese NNS presenting in the medical field (Suehiro, Backes Kamimura, & Hattori, 2010). Although it was a case study comparing only two presenters, it was found the NNS was using overly complex language and vocabulary, similar to that of a written scientific paper. It was also found the NNS had fewer occurrences of other types of interpersonal language such as rhetorical questions.

While the previous studies above have provided insight into the characteristics of the CP genre and some of the broader syntactical and lexical differences related to NNS CP, this study aims to build on this knowledge by conducting a more in-depth clause-level comparison of the linguistic elements. Specifically, the following questions will be addressed: What are the comparative occurrences and types of organizational and interpersonal language used? What are the functional implications of these differences? How can this help NNS to improve their CP or oral presentations in general?

2. Materials and Methods

This study was performed using NS and NNS presenters at a three-day conference-style workshop event held for doctor course students researching bioscience. The purpose of the workshop was for students to experience presenting their own research in but also to interact and build networks with participants from other countries. All the doctor course students were required to present mini-15min CP summarizing their research. The audience for each CP comprised of about 20 other doctor course students and faculty staff. The nationalities of the participants were divided roughly equally between Japanese, US, Chinese and other nationalities.

For this study, 10 students from the US (NS) and 10 Japanese students (NNS) were selected and, with their permission, the CP were video-recorded and later transcribed. Multiple presenters were used from each group in order to reduce any possible linguistic anomalies related to a single presenter.

The NNS used were selected randomly from a larger group of 20 Japanese students and all of them had little to no experience doing CP in English. In contrast, the NS were considered as 'model' presenters for this study with all of them having successfully passed a selection process to visit Japan and participate in the event. Although being a NS does not necessarily equate with being and expert presenter, their selection process involved being screened from a larger group of applicants by their US faculty staff and included oral presentation experience and ability as one criterion. Although the NS were selected as 'models' for this study, they were not presented to the NNS as being 'model' presenters at the event.

Although CP have different linguistic characteristics according their stages (Tojo, Noguchi & Hayashi, 2013), it was decided to transcribe the opening 300 words for each presentation which generally included the introduction and background stages. These stages were selected as they are considered key stages for engaging audience attention and interest and are generally the most challenging for novice presenters (Lucas, 2007; Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2005b). While visuals (e.g. presentation slides) and delivery (egg. pausing, intonation) can also influence the organizational and interpersonal aspects of a CP, this study will focus only on the spoken content by comparing NS and NNS CP transcripts.

2.1 Model for Analysis

In this study, the organizational and interpersonal features were identified based on Halliday's (1994) model of Systemic Functional Grammar. This model was selected because it provided a comprehensive framework of organizational and interpersonal features and allowed their respective linguistic elements to be identified from a functional point of view. Specifically, the model enabled the transcribed texts to be deconstructed into clauses based on individual processes (main verbs), and the clause elements and their orientations to be objectively identified and categorized.

The transcriptions for this study were made in accordance with notations adapted from Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, and Yallop (2000) and Thompson (2013) (see Appendix A). Clause boundaries were then identified and notated according to Halliday's model above. Although only the first 300 words for each presenter were transcribed for this study, when this word-count ended mid-clause, transcriptions continued to clause endings resulting in slightly different total word counts per presenter. With the exception of removing presenter, laboratory/institution names, transcriptions were made verbatim including any false starts and grammatical errors made by the presenters. As the focus of this study was oral presentations, the Q&A sessions were not included in the results. (See Appendix B for sample transcript).

The organizational elements were identified and categorized based on the model's textual and logical meanings outlined by Thompson (2013) and Eggins (2004). Firstly, cohesive elements occurring in the clause theme (starting) position were identified. These were divided into two categories: conjunctions and conjunctive elements functioning to connect neighboring clauses (e.g. *so, and, therefore*), and discourse markers functioning to communicate that the speaker is moving to a new part of the presentation (e.g. *now* and *OK*). While not limited to the clause theme positions, occurrences of subject ellipsis (the absence of clause subjects due to them being understood from previous clauses), and referencing (elements referring to specific elements in other clauses) were also identified. The referencing was further classified into two types: anaphoric which refers to elements in previous clauses, and cataphoric, which refers to elements in future clauses. Anaphoric referencing was further categorized into three groups: 3rd person pronouns (e.g. *it*, *they*), demonstratives (e.g. *this…*, *these…*), and articles (i.e. the use of use of *the* to refer to previous elements). Finally, an 'other' category was added to the anaphoric and cataphoric referencing to account for other referencing elements such as multi-word structures referring to forwards or backwards in the presentation (e.g. *Before I talk about….I'd like to discuss…*).

The interpersonal elements were identified based on the model's interpersonal meaning definitions by Butt et al. (2000). Occurrences where the clause structure (subject-finite-predicate) had been manipulated to form questions (interrogatives) or requests (imperatives) to realize interactivity with the listener were identified. In addition, occurrences of depersonalizing elements (nominalization and passivization) and personalized language (personal deixis and colloquial expressions) were also identified. Although only a single transcriber was used to identify the elements and clause boundaries outlined above, in the few cases where the distinctions were unclear a second experienced rater was consulted.

The elements above were tallied for all categories then mean values determined to compare the NS sand NNS groups. To give an indication of the variance of the data between different presenters within the same group, standard deviation values were determined for the overall totals.

3. Results

Prior to comparing the organizational and interpersonal aspects, in order to provide a general overview of the NS and NNS transcripts, word/clause counts, and lexical densities were determined. Lexical density was calculated to show the mean percentage of the content words to total words for each group (see Table 1). The results showed total words, clauses, and mean clause length values were similar for both NS and NNS. However, for lexical density, the mean NNS value was notably higher at 55.2% compared to NS at 41.3% showing the NNS text to have a consistently higher vocabulary-load than the NS text.

Table 1: Overview of Texts

	NS	NNS
Total words	2757	2627
Total clauses	254	262
Total content words	1137	1447
Mean lexical density	41.3 (4.1)	55.2 (3.7)
Mean words per clause	11.5 (2.4)	10.1 (1.3)

(standard deviation)

3.1 Organizational Aspect

The organizational elements were then identified and categorized according to the definitions outlined in Section 2.1. The total number of elements for each of the NS and NNS speaker groups were tallied and then divided by the number of speakers to give a mean value for each group (see Table 2). In order to compare across all organizational categories, the total mean values for each group were also determined (see Table 2).

Table 2: Organizational Elements (Presenter Mean Values)

	NS	NNS
A. Clause theme & ellipsis		
Conjunctive elements (& conjunctions)	14.8	10.7
Discourse markers	0.7	0.7
Subject ellipsis	2.3	1.4
Total A	17.8	12.8
B. Anaphoric referencing		
3rd person pronouns	4.8	2
Demonstratives	4.1	3
Article	2.3	1.9
Other	0.6	0.6
Total B	11.8	7.5
C. Cataphoric referencing	1	0.5
Other	0.6	0.1
TOTAL C	1.6	0.6
Total A+B+C	31.2 (12.1)	20.9 (6.5)

(standard deviation)

Looking at the individual categories, almost all NS values were higher than NNS. Regarding the total (A+B+C) values, while the standard deviation indicates variation between speakers, NS showed over 30% more elements than NNS with an overall mean value of 31.0 compared to 20.9 for NNS. Looking at individual categories, the higher NS values were most notable with anaphoric referencing where NS had 11.5 compared to 7.3 for NNS. This was most notable in 3rd person pronouns with NS having 4.8, over double the value for NNS.

Interestingly, further investigation of the texts also revealed there were many cases where NNS could have used 3rd person pronoun referencing but instead chose to repeat the referent from the previous clause, for example:

NNS 161. */ neurons are the main component cells of the brain #/*

NNS 162. */Neurons typically have axon and multiple dendrite/*

This lack of NNS referencing consequently often resulted in specialized multi-word terminology being unnecessarily repeated over consecutive clauses as in the following example:

NNS 171. */ that Shootin1A and Shootin1B are involved # in neurite development and especially in axon formation/*

NNS 172. */however the roles of Shootin1A and Shootin1B in-vivo is uncertain # /*

Looking at clause themes and ellipsis, NS also had more occurrences with 17.8 compared to 12.8 for NNS. Although discourse markers had equal values, the difference was notable with conjunctive elements with NS having 14.8 and NS 10.7. Further investigation of the text showed, NS to have more occurrences of simple conjunctions such as *so* and *and*, whereas NNS showed more occurrences of conjunctive elements such as *therefore* and *however*, as in the following examples.

