RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDE TOWARD CULTURAL INSTRUCTION AND TRANSLATION OF CULTURE-BOUND TEXTS

Vahid Rafieyan
International College of Liberal Arts, Yamanashi Gakuin University
Kofu, Yamanashi, Japan
E-mail: rafieyanv@ygu.ac.jp

Elham Mahmoudi
Faculty of Education, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
Johor, Malaysia
E-mail: melham3@live.utm.my

Adlina Abdul Samad
Faculty of Education, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
Johor, Malaysia
E-mail: m-adlina@utm.my

ABSTRACT
Translation is not just using the equivalent words of the other language rather it is locating linguistic symbols against a society's cultural background (Malinowski, 1935). Therefore, translators need to dominate the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the source language (Agost, 1998). Effective acquisition of source language cultural perspectives, however, requires translators' positive attitudes toward learning those perspectives. To test the actual relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts, the current study was conducted on 60 Iranian undergraduate students studying English translation at a university in Iran. The instruments used for data collection consisted of an attitude questionnaire and a culture-bound text. The results of spearman rank order correlation (rho), following a semester-long cultural instruction, revealed a strong positive relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts. The pedagogical implications of the findings suggested to incorporating popular cultural perspectives of the source language community into every translation course and presenting them in an interesting way.

KEYWORDS: Attitude, Culture-Bound Texts, Cultural Instruction, Translation Quality

INTRODUCTION
Translation is not only a linguistic act but also an act of communication across cultures (House, 2015). It always involves both different languages and different cultures simply because the two cannot be neatly separated (Nida, 1964). Only when the relationship between linguistic units and

the context of a situation is taken into consideration a linguistic unit will make sense; therefore, translation is not just using the equivalent words of the other language rather it is locating linguistic symbols against a society's cultural background (Malinowski, 1935). In order for the source and the target language audiences to be able to experience the same conditions, the translator should have the capability of noticing any inter-textual component and render them equivalently into the target language. This is possible only when the translator possesses the required background knowledge. These textual components carry signs which need to be interpreted in order to be fully comprehensible for the receiver; therefore, translator needs to dominate the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the source language (Agost, 1998). Domination of sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the source language requires translator to be trained in those perspectives. To achieve this, cultural perspectives of the source language and their comparison with the cultural perspectives of the target language should be incorporated in translation courses. Integrating culture in foreign language instruction increases language learners' knowledge about the world, increases language learner's realization of values of their heritage culture, simplifies language learners' contacts with target language people, and enhances language learners' motivation (Adaskou et al., 1990). Moreover, equipping language learners with the cultural knowledge of the target language has several further advantages: first, language learners find teaching culture of the target language interesting; second, it develops knowledge of another culture and how it is linked to language by providing a meaningful educational experience; third, it develops cultural knowledge which is vital for successful communication and empathy toward people of other parts of the world; fourth, it invokes positive attitudes toward the target culture simplifying learning a foreign language; fifth, it enables language learners to be aware of the context to use the right language in the communication process; sixth, it promotes a cultural context to study language in formal and informal situations (Albirini, 2009). However, benefiting from cultural knowledge presented in language classes first and foremost requires language learners' interest in incorporating those cultural perspectives into their class instruction and their acceptance of those cultural perspectives as an integral component of their language classes.

Language learners' attitudes toward incorporation of cultural perspectives in their language classes has been investigated in a number of studies. In one study, Albirini (2009) explored language learners' attitudes toward the incorporation of cultural components of the target language community into their Arabic language course. Participants of the study consisted of a group of college students attending an Arabic course at a university in the United States. Cultural materials introduced in the course consisted of videos, short stories, live TV news, songs, and guest speakers. Data were collected through a likert scale questionnaire measuring language learners' affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes toward incorporating target language culture into their classes. Findings of the study suggested that language learners had positive attitudes toward the incorporation of cultural components of the target language community in their Arabic course. The positive attitude was evident within affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains. In another study, Saricoban and Caliskan (2011) investigated language learners' positive or negative attitudes toward learning cultural perspectives of the target language community. Participants in their study consisted of a group of learners of English at a university in Turkey. Data were collected through a multiple choice questionnaire in which language

learners' thoughts on the inclusion or exclusion of the cultural elements of the target language community in their language classrooms were examined. Findings of the study revealed the positive attitudes of language learners toward learning the cultural elements of the target language community. Rafieyan et al. (2013a) conducted another study to investigate Iranian language learners' affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes toward incorporating cultural perspectives of the United States into their class instruction. Participants of the study consisted of a group of Iranian learners of English at a language institute in Iran. Data were collected through a likert scale questionnaire consisting of three subscales of affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes after a semester-long cultural instruction. The study revealed that language learners had an overall positive attitude toward the incorporation of cultural components into their classroom instruction. This positive attitude was also evident within affective, behavioral, and more significantly cognitive domains. Most recently, Dweik and Al-sayyed (2015) explored the attitudes of Jordanian students and teachers toward learning and teaching British culture in English as foreign language textbooks. Participants were 156 students and 30 language teachers at schools in Jordan. Data were collected through two likert scale questionnaires, one assessing students' attitudes toward incorporating culture in language textbooks and the other assessing teachers' attitudes toward incorporating culture in language textbooks. Findings of the study indicated that both students and teachers had positive attitudes toward incorporation of British culture in English language textbooks.

The studies conducted so far have investigated language learners' attitudes toward incorporation of cultural materials into their language classes with no indication of the effect this might have on developing their intercultural competence, defined as "complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself" (Fantini, 2006: 12), and the subsequent ability to translate culture-bound texts. Therefore, given the significance of knowledge of cultural perspectives of the source language for a successful translation on one hand and the significance of translation students' attitudes toward learning those cultural perspectives on the other hand, the current study seeks to investigate the relationship between translation students' attitudes toward cultural instruction and the quality of their translation of culture-bound texts.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Therefore, the research question to be addressed in the current study is:
Is there any relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts?

Accordingly the null hypothesis is:
There is no relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts.

IJLLALW

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Participants of the study consisted of 60 Iranian undergraduate students studying English translation at a university in Iran. Among the participants, 38 were females and 22 were males. Their ages ranged from 22 to 25 with a mean age of 22.5. They were all at the last semester of their studies; therefore, they were supposed to have learned all translation techniques and consequently have a good command of translation ability. Also, based on an English proficiency test administered before study to select participants of equal level of language proficiency, they were all among those being placed at the upper-intermediate level of language proficiency; therefore, they possessed an equally high level of language proficiency.

Instruments
The instruments used for data collection consisted of an attitude questionnaire and a culture-bound text. The attitude questionnaire was adopted from a study previously conducted by Albirini (2009) and was modified according to the purpose of the study. The modified version of the questionnaire consisted of 12 items about participants' attitudes toward the cultural parts of the course. All items of the questionnaire were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' with values 1 to 5 assigned to them respectively. In this respect, the value of 1 was assigned to 'strongly disagree', the value of 2 was assigned to 'disagree', the value of 3 was assigned to 'neutral', the value of 4 was assigned to 'agree', and the value of 5 was assigned to 'strongly agree'. The questionnaire consisted of the three subscales of affective (4 items), cognitive (4 items), and behavioral (4 items) attitudes. These three constructs referred respectively to translation students' emotional reaction to the cultural components of the course, their fact-based thoughts regarding the cultural components of the course, and their overt behavior directed toward the cultural components of the course (Zimbardo et al., 1977).

The culture-bound text consisted of a text flooded with cultural perspectives of the United States. The text contained some excerpts of news adopted from Voice of America (VOA) which is the official external broadcast institution of the United States federal government. The criterion for the selection of the news excerpts was the inclusion of a large quantity of cultural perspectives of the United States. The researchers carefully reviewed current news on VOA website and selected excerpts which contained abundant cultural perspectives of the United States. Moreover, to ensure that the translation students do their best to present a translation to the best of their knowledge, the text was kept within a page limit (275 words) to avoid making the translation task tedious.

To test the validity of both instruments, content-related evidence of validity was used. The researchers wrote out the definition of what they wanted to measure and then gave this definition, along with the adapted attitude questionnaire and the culture-bound text and a description of the intended sample, to two professors at a university in Iran who were experts in the field of translation. The professors confirmed that the content and format of both instruments are consistent with the definition of the variable and the sample of objects to be measured (Fraenkel et al., 2012). To test the reliability of both instruments, a pilot study was conducted over 28 nonparticipant undergraduate students of English translation at a university in Iran. The reliability

IJLLALW

coefficient of the adapted attitude questionnaire and the culture-bound text assessed through Cronbach's alpha were respectively 0.85 and 0.80.