NS conjunctive elements

NS 167. */And so # this gradient makes this interface very strong #/*

NS 199. */So um my project focuses on… /*

NNS conjunctive elements

NNS 226. */However # as I just mentioned/*

NNS 257. */Therefore# a goal of my study# is to understand/*

The more occurrences of NS conjunctive elements also indicate more of the NS causes were part of longer, connected clause-complexes. In contrast, more of the NNS clauses were non-connected to surrounding clauses, for example:

NS connected clauses

NS 95. *//Number two# I am not as mechanistic as the rest of you [seem to be] /*

NS 96. */so don't (you) expect to see a lot of # pathways or molecular or cellular based things/*

NS 97. */ because I am more of an ecologist/*

NS 98. */as you will see//*

NNS non-connected clauses

NNS 76. */ VND genes are conserved in among land plants /*

NNS 77. */ According to the ?genetic analysis # VND genes belong to… /*

In terms of 'other' referencing, although the overall occurrences were fewer, NS also had more occurrences compared to NNS with 1.0 and 0.7 respectively. This difference was mostly due to more NS cataphoric elements referring to future clauses in the content (see Table 3).

Table 3: Examples of NS 'other' Referencing

Anaphoric	16. */like I said/* 21. */…as I mentioned/*
Cataphoric	12. */I'll have some pictures later to refer to…/* 14. */…that I'll be referring to later…/* 100. */as you will see/* 125. */I'll get to this a little bit more in a second#/* 213-214. */and I'll tell you / what I mean by tha in a second/*

3.1.1 Discussion of Organizational Aspect

NS had more occurrences of organizational elements in all categories compared showing more linguistic resources being assigned to the arranging the CP narrative in a logical and connected manner. Although there was variation between individual presenters, combining the categories, the

NS had about 30% more organizational elements than NNS. Most of the NS elements functioned to remind the audience of previously mentioned content but NS also showed more occurrences of elements functioning to preview future content.

The lack of NNS organizational elements was most noticeable with anaphoric referencing which functions to refer to elements previously mentioned in the text. These had almost 50% fewer occurrences compared to NS. This was especially noticeable with 3rd person pronoun such as *It is…* or *They are…* to refer backwards to previously mentioned elements. Not only is this likely resulting in less cohesion to the content, it is also resulting in the unnecessary repetition of previously mentioned elements. In scientific communication, vocabulary is often represented by complex multi-word terminology and their repetition in such a context is likely further contributing to the higher lexical density found in the NNS text.

The lower NS lexical density combined with more occurrences of conjunctive elements also suggest NS are conveying comparatively more meaning through the relationships between clauses. As outlined earlier, previous studies have found such clause complexing to be generally more common in extended speech than writing (Eggins, 2004) as it allows meaning to be dispersed over longer stretches of language and reduce the processing-load on the audience.

In contrast, the fewer conjunctive elements and higher lexical density of the NNS text suggests attempts are being made to convey more meaning through vocabulary at the isolated clause level, which is a more of a characteristic of a written scientific paper than a CP. While this may result in more efficient transfer of information, the audience will likely have greater difficulty processing the content in a real-time presentation.

3.2 **Interpersonal Aspect**

The interpersonal elements were then identified and categorized according to the definitions outlined in Section 2.1 (see Table 4).

Table 4: Interpersonal Elements (Presenter Mean Values)

Clause structures	NS	NNS
Interrogative	0.2	0.3
Imperative	0.8	0.5
Personalized language		
Personal deixis	11.5	8.5
Other	0.9	0.1
TOTAL	13.4 (2.5)	9.4 (2.4)

(standard deviation)

Although not indicated in the table, around 95% of both NS and NNS clauses were in the unmarked declarative structure (subject-finite-predicate). As shown in table 4, both NS and NNS changed this clause structure to form interrogatives and imperatives a roughly equal number of times. The interrogatives identified all realized rhetorical questions while the imperatives realized requests to the audience, for example:

NNS 74. */By the way # do the VND genes exist in only vascular plants? #/*

NS 31. */(Could you) please just tell me to slow down #/*

The overall occurrences of personal deixis for NS were notably higher with 11.5 compared to 8.5 for NNS. Closer investigation showed most of the NS deixis were realized by the personal pronouns and possessive adjectives to refer to the presenter or audience, for example:

NS 59. */So today <u>we</u> are going to talk to <u>you</u> a little bit about…/*

NS 195. */…<u>I'm</u> going to be talking about <u>my</u> project…/*

NS also had more occurrences of other personalized language. These occurrences were mostly made of up 'vague' language such as imprecise quantifiers or colloquial expressions (Table 5).

Table 5: Examples of Other NS Personalized Language

Type	Example
Imprecise quantifiers	128. */…a bit more on…/* 135. */…a little bit more…/* 193. */…something like this#/*
Colloquial expressions	200. */…you guys…/* 237. */it's OK/* 122. */don't worry/* 91. & 92. */…please flag me /if I'm taking to fast#/*

While difficult to quantify and not included in table 5 above, NS even showed some occurrences of anecdotal humor in the text, for example:

NS 51. */ It's perfect timing /*

NS 52. */ because I got the break /*

NS 53. */ and I got the little red strawberry candy /*

Having compared elements contributing to the interpersonal aspect, elements functioning to reduce the interpersonal aspect were also investigated by identifying occurrences of nominalization and agentless passivization (see Table 6).

Table 6: Summary Elements Reducing Interpersonal Aspect

	NS	NNS
Agentless passivization	1.1 (1.8)	3.3 (3.0)
Nominalization	3.3 (3.3)	5.8 (2.4)
TOTAL	4.4 (3.1)	9.1 (2.9)

(standard deviation)

Looking at the results, NNS showed about 50% more elements than NNS with an overall mean value of 9.1 compared to 4.4 for NS. With nominalization, NNS showed a higher value with 5.8 compared to 3.3 for NS. Further investigation also showed occurrences of multiple nominalization within the same clause with NNS, for example:

NNS 94. */Activation or inactivation of these signal transduction pathways # can cause…/*

The value for agentless passivization was also higher in NNS with 3.3 compared to 1.1 in NS (see Table 6). Further investigation of these in the NNS texts showed most of these occurrences to be reporting research results, for example:

NNS 69. */So far it has been clarified that/*

NNS 223. */In our lab it has been reported that/*

3.2.1 Discussion of Interpersonal Aspect

While occurrences of rhetorical questions and audience requests were similar for both NS and NNS presentations, NS used more personalized elements in all other categories compared. In particular, NS used more personal deixis such as the pronouns *I* and *you* to refer directly to the presenter and audience. Also, to a lesser extent, NS used more vague and colloquial language to create a more familiar or conversational tone with the audience. The use of vague language such as *a little bit more* or *something like this* is also likely functioning to hedge the NS content and create a less confrontational position. Previous studies have also found such interpersonal language to be characteristic of NS CP (Webber, 2005) as it functions to not only keep the audience engaged with the content but also to build rapport and identify with other conference participants. In this study, there were even cases where NS used humor to further reduce the perceived distance between the presenter and audience.

In contrast, elements of the NNS presentations were combining to decrease the interpersonal aspect of the content. Higher occurrences of nominalization and agentless passivization were removing human elements from clauses and likely creating a more depersonalized or detached tone for the audience. This was particularly true when reporting research results such as *In our lab it was reported that…* as opposed to using the active form *Our lab reported that…*. As mentioned in the background section, the use of such elements to depersonalize text has been shown to be more characteristic of written scientific text (Bloor & Bloor, 2013) which generally requires a more detached and objective tone. However, with the face-to-face nature of the CP requiring presenter to engage and identify with the audience, such depersonalization is likely to create a sense of distance and detachment.

4. Implications for NNS & Educators

The findings from this study suggest that a clearer awareness of the differences between the spoken and written genres of English is required by NNS. In the scientific or research field this could be achieved by comparing the characteristics of authentic NS CP transcripts with their written conference proceedings counterparts as done in the studies mentioned earlier (Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2001; Webber, 2005). Comparing selected texts, awareness-building tasks could be used that highlighted the differences in organizational and interpersonal features. Specifically, attention could be drawn to how the CP is using more organizational elements, active verb forms, and clause complexing to convey meaning, and how the CP is using more personalized language such as deixis to engage with the audience.

This study also suggests that NNS need to have more interpersonal elements to keep the audience engaged with their CP. A stronger sense of audience-awareness could be achieved by having NNS observe and peer-evaluate each other's CP rehearsals as part of the preparation process. This could also be achieved by with a single NNS by having them evaluate a video-recording of their rehearsal. Evaluation criteria could be used that incorporated interpersonal elements such as use of personalized language or rhetorical questions. This criterion could also easily be extended to para-linguistic features such as eye contact with the audience and body language.

One notable result from this study was the comparative lack of referencing by the NNS. Not only was this reducing the organizational aspect but in the case of anaphoric referencing it was also resulting in vocabulary being unnecessarily repeated. This issue could be addressed with a closer clause-level analysis of selected parts of a NS transcript. Activities could be introduced where NNS are required to match reference elements with their referents in the text, or gap-fill activities where the NNS are required to select or write in missing reference elements.

While it can be challenging to find authentic genre-specific CP transcripts, the *MICASE (Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English)* which is made of up a range of authentic academic talks including CP from different fields can be a useful source. While transcripts from fields related to the NNS context might be ideal, transcripts from other fields can also contain similar interpersonal and organizational aspects and be useful ‘models’. There are now a range of open-source transcripts and related materials available online from resources such as the *John Swales Conference corpus (JSCC)* and websites such *Nature Education Scitabe*.

4. Conclusion

Being required to present their research in English at international conferences, NNS are challenged with not only conveying specialized content, but also communicating it in real-time to in front of live audiences. Previous studies have found organizational and interpersonal language to be key in addressing these issues in the CP genre. While this study was limited in the number and type of participants and did not consider the visual or delivery modes of presenting, a number of conclusions can be made on the organizational and interpersonal differences between the NS and NNS presentations.

The NNS were allocating notably fewer linguistic resources to organization in almost all categories compared including conjunctive elements, referencing, and ellipsis. In addition to reducing cohesiveness, the lack of anaphoric referencing was also resulting in unnecessary repetition of specialized terminology. The comparative lack of connection between clauses combined with higher a lexical density suggests more emphasis is being placed on conveying meaning through vocabulary at the isolated clause level, which is more of a characteristic of a written scientific paper than a CP. These factors combined are likely increasing the processing-load on the audience and reducing the overall intelligibility of the content.

Considering the interpersonal aspects of the presentations, NNS had notably fewer occurrences of personalized language such as personal deixis. NNS content was further depersonalized with more occurrences of nominalization and agentless passivization. Taken together, these elements are likely creating an impersonal and distant tone for the audience. Similar to a written scientific paper, the NNS text appeared to be more concerned with the detached transfer of information rather than addressing a real-time live audience.

This study suggests that, rather than NNS CP preparation being limited to areas such as economically conveying content or creating visuals, educators also give more consideration to the unique organizational and interpersonal aspects of the CP. This includes helping build NNS awareness of the key differences between the written scientific paper and CP genres. In addition to this, using CP rehearsals to build a stronger sense of audience-awareness can help NNS to produce more engaging and interactive content.

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Appendix A: Transcription and Clause Notations

Table 1: Transcription Notations

The transcription notations below were used in this study and were adapted from Butt et al. (2000) and Thompson (2013).

Symbol	Meaning
?	Unintelligible word or morpheme
121.	Clause number
/	Clause boundary
//	Clause complex boundary
[ ]	Embedded clause
< >	Interrupting clause
( )	Subject ellipsis
{ }	Transcription note
#	Pause over 1sec (not used in this study)

Transcribed clauses for each presenter were then arranged into larger NS and NNS groups and assigned chronological numerical values within each group for ease of reference (see Table 2).

Table 2: Clause Notations

NS	203.	*/and this consists of # elf4e the cap-binding protein #/*
(Speaker group)	(Clause number)	(Transcribed clause)

Appendix B: Example of Transcript and Transcription Notations

1. Transcription notations

A. Experiential meaning

Main process groups {underlined}

nominalisation of processes & agentless passivisation {bold italics}

Process types {See column 2} M=material, ME=mental, B=behavioral, RI=relative identifying, RA=realative attributive, V=verbal, E=extistential

B. Textual meaning

Theme textual elements {bold}

Anaphoric referencing {red font}

Cataphoric referencing {blue font}

C. Logical meaning

Clause complexes {see column 1} Consecutive causes in same complex numbered (eg. C1, C2)

Taxis: P=parataxis, H=hypotaxis

Logico-semantic projection: L=locution, I=idea

Logico-semantic expansion: E=elaboration, X=extension, N=enhancement

2. Transcripts

		NS (US) presenters U1-10
1	2	
	RI	1. {U1 t=0.40-2.40} OK # Hi #I'm {name} #
	RA	2. I'm from the# I'm from {institution} at ? #
	RI	3. **and** (um)#Thanks for ? # Thanks for having us # um ? fun # U So # The title of my talk #and # (What) [I'll be talking about] is [how (I) think these Fuctokinase-like proteins [that I'm studying] a as regulators of [how ***media transcription*** occurs]
C1	RI	4. **So** [what we're looking at here] is a picture of some chloroplasts# This is in ? [that is infiltrated with agro-bacterium [that can express # a wide pretab FLN protein[which is one of **the** proteins [I'll be talking about]]]]#
PXC2	M	5. **and these** make **these**(un) in the chloroplasts [that we think localize the nucleooides [which is where the DNA and proteins [that regulate ***transcription*** are]]] #
	RI	6. **So** # this is the background on chloroplasts #
	ME&RA	7. most people <8. I'm sure> are familiar with **them** #

	RI	9. **they** are specialized photosynthetic plant organelles # [that are the site of ***numerous (un) processes***]#
C1	RA	8. **they** contain the ? genome [that has been reduced un]
PXC2	M	9. **and** (they) have transferred many of their genes to the nuclear genome#
	M	10. Um **they** are transcribed by both prokaryotic and eukaryotic-type RNA polymerases #
	RI	11. **So** this is a picture here #
	RA	12. I'll have some pictures **later to refer to** as well #
	RI	13. This is [what a healthy a chloroplast looks like] #
	B	14. You can see ?-stacks in here [that I'll be **referring to later**] #{audience comment} #
	M&V	15. Um **so *transcription in plastids or chloroplasts*** um utilizes <16. **like I said**> two different kinds of RNA polymerase #
	RI	17. There's **the** ?polymerase [that I'll mainly be talking about]#
	RI	18. **that's** the multi-sub-unit prokaryotic type with the alpha-beta-beta-prime structure #
C1	RA	19. _Um, **it's** dependent on signal-factors just like bacterial polymerases
PXC2	M	20. **and** (it) transcribes mainly photo-synthetic genes

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Administration of Justice: Best Practices in Alternative Dispute Resolution through the *Katarungan Pambarangay* in Zamboanga City: A Linguistic Ethnography Approach

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Abstract

The *Katarungang Pambarangay Law* (KPL) was designed to establish every barangay or community a body known as the *"Lupong Tagapamayapa",* headed by the Barangay Chairman and members of the community to settle all kinds of disputes among its members or the adjoining one. With the use of linguistic ethnography approach, this study investigated the types of complaints filed in four selected Barangay and the strategies used in handling the complaints referring to the Local Government Code of 1991 repealing PD No. 1508. Participants were Barangay officials, and the study employed the quantitative and qualitative methods. Simple percentage and frequency were used to determine the most filed type of complaint in the four selected barangays which made the study quantitative in nature and practices were used in settling complaints were gathered through documents, these documents were analyzed and coded which made the study qualitative in nature. A thematic analysis was used. Data were coded for themes for the type of complaints mostly filed in the four (4) barangays. Results showed that cases filed are resolved through alternative dispute resolution (arbitration, conciliation, amicable settlement, and mediation). The study may be used for future policy review, development, and assessment of the Barangay Justice System.

Keywords: Barangay justice system, types of complaints, alternative disputes resolution, quantitative-qualitative method, Zamboanga City, Philippines

Introduction

The conceptualization or drafting of the *Katarungang Pambarangay Law* (KPL) in 1978 through a Presidential Decree 1508 issued by Former President Ferdinand Marcos, establishing an alternative and community-based justice system is one of the earliest manifestations of legal indigenization. Chief Justice Fred Ruiz Castro, who was acknowledged as "Father" of the innovative decree, set the direction along this historical creation of neighborhood paralegal committee as a solution to the problems of the higher courts docket congestion and a salutary throwback to the pre-Spanish times, when all kinds of disputes were heard before by the old men of the district (Pe &Tadiar, 1984).

The decree was designed to establish every barangay or community a body known as the *"Lupong Tagapamayapa",* headed by the Barangay Chairman and members of the community to settle all kinds of disputes among its members or the adjoining one. The conflict brought by either, residents or others, should be settled by means of mediation, conciliation, and arbitration. These means have the same force and effect of a court decision. Further, the proceedings were free of charge and no cost.

In 1977, the judicial statistics showed that there were 358,589 cases filed before the court remains unsolved. In 1978, upon the institutionalization of PD No. 1508, establishing KPL as an alternative and community-based justice system has helped the number of unresolved cases pending before all courts to dispose 85.83% of the total cases filed. According to Tadiar, Director of the UP College of Law, the backlog of undecided cases was the result of the court docket congestion, which primarily relates to the long delays in judicial trials and decisions.

On the other hand, KPL was designed not only to decongest cases filed before the formal courts but also to address inequalities in access to justice, particularly for marginalized population. The Local Government Code of 1991 repealing PD No. 1508 states that,

> *"All disputes between and among residents of the same city or municipality are to be brought to the Barangay first for conciliation and mediation, before they are to be brought before regular courts. Criminal cases where the imposable maximum penalty is*

less than one year of imprisonment or a fine of Php 5,000.00 were included in the mediation."

The KPL as a quasi-judicial body has the judicial character possessing such powers to hold hearings and conduct investigation of dispute claims and alleged infraction of rules and regulations as well as make good decisions as such of the formal courts.

Despite of the institutionalization of the *Katarungang Pambarangay Law* (KPL), there were observed judicial flaws in the administration of the barangay justice plus a quite number of cases filed at the barangay level remain unsolved. In a discussion with some barangay chairmen, they have conversed that KPL, although established and has a binding force as such of the formal courts, however, some noted that the system lacks the concrete procedures of regulations in directing KPL particularly in the administration capacity and building requirements of the *Lupon* members, their level of competencies and practices in handling disputes in mediation, conciliation, and arbitration. The study seeks to provide reliable information on these observations made by some chairmen.

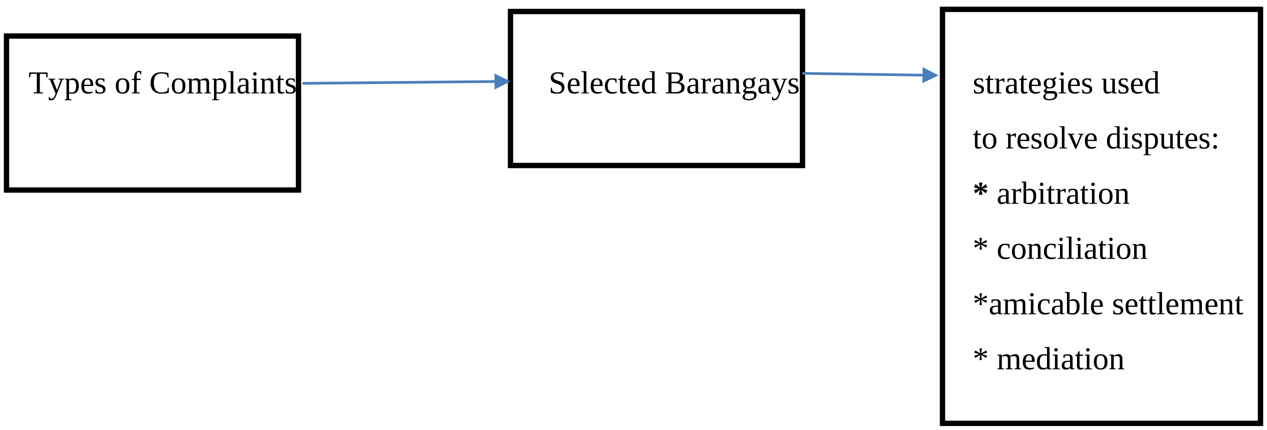
Linguistic ethnography has been significantly influenced by linguistic anthropology and shares many of the same theoretical underpinnings (Copland and Creese 2015). However, whilst linguistic anthropology has prospered in North America, this has not been the case in Europe where the idea of an 'institutionalized linguistic anthropology' (Rampton (2007b, p594) has not materialized (Copland and Creese 2015; Flynn et al. 2010; Jacobs and Slembrouck 2010). Rather, the Linguistic Ethnography Forum has provided an intellectual and supportive home for those interested in the disciplinary frameworks of linguistics and sociolinguistics. Members of the Linguistic Ethnography Forum have produced a position paper introducing the term (Rampton et al. 2004), a special journal edition (Rampton, Maybin & Tusting 2007), entries on linguistic ethnography to encyclopedias and handbooks (Creese 2008; Maybin & Tusting 2010; Snell and Leftsein) and a book to support researchers with doing linguistic ethnographic research (Copland and Creese, 2014). All have emphasized the emergent state of the field.

Further, the study also seeks the level of awareness, knowledge, trust, and satisfaction on the KPL from among the residents of the selected sample barangays in Zamboanga City based on their multilingual utterances to include the following languages: English , Filipino , Chabacano, Bisaya , Tausug and the like.

Objective of the study

The objective of the study was to determine the types of complaints filed in four selected barangays and the strategies as well best practices used in handling the complaints through alternative dispute resolutions which are arbitration, conciliation, amicable settlement, and mediation written and spoken in multilingual contexts. The written complaints are mostly in English and Filipino while the spoken responses are in English , Filipino , Chabacano, Bisaya , and Tausug.

`Conceptual Framework



The framework depicts the relationship of the variable based on the set objective of the study. Wherein the research would initially identity the different types of complaints in the four selected barangay and then also look at the different alternative dispute resolution strategies which are identified as arbitration, conciliation, amicable settlement, and mediation.

Methodology

Research Design

The study employed a quantitative and qualitative mixed-methods design utilizing a linguistic ethnography approach. A percentage and frequency count for the number of cases filed and in determining the most filed type of complaint was used to make the study quantitative. Then, the practices used in settling complaints were gathered through written documents and actual conflict settlements proceedings from the barangays. These documents and oral transactions were analyzed and coded which made the study qualitative in nature.

Research Respondents

The respondents of the study are barangay chairman or more commonly known as Barangay Captain, Barangay Kagawads most commonly known in the Philippines as Barangay Councilor or *Konsehal* in Filipino is an elected government official who is a member of the *Sangguniang Barangay* Barangay Secretary or Clerks, or someone appointed by the Barangay Chairman to carry out duties such as making reports concerning activities and finances of the barangay. *Lupon* member or *Lupon Tagapamayapa,* that which is created through the virtue of Republic Act (RA) No. 7160 or otherwise known as the "Local Government Code of 1991", wherein Article 387 (b) of the law provides that "there shall be in every barangay a lupong tagapamayapa". The *Lupon* is composed of the Barangay Chairman and 10 to 20 members.

Research Locale

The barangays that were included in the study were Barangay Mercedes, Barangay Baliwasan, Barangay Lunzuran and Barangay San Roque.

Four barangays were selected purposively out of 98 barangays in Zamboanga City for security reasons. Two barangays (2) from District 1 and two (2) from District 2.

Sampling Technique

Selection of the barangays that were included in the study was purposively done due to security reasons. Criterion selection for the key informants is designation of key informants in Barangay Hall. Designations were as follows: Barangay Captain, Barangay Clerk/Secretary, *Lupon* Member, and Barangay Kagawad.

Research Instruments

Semi-structured interview schedule was utilized to gather data on strategies of the barangay officials in handling complaints. Questionnaire was also utilized to gather additional information on cases filed in the barangays. The questionnaires were composed of two (2) parts. Part 1 is on the type or types of complaints recorded in the barangay. It is composed of 16 questions. Part 2 is focused on the mediation, arbitration, conciliation, and amicable settlements strategies used by the barangay officials. It is composed of at least 16 questions.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Questionnaires were given to a panel of experts who are adept in Barangay Justice System for the validity of the instrument. A test-retest was done to assess questionnaire. The test-rest was done to some personnel in 2 selected barangays, personnel included were barangay secretary and assistant to the secretary and 5 admin personnel. A retest was done after 2 weeks of the administration of the questionnaire to the respondents of the reliability test.

Data Treatment

The data was tabulated and interpreted using simple percentages to consolidate the number of cases filed in the four (4) barangays. A thematic analysis was used. Data were coded for themes for the type of complaints mostly filed in the four (4) barangays included in the study.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data gathering commenced after proposal review and approval by the Technical Working Group of the Western Mindanao State University. Clearance was also secured before the start of the study.

The researcher communicated with key personalities (barangay officials) to conduct interview and survey on the barangay where they belong. An interview schedule was then arranged with the barangay secretaries or clerks, Barangay Kagawads and *Lupon* members. Documents on cases filed were asked from the barangay captains, the cases included was from year 2011 to year 2016 only.

Results and Discussion

Findings

The types of complaints that are filed in the four barangays and strategies used to resolve dispute are enumerated below.

Types of complaints filed in four selected barangays in Zamboanga City

Table 1

Complaints filed in the selected Barangays

Types of Complaints	Number of Complaints	%

Gossipmongers	609	33.42
Family Problems	578	31.72
Vehicular Accident	421	23.11
Property Issues Breach of Contract	111	6.09
Theft	103	5.65
TOTAL	1,822	100

Gossip as they say is like a chocolate, it is a craving that we secretly yearn all the time. It is a diet that we say we'll learn to start but never really had the initiative and the motivation to actually start doing it. Gossip is a pest in all its essence, it is destructive and malicious. In the barangay, 58.64% of the cases filed were of those gossipmongers who creates a halo of spiteful words and stories about somebody, and it is a grapevine afterwards. A key informant said that they had a hard time stopping the gossipmongers from spreading gossips and most of the time a simple story creates a big problem and there it starts the delinquency in behavior.

According to the key informant, gossips in the barangays comes in many flavors and most of the time it involves listening only, the wrongdoers eagerly listen to the gossips and wildfire of stories starts therein. The stories lead to slander, spreading rumors or lies about a person to cause damage purposely. Furthermore, some of the gossips are in a form of "Dishing", this is basically sharing the juicy info they learned about someone, the intent maybe isn't to cause damage directly but by some people in the barangay continues to spread the gossip and it keeps the gossip alive that causes image to be tainted.

Also, the documents revealed that family problems that lead to brawling among family members (34.56%) are the second caused of problems in the barangays. Family member may cause some friction among some members of the family, and this leads to one member calling out his or her relative to the barangay to settle the disputes. It was not disclosed as to the reasons of the disputes.

Moreover, the data also revealed that 23.11 % of the cases filed in the barangay are about vehicular accidents. According to the key informant interviewed, when the dispute is about vehicular accidents the complainant and respondents are not from the same barangay, mostly the respondents of the dispute or accident is a transient of the barangay or is from another barangay.

Property issues or breach of contracts were also a problem in the barangays selected for the study, it comprises of about 6.09 % of the cases filed in the barangays. Breach of contract or property issues is perhaps one of the most perplexing problems in the Philippine law of contract, concerns and remedies for this dispute or problems is basically the failure of one party to perform in accordance with the contract. And mostly, according to key informants, the dispute resolution is in its difficulty for the respondents to settle among the terms given by the complainants.

Strategies in Dispute Resolution

Table 2

Strategies in dispute resolutions practiced by the Barangays

Forms of dispute resolution		
Payment (purely monetary for incurred damages)	725	39.79%
Forgiveness	695	38.14%
Mutual Agreement Negotiation	402	22.06%
	1,822	100%

The most common form of resolving conflict in the barangays is payment for the damages incurred by the respondent. Oftentimes, the complainant and the respondent will agree on terms and conditions of the payment method and a document that will reiterate the agreement. Failure of the respondent to follow the agreement will further cause the respondent more problems with the barangay and this may cause the complainant to elevate the case to court.

For cases such as gossips and family issues/problems, negotiation is the most basic means and ways of settling these types of differences. It is back-and-forth communication between the parties to the conflict with the goal of trying to find a solution. The respondent may negotiate directly with the other person. An attorney may be hired to oversee that the respondent will incur the court days if he or she will not negotiate properly and that the negotiation does not proceed as planned. This type of negotiation according to the key informants has no specific procedures to follow, the complainant and the respondent can determine their own terms on the negotiation process. Usually this works best if both the complainant and the respondent will agree to remain calm and not talk at the same time and also will try their hardest to listen to each other. As what has been disclosed by key informants, these negotiations will happen anywhere, may it be at the barangay hall or someplace where both parties will agree to meet and talk things out with the presence of the mediator or a lawyer. These negotiations allow both parties (the complainant and the respondent) to participate directly in decisions that affect the both of them.

In most successful negotiations, it is best to consider the needs and interest of the other side, at this note, the complainant as they are the aggrieved party. A negotiated agreement can become a contract and be enforceable. Sometimes, as disclosed by a key informant, in some circumstances a lawyer is asked to be present to help both parties negotiate a fair deal. Negotiation is certainly the first method of choice for problem solving and trying to reach a mutually acceptable agreement. If no agreement is reached, both parties sometimes pursue other options aside that of negotiation.

During interviews of key informants it was also divulged that some of the characteristics of negotiations that they used or is used by both parties are the following: it is always voluntary, it is private and confidential, it takes only at most one day-it is quick and inexpensive as the negotiation requires no money and is settled and or talked out at the confines of the barangay or someplace convenient for both parties, the negotiations are said to be always informal and unstructured and both parties control the process , the complainant and the respondent make their own decisions and reach their own agreements and both parties always makes sure that the negotiated agreements can be enforceable-meaning it can result in a win-win solution.

Furthermore, it was also revealed in the data gathered that it only takes one word for the complainant to stop the complaint. It is the word "SORRY", and this oftentimes accompanied by a sincere promise that they (the respondents) will not anymore do the mischievous act. A key informant related that 99% of the cases filed and settled through this process are settled within an hour up to 5 hours, depending on the aggrieved party's disposition. If the complainant accepts the apology, then the issue will die down. Every now and then, the complainant requires the respondent to write a letter of apology coupled with an assurance that he or she will not anymore bully, harass or bother the complainant ever again.

I. Four Processes in Dispute Resolution among the four selected barangays

a. Mediation

Mediation as defined in the report paper on Alternative Dispute Resolution: Mediation and Conciliation by the LRC (2010) is a voluntary process in which an impartial person (the mediator) helps with communication and promotes reconciliation between the parties which will allow them to reach a mutually acceptable agreement.

It was disclosed by the key informants as supported by the documents gathered that when and if negotiation fails the next best thing that a barangay chairman can do is to provide mediation for both parties (complainant and the respondent). The mediation involves a process that a barangay follows succinctly to avoid further grievances on the complainant. Usually, the mediator a member of the *Lupon*or if unavailable it is the barangay chairman who presides the mediation. The barangay chairman set the rules on mediation and ultimately is the one who manages the process and helps facilitate mediation for the complainant and the respondent. Nevertheless, the mediator does not impose his or her decision nor force an agreement between the complainant and or the respondent. It is through a direct participation of the complainant and the respondent that the proceeding of the mediation occurs, at this tone; it is the responsibility of both parties to come to terms on their mediation settlement and or agreement. The mediator will set the beginning of the mediation by describing the process and the ground rules to be followed. The complainant and the respondent may bring their attorneys and their attorneys will have the opportunity to expound on their views of the dispute.

The key informants related that mediation at the barangay level helps both the complainant and the respondent in better understanding their point of view. In some cases, the barangay chairman or the mediator will have to meet each separately to address emotional and factual issues as well as allow time for receiving legal advice from each other's attorney.

Also related is the venue of mediations which as described by a key informant is usually at the office of the barangay chairman. An agreement is usually reached and writing it to give weight and truthfulness to the agreement that are made.

b. Conciliation

Some of the cases on gossipmongers end up in conciliation. The respondent agreeing to stop the malicious stories perpetuated by her or him, and this always almost are settled by both parties. Upon the decision of the conciliator who acts as a third party in the resolution of the conflict, both parties may reach an amicable resolution to the problem raised by the complainant.

c. Arbitration

Some cases require an arbitrator as related by some key informants, the arbitrator will control the process by listening to both sides of the party and then he or she makes a decision. As related by some key informants, some of the cases in their barangays dies not follow strictly the process of arbitration, some only requires one person to set the evidence or testimony of the incident that occurred, and the respondent will speak out and defend himself against the said evidence and the arbitrator will then proceed with his decision for the complaint made. This is so, because according to a barangay secretary, that it is the complainant and the respondent who are mostly settling their own procedure for the arbitration, they organize and provide the barangay their own established procedure for the arbitration. When asked for the venue of the arbitration, the key informant said that it is almost always in the barangay hall, a room is provided for the arbitration by the barangay. The end result of the arbitration is always binding especially if both parties agreed on are bound by the decision. In cases like that, the right to request or as in the case of the respondent-to plead for the decision made by the arbitrator is always almost limited. In a non-binding arbitration, a decision will become final if the complainant and the respondent agrees to accept the decision of the arbitrator and thus the talk of settlement ensues.

d. Amicable Settlement

In some cases where the dispute is minor and it does not involve bodily harm or damage to property, some of the cases were settled amicably. Both parties will agree on one term, and both are compensated depending on the gravity of the complaint from each other. In the barangays included in the study, an amicable settlement is mostly through a written word that satisfies both parties.

II. Best Practices as Narrated by the Four (4) Barangay Chairmen.

Bringing cases to court for litigations takes time and money, not to mention the stress and problems that it could bring to both parties. The very reason why some people believes that justice works for only the elites and that justice will dance and sway towards those who can afford it. *Katarungan Pambarangay Law* gives these people some hope that justice is achievable and that they can also experience the same as those who can "afford" justice, somewhere where they can pour out their problems and seek guidance to resolve such disputes and problems without paying for it.

Among all the 98 barangays in Zamboanga City, the researcher chose four barangays to be included in the study to look into their programs on dispute resolution; barangay chairmen were interviewed and served as Key Informants. The program of the four barangays predicts peaceful and progressive communities brought about by competent *Lupons* who help community members resolve conflicts amicably and dispense justice in a professional way. Their resolution of peace and maintaining equality when it comes to justice dispensing is through forums among the members of the *Lupons* to talk about how to resolve some matters requiring their attention. They will hold a weekly to monthly talks or discussion; they also provide trainings for the barangay. Also, the barangay (personnel or whoever was assigned for the job) provide a time wherein they can personally do visitations to other barangays to exchange ways and means in enhancing peace in their respective barangays. Also, the key informants revealed that there are also times where they will provide a session, one that is experiential, not only to the barangay personnel but also their constituents.

Moreover, the key informants revealed that benchmarking is very important in one of their agenda in meetings or discussions. This is to compare and contrast methods and techniques in resolution of disputes and successes in their respective barangays. By doing all these things they can assess and develop competence not only to the Lupons but also to the entire barangay personnel, thus making effective programs and peaceful barangays in sustaining not only good values but also in imparting these values to all.

Also, by doing all of what is mentioned above, the barangay can also generate funds in sustaining their plans and programs. The key informants revealed that they were able to generate accreditors, forums and seminars and they were able to develop their competence and skills in mediation.

Conclusion

Resolution of conflict depends upon personal needs and the nature of the particular dispute. Usually, it would take a lawyer to solve such disputes to help diagnose which process is the best approach to best serve the particular situation. Nonetheless, in most cases the best option is a courtroom trial. Oftentimes, it is better to seek out or use one of the alternative dispute resolution processes described in the study, the mediation, arbitration, conciliation, and amicable settlement.

Furthermost of us would choose to have our conflicts resolved fairly without violence or animosity. We would like our differences settled at the least cost and stress to ourselves, families, jobs, or businesses. There are really many more options available for us to solve this problem or disputes. As reiterated in this study there are Negotiation, Mediation and Arbitration - often called ADR which are the most well-known type of resolving conflict. These conflicts may involve family or neighborhood dispute or a lawsuit involving thousands of pesos, these processes should be considered. They are often the more appropriate methods of dispute resolution and can result in a fair, just, reasonable answer for both you and the other party -- a win-win solution. Settlement and compromise have long been favored in the legal system. In fact, most cases that are filed in a court do settle. These dispute resolution procedures are excellent options for people in barangay, most importantly in dealing with controversy, allowing you both parties (complainant and the respondent) to reach resolution earlier and with less expense than traditional litigation. In fact, many courts require parties to consider some form of dispute resolution methods before going to trial, as is the case of why barangay justice system is created in the first place. When communications break down, differences increase, and conflicts arise. Knowing generally what all your options are, when they are used and how they can help you, goes a long way toward getting the dispute resolved and giving both parties (complainant and the respondent) a satisfactory result.

Recommendation

A passionate and engaging barangay captain and mediators is a must. In this study, sometimes negotiation fails due to the absence of communication and sociolinguistic competence skill of the mediator. Ideally, it is encouraged that to work things out amicably between the complainant and the respondent, the mediator should set the tone before the situation escalates. Moreover, mediators must also have the tools to resolve disputes. This should be the guideline or principle for the mediators to detail out the techniques and methods to dispute resolution.

Another recommendation is for the mediators to let constituent witness the proceedings. At this tone, the people of barangay can set the first resolution of dispute at their level before it is escalated to the barangay level thus reducing cases and conflicts that arises when cases of such are already beyond repair. Conflict or problems may arise anytime due to lack of negotiation skills and influencing skills, the barangay can invest in some training in this area. A trainer well verse in negotiation can be asked to train the barangay negotiators and some people of the barangay.

In addition, make the barangay a place where it has the capacity to dissipate tension. The barangay Captain can create relaxation areas, quite places where people of the barangay can sit and have a good day to release stress and be more productive and thus helps reduce tension and frustration as it arises.

Neutrality is the key if a person of the barangay in conflict must be addressed. Complainants may believe that the mediator may sometimes side with the respondent or vice versa, this will undermine the process of mediation causing it to be a failure at the onset.' Mediator must always in all times be neutral.

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Globalization of Bilingual Education in selected State Universities and Colleges in Southern Philippines

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Abstract

Globalization is described as an ongoing complex process by which societies and cultures have become integrated through globe spanning networks of exchange. Globalization creates worldwide networks of capital, technology, and information and information that enhanced competition and greater independence among nations, groups and individuals that made possible of the globalization of education as worldwide phenomenon. This study sought to determine the perception of the State Universities and Colleges (SUC's) management about the emergence of Globalization of Bilingual Education in the tertiary level education in Southern Philippines. A qualitative-descriptive research and discourse analysis approach, and a key informant (KI) interview were utilized in the study. In addition, an in-depth face-to-face interview with the key informants was employed in gathering data. There were 18 key informants among the SUCs that were purposively selected to be part of the study in which there were five (5) informants from Zamboanga City State Polytechnic College (ZCSPC); six (6) from Western Mindanao State University (WMSU); and seven (7) from Zamboanga City Marine Sciences and Technology (ZCMST). It was revealed in the qualifying statements coming from the SUC's officials that their institutions belong to Higher Educational providing quality of education that was growing, moving forward to attain its vision, mission and objectives. With regard to perceptions among SUC's officials about Globalization on Education, it was revealed that informants offered at least two perceptions. These perceptions are grouped into four (4) categories: Global, Curriculum, Technology and Accreditation; and among the categorized explanations, the most frequently mentioned was the global perceptional response. Globalization had greatly impact in our country's educational system that has moral responsibility to develop leaders and educated citizens living in both national and global world that ensures student were equipped with a core body of knowledge and a critical eye to see social and economic development programs from a wider perspective. Moreover, the study provides a body of knowledge that will help administrators and curriculum planners to design technological competencies for the students and faculty. It strengthens the quality of education among SUC's for global competitiveness for modern educational technology upliftment. Furthermore, the study will encourage the parents, the community, the researchers, and the government to play a prominent role in helping improve the quality of education in the SUCs educational system.

Keywords: Globalization of Education, Bilingual Education , State Universities and Colleges, Higher Educational Institutions

Introduction

Globalization is described as an ongoing complex process by which societies and cultures have become integrated through globe spanning networks of exchange. In addition, it is usually being recognized as being driven by a combination of economic, technological, socio-cultural, political and biological factors (Croucher, 2003).

Moreover, Globalization creates a worldwide networks of capital, technology, and information and information that enhanced competition and greater independence among nations, groups and individuals that made possible of the globalization of education as worldwide phenomenon that affected all aspects in the educational hierarchy as education is a freedom freely given to a human in whom one cannot take away or deprive from him/her. Competition has brought enormous changes in the structure of production and distribution in the global economy. Through the expansion of worldwide networks and interconnections, globalization has accelerated the interdependence among nations, groups and individuals (Castells, 1997 & Brunner, 2001).

The impacts of globalization on education in developing countries become more pronounced by widening of the knowledge gap brought about by technological divide. One of the fields which greatly affected by globalization, not just in the Philippines but also in other countries are education. In fact. The traditional way of educating our teachers was already changed to modern ones through existence of various modern technological-educational facilities, and introduction of different modern teaching-learning theories due to the effect of this phenomenon. Moreover, education as an investment in human capital has indeed contributed in explaining increase in labor productivity, as well as national income of many nations (Ohmae, 1990).

Bilingual Education in the Philippines took effect on May 21, 1987, when then-Secretary of Education Lourdes R. Quisumbing signed the policy on bilingual education by DepEd Order 52, series of 1987. The following is a quotation from Article XIV Section 7 of the 1987 Constitution: "For purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages of the Philippines are Filipino, and until otherwise provided by law, English.

Languages utilized in the various regions are alternative means for communication and as well as additional means for teaching and learning in the schools. The following policies were then declared; a. attaining national competency in both Filipino and English languages by using it as media for instructions at all levels while regional languages will be utilized as supplementary languages in lower grades (grades 1 and 2). This is anchored on the aim to carry out Filipino duties in a global context; improving learning through the use of the two identified languages anchored on achieving quality education, proliferating Filipino as a language of education, since the Bilingual Education Policy's aspirations are to establish Filipino as a literary sense of national communal identity, to nurture and express Filipino as a dialect of scholarly discussion, and to maintain English as the country's international language and a quasi-language of science and technology instruction.; the two identified languages, Filipino and English will be utilized as instructional media shall be distributed to certain classes, as specified in Department Order No. 25, s. 1974; where necessary, native languages will be used as a supplementary teaching medium and as the first language for literacy.; to achieve bilingual proficiency, Filipino and English must be utilized as language lessons at all academic stages; the entire educational community must be committed to continual progress in the instruction of both languages, their use as an educational tool, and the regulation.; tertiary institutions will be at the forefront of Filipino modernization. The intellectualization program, on the other hand, must be pursued at the basic education stages.; the Department of Education, Culture, and Sports will work with the National Language Commission, which is responsible for the further improvement of Filipino, according to the 1987 Constitution.; with the assistance of various educational stakeholders public or private groups, the agency will provide the resources for the language legislation to be realized.; and the agency will allocate resources to execute the Policy in areas such as materials development, various seminars, compensatory and advancement programs for non-Tagalogs, the creation of an appropriate and streamlined learners for classroom usage, and the development of effective evaluative mechanisms. With these ideal aspirations of the agency in this country, bilingual education policy had been publicly criticized due to a lack of promising results. Over the years, the Philippines hardly make a spot in the international ranking. We have very poor performance in the areas of Science, Mathematics, and Literacy which are vital in nation-building. This then leads us to question the things we missed more on the things we have already hit in improving bilingual education in the Philippines in various content learning areas.

Bernardo (2007) expressed in his writings that the issue of the language of instruction is always linked in any thorough attempt to analyze the dilemmas of Philippine education. According to him, the issue would always boil down to three aspects: the language to be utilized to achieve proficiency, the language that can guarantee a competency, and the identification of formal education's social and political functions. All of the mentioned aspects are of a great deal. It is therefore interesting to look at data revealing the proficiency level of the Filipino learners from the start of implementation of Bilingual education in the Philippines from 1987 up to the present encompassing all reforms done with regards to bilingual education. Data from UNESCO revealed that in 1988, elementary students' achievement levels were only 55.2 percent, compared to a 75 percent acceptable rating. The NEAT results show a national average rating that are lower than the desired mean score. Language/reading, science, and mathematics received the lowest marks. Moreover, it was also discovered that the children only learned 38 out of 131 competencies/skills, or 29 percent. Poor quality has been linked to a variety of problems, including socioeconomic characteristics, issues linked to the instructor, insufficient resources for learning, and a fully-packed curriculum. If we are to trace back the 1987 provisions, almost all the mentioned factors are within the scope of the policies. However, with a span of one year, we can say for considerations that the education system is still adjusting to the new system in education and that abrupt development cannot be achieved directly. True enough, data revealed that years later, between 1995- 1998, it was observed that there was an increment in the number of pupils who acquired literacy and numeracy skills. However, during the same period, the mastery of basic life skills is still at an unacceptable level ("UNESCO IBE - World data on education, 6th edition - the Philippines," n.d.).

Studies from the World Bank revealed that at the basic level, pupils do not completely learn what they are intended to, all the more in the high school level. Although National Achievement Test (NAT) results have improved over the last two years for elementary level, an increment of 10% was observed, while core subjects remained below 60 percent, and all the more in the secondary level that remains below 50% ("Philippines basic education: Public expenditure review," n.d.). In the succeeding years, 2007-2012, the achievement levels fluctuated but is never reaching the standard percentage. Sadly, up to the present time, Philippine education still struggles to reach that standard of 75% achievement level across important subject areas. Many school-based interventions were presented and implemented but the problem is still there. This time let us try to examine the educational reforms made so far in the Philippine education system with regards to bilingual education.

From the implementation of the Policy in Bilingual education in the Philippines through DepEd Order 52, series of 1987, a series of evaluations were made concerning the attained proficiency level of the students which is the main goal of the said policy. Following a comprehensive examination of the program in 2003, it was suggested that a new model must be implemented, which utilized Filipino in all courses from kindergarten to grade four, except for English, music, and art (Resuma & Ocampo, 2005). Villanueva & Almario, (2008) mentioned in their studies that in some parts of the Philippines, along with English and Filipino, the child's initial dialect at home, is used in the classroom. They mentioned Lubuagan's model as a common strategy. This model is The trilingual teaching technique employed in Lubuagan, a municipality in the province of Kalinga. For 4.5 hours each day, the pupil's first language is used in all courses, including Science and Math, followed by Filipino and English as part of a daily lesson (Dumatog and Dekker, 2003).

Lubuagan's methodology is supported by research, which shows that adopting the mother tongue not only improved student achievement and stakeholders commitment, but also reinforced the culture of the community (Villanueva, & Almario, , 2008). The Policy was challenged in 2009 when the agency issued another policy institutionalizing of mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) (Burton, 2013). In pre-kindergarten through grade three, this directive mandates the use of the pupil's native language to be used in the classes of all subject areas, with Filipino and English taught separately (Philippines Department of Education, 2009). Followed by the issuance of a new directive in 2012 with more detailed rules for MTB-MLE and the reform which was included in the recently recognized curriculum (Philippines Department of Education, 2012). This directive deviated from the original mother tongue strategy by requiring the use of twelve main regional languages as instructional languages (Burton, 2013). She added this adjustment in language regulation is aligned in the global community to encourage children to learn their mother tongue in the primary stage of their learning. The decision by authorities to adopt MTB-MLE was based on the findings of extensive studies made by United States (Ramirez, Yuen, & Ramey, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 1997) and also in our country (Walter & Dekker, 2011) that minority language pupils who studied literacy in their first dialect performed good in class than students who learned literacy in a second or third language (Burton, 2013). Though educational reforms were made to increase the academic performance of the learners, results of academic performance suggest otherwise. In 2019, Philippine education was in great attention as results from both local and international assessments emphasized the very poor performance of Filipino learners. As per Education Secretary Leonor Briones, the achievement of learners in large-scale exams such as the National Achievement Test (NAT) geared toward poor competence levels," particularly in core subjects. These three subjects are very crucial in attaining the main goals of the Philippine education system. Let us now examine each subject area; Science, Mathematics, and English.

In a science education curriculum, learners are expected to be scientifically literate to effectively participate in the decision-making process in the community. In the Science Framework in Basic Education, it was recognized that school science education should promote all learners to acquire scientific and technological literacy and to consider careers in science, technology, and engineering. And this can only happen if there is an effective science educational system and practical science education programs in schools. Effective science educational program of schools involves the most deeply-invested stakeholders in the system: the students and the teachers. Scientific knowledge, skills, and attitudes are highly expected from both as outcomes. The medium of instruction in this subject plays a vital role in molding students' competencies.

Advocates of teaching science in English note three primary grounds for the language's utilization in the country's educational system: it is tried and true, it is cost-effective, and it is universal (Quirino, 1983). According to Avarez (1991), utilizing English as a language of instruction in the educational curriculum has led to development of thousands of highly competent graduates who are currently engaged in a range of businesses across the country in terms of viability and testability. It was also believed that English as a medium of instruction was a valid and trustworthy system for studying science throughout the world. She went on to say that switching to Pilipino will result in a systemic disaster due to economic considerations. The job of translating science publications and research journals into Pilipino, which are mostly written in English, requires intensive research and years of study, not to mention a substantial financial expenditure. Furthermore, particular scientific terminologies must be transcribed into Pilipino. Teachers are also overburdened with planning science classes in a language in which they are not proficient, in addition to translating English references and materials into Pilipino. And if we look at the international level, English is one of the world's "lingua Franca," particularly in science and technology. It's the format for publishing, documenting, and disseminating research findings in scientific publications. The common dialect spoken at global conferences and seminars is English.

Acuna & de Guzman (1987) mentioned three national studies on language and scientific achievement that they conducted with pupils over three years. Results revealed that testing in Pilipino did not generally disadvantage students from non-Tagalog-speaking areas, the students performed better in Pilipino than in English, and the relational concepts were better grasped in Pilipino than in English, and the best single predictor of science accomplishment was quantitative ability, followed by English word knowledge. From these studies, we can say that bilingual education- utilizing both Filipino and English as the medium of instruction is found effective. However, data presented earlier suggest that the effort is not enough as the proficiency level does not even reach the standard baseline of 75%. Going back to what is emphasized in the article of Bernardo (2007), how can we have a citizen that knows how to perform their social roles in society if the first two major factors (what language should be learned and what language should be used to attain proficiency) cannot even aid maximum learning to attain proficiency. Other factors are surely into play.

At the outset of the K to 12, one of the principles mentioned is the use of MTB-MLE in the early grades in adherence to the curriculum. Elementary grades are composed of two key stages from kindergarten to grade 3, and grades 4 to grade 6. On the aspect of Learning Program Development, the child's native language shall be used in the first category. As it has been recognized as a bridge language of learning. In the new education set-up, MTB-MLE regulation expected that learners from the first category will use their native language while the official languages (Filipino and English) in the next category. A more complex version of the previously Filipino and English languages as media of instruction in the early stages of education, with local languages being used to aid the teaching and learning in the classroom.

Be it as it may, this basic education curriculum has been carried over higher education institutions since it was designed to prepare college students to be competitive after graduating senior high school . This study aims to determine the management perception with regard on the Globalization of Bilingual Education among the State Universities and Colleges in Southern Philippines to compete in a global setting.

Objectives

This study sought to determine the perception of the State Universities and Colleges (SUC's) management about the emergence of Globalization of Education in the tertiary level education in Southern Philippines.

Methodology

A qualitative-descriptive research and discourse analysis approach, and a key informant (KI) interview were utilized in the study. In addition, an in-depth face-to-face interview with the key informants was employed in gathering data. The data obtained from the key informants were subjected to data analysis given the sampling procedure done in the study. The researcher made use of non-probability sampling method in the form of purposive sampling.

There were 18 key informants among the SUCs that were purposively selected to be part of the study in which there were five (5) informants from Zamboanga City State Polytechnic College (ZCSPC); six (6) from Western Mindanao State University (WMSU); and seven (7) from Zamboanga City Marine Sciences and Technology (ZCMST). In addition, these informants were chosen purposively based on their positions in their respective institutions.

The study developed an interview guide used for the in-depth face to face interview. Each informant was duly informed of the researcher’s identity and intent. The researcher purposively approached the Presidents, heads, deans, and supervisors as key informants for interview. The results of the interview were subjected to data analysis and interpretation. The contents of the interview were analyzed and categorized according to common themes. Results were shown in thematic form and descriptive statistics like frequencies and the mean/average are also use in the presentation.

Results

The SUC’s are government bilingual higher educational institutions, being operated R.A. 9142 with primary mandate to provide advanced instruction and professional training in services, technology, and other related fields, undertake research and extension services and progressive leadership in these areas. The informants did mention that the Philosophy of their institution was to bring out the best of what to be human and shall develop the full potentials and capabilities for empowerment of the nation human resources with the vision as a premier institution of higher learning in arts, science, and technology, maritime, teacher education and other related fields.

Moreover, SUC’s in Zamboanga City offer various programs in which others focus on technical and vocational skills development of every student. To complete the institutional program, it also has the insights of non-degree programs as part of its collaborative efforts to sustain quality education among SUC’s in the City.

Table 1

SUC’s official’s statement about their institution

Responses (n=18)	Number
Bilingual Higher educational institutions (quality education/institution)	8
Institution with highly qualified professors	5
Regional Center/Center of Excellence	3

Premier learning in arts, sciences and technology	2
Provides effective and efficient services through advanced technological studies	2
One of the best institution in Region IX	2
Good achievements in terms of graduate	2
Institution is growing and moving forward to attain its VMO	1

**Multiple responses (18)*

The institution was really independent on how administration would run. In this study, top officials had seen the difference on how previous Presidents did as compared to the present one. Informants did mention that during the term of the past President, they were really able to perform well in terms of researches. Therefore, uplifting the name of the SUC's with regard to quality of education that involves more on the faculty development, giving scholarships, and encouraging people to do their work depends on the leadership of the President.

Table 1 indicates some qualifying statements coming from the SUC's officials about their institutions whole being with regard to Globalization of Education. It was indeed showed that the SUC's in the City belong to Higher Educational Institutions providing quality of education. The institutions were growing, moving forward to attain its vision, mission and objectives. It was also noted in the Table 1 that institutions had highly qualified professors and provides effective and efficient services through advanced technological studies. Lastly, with a regional center and center of excellence status that had good achievements in terms of graduates with a good background in arts, sciences and technology showcasing an atmosphere of growing and moving forward institutions.

The determining factor of the quality of students depends on the quality of teachers in the SUC's in the City. Lack of intellectual skills and knowledge of the teachers can affect the learning curve of the students. Strong faculty profile and advanced methods in teaching can make students even more talented in the field of the academe and as well as improve his/her social responsibility in the community. Teaching is not only in the four corners of the classroom but it involves community and social responsibility among the students in order for them to be ready and equip to face the challenges of all times especially if they have work internationally. Teachers should serve as an insightful leaders in the academic world so for them to pass their necessary visions to the students to perform the tasks needed in the academe.

In exploring the informants' perception about globalization, some informants offered at least two perceptions. These perceptions are grouped into four (4) categories: Global, Curriculum, Technology and Accreditation as shown in Table 2. Among the categorized explanation, the most frequently mentioned was the global perceptional response.

Table 2 revealed that many responses on their perception that globalization on education was preparation for individual as well producing graduates in response to global needs and competitions. Institutions were preparing and producing quality graduates for global competition but locally responsive.

Table 2

Perception about Globalization of Education

Responses (n=18)	Number
Global	
Preparation for individuals, as well producing graduates In response to global needs and competition	8
Connectivity and interdependence among educational institution Worldwide	3
Curriculum	
Having curricular programs that respond to the need of the	2

International community	
Global development issues and concerns that are integrated In the curriculum	2
Technology	
Advent of internet, global distance mode, consortium and open University system	3
Accreditation	
Institution is meeting the internal standards required by world Renowned institution (ISO)	2
Strengthen the educational system towards standard global Competitiveness	2

**Multiple responses (18)*

In addition, globalization on education is the connectivity and interdependence among educational institutions worldwide. It involves the process of global exchanges among nations by facilitating the flow of educational resources, services, and investments between countries. It is pursued in the hope that this would lead to educational synergy worldwide and development up to individual levels; but caution is called to the impacts of globalization, both positive and negative on the life of individual, village, town, city, and nation. However, on the curricular programs response, SUC's informants did mentioned that globalization on education was nothing more than having their curricular programs responsive to the need of the international community, including the facilities for developing the skills and knowledge of the students and training required by teachers to be of international recognition.

In addition, the curricula were being adjusted to meet not only for local demands but most were for international needs. The graduates must attain the standards that countries require; the courses must be at par and competitive not only to colleges and universities nationally but internationally. The other factors in globalization of education aside from curricula were institutional infrastructures, buildings, laboratory facilities, and teaching force with high educational qualifications and profile that can compete with global employment market.

Moreover, it was more or less concerned with global development issues and concerns that were integrated in the curricula where graduates will be at par with other graduates all over the world. It was necessary to prepare individuals for a workplace where responsibilities were constant changing, where information passes through multiple and informal channels, where initiative taking was more important than obedience and strategies were especially complex because of expansion of markets beyond national borders.

Therefore, Globalization on Education must help individuals to perform task for which they were not originally trained to prepare for nonlinear path, to improve their team skills, use information independently and lay basis of complex thinking linked to the realities of education. Further, education had been already globalized especially with the advent of internet. It had been resulting to global distance and Open University system. It strengthens the educational system to the standard global competitiveness through tough competition with neighboring countries. The SUC's should meet the international standards so that the products will not left behind in terms of job opportunities and the interconnectedness of the different nations and the world.

Conclusion

The findings and the assessment of the researcher, the higher education opens the door to various issues and consequences. The institutions can position themselves as destination for students and staff mobility to participate and benefit from international networks. The Philippine higher education system can best benefit from international education thus improving the quality of programs and resources. However, readiness of higher education to meet globalization will be determine in the capacity of academic program in preparing students towards global trading environment. It strengthens the educational system to the standard for global competitiveness.

The academic programs in SUC's were important avenue for responding the opportunities to globalized professionals through continuing education. Preparing globally competitive professionals through the processes of information, communication and technology were inherent in continuing education programs. Updating the competence of professionals was necessary for making ready to confront the threat of international competition.

Lastly, Globalization had greatly impact in our country's educational systems that have moral responsibility to develop leaders and educated citizens living in both national and global world. This ensure that students were equipped with a core body of knowledge and a critical eye to see social and economic development programs from a wider perspective.

Recommendation

The study provides a body of knowledge that will help administrators and curriculum planners to design technological competencies for the students and faculty. It strengthens the quality of education among SUC's for global competitiveness for modern educational technology upliftment. The study will encourage the parents, the community, the researchers, and the government to play a prominent role in helping improve the quality of education in the SUCs educational system.

The institution, the faculty, the departments should support international initiatives such as foreign studies and have opportunities for interaction with peers from other countries that can contribute to the knowledge and understanding of other culture. There should be cross-border programs tailored to the international audience in cultural content and learning technologies plus a global teaching, learning, and research activities supported by the institutional policies and practices. Lastly, implement programs and institutional accreditation that provide needed academic standards for the reason that quality begins with the people involved-talented students, strong faculty and insightful leaders.

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