Procedure

Since the beginning of the fall semester in the academic year 2015/2016, instructional materials regarding the cultural perspectives of the United States were incorporated into translation students' regular translation courses and it continued for the whole semester. At the end of semester, the culture-bound text was administered to all translation students participating in the study to be translated. Participants were neither informed of the existence of the cultural references of the United States in the culture-bound text nor alerted of the significant weight of appropriate transference of these cultural references into the target language according to the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the target language in assessing the quality of their translations. Participants were given ample time to render a high quality of translation of culture-bound text to the best of their knowledge and were allowed to use any type of dictionaries they wished to use during the translation task. Following the completion of the translation task, the attitude questionnaire was administered to them. They were asked to reflect on the items on the questionnaire and circle the point on the scale which best represents their attitudes toward that specific perspective of cultural instruction. At the end, both instruments were collected for the purpose of data analysis.

Data Analysis

To measure participants' attitudes toward cultural instruction, descriptive statistics were used to describe and summarize the properties of the data collected from the participants. Descriptive statistics consisted mainly of mean, standard deviation, and frequency percentages. The attitude toward the cultural perspectives was represented by a mean score on a 5-point scale, where 1 (strongly disagree) represented the minimum score on the scale and 5 (strongly agree) represented the maximum score on the scale. The mean score, standard deviation, and frequency percentages were computed for each subscale of the attitude questionnaire including affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitudes individually as well as all subscales in general. A mean score of above 3 represented a positive attitude toward cultural components of the course whereas a mean score of below 3 represented a negative attitude.

To measure the quality of translations, two professors who were experts in the field of translation rated the quality of translations based on a 5-point scale ranging from 'very bad' to 'very good' with values 1 to 5 assigned to them respectively. In this respect the value of 1 was assigned to 'very bad', the value of 2 was assigned to 'bad', the value of 3 was assigned to 'neither good nor bad', the value of 4 was assigned to 'good', and the value of 5 was assigned to 'very good'. Quality of translations was assessed based on House's (1977, 1997) functional-pragmatic model which consisted of three steps: (1) the source text was analyzed along the dimensions of Field, Tenor, and Mode. On the basis of findings on the lexical, the syntactic, and the textual level, a text-profile was set up which reflected the individual textual function; (2) the translated text was analyzed along the same dimensions and at the same level of delicacy; (3) the source and translation texts were compared. An assessment of their relative match was established: how the

IJLLALW

two texts were similar and/or different, given differing linguistic and cultural constraints (Thuy, 2013).

To measure the degree of agreement between the ratings assigned by the two raters, the inter-rater reliability was assessed through Cohen's Kappa which is a measure of inter-rater reliability used to measure agreement between two coders (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2014). The analysis of Cohen's Kappa would give a value between -1 and +1. The interpretation of the values obtained through Cohen's Kappa, according to Landis and Koch (1977), are presented in Table 1. The inter-rater reliability assessed for the translations was 0.85 which, according to the guidelines set by Landis and Koch (1977), indicates an almost perfect agreement between the two raters. For cases which received different ratings, the raters discussed until they reached an agreement.

Table 1: Interpretation of Cohen's Kappa Values

Values	Interpretation
Smaller than 0.00	Poor Agreement
0.00 to 0.20	Slight Agreement
0.21 to 0.40	Fair Agreement
0.41 to 0.60	Moderate Agreement
0.61 to 0.80	Substantial Agreement
0.81 to 1.00	Almost Perfect Agreement

To assess the relationship between translation students' attitudes toward cultural instruction and the quality of their translation of culture-bound text, spearman rank order correlation (rho), which measures the relationship between two variables when both variables are measured on ordinal scales (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013), was used. The size of the value of spearman correlation can range from -1.00 to +1.00. This value indicates the strength of the relationship between the two variables. A value of 0.00 indicates no relationship at all, a value of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive correlation (as one variable increases, so does the other variable), and a value of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other variable decreases) (Pallant, 2013). Cohen (1988) suggests a set of guidelines to interpret the values between 0.00 and 1.00. The guidelines, which have been presented in Table 2, apply whether or not there is a negative sign out the front of the correlation value.

Table 2: Strength of Relationship

Correlation Value	Interpretation
0.10 to 0.29	Small Correlation
0.30 to 0.49	Medium Correlation
0.50 to 1.00	Large Correlation

The squared correlation (r^2), called the coefficient of determination, was then used to measure the proportion of variability in quality of translation of culture-bound text that can be determined from its relationship with attitude toward cultural instruction. Squared correlation would give a value ranging from 0.00 to 1.00. Cohen (1988) has also suggested a set of guidelines to interpret the values of squared correlation. The criterion for interpreting the value of squared correlation, as proposed by Cohen (1988), has been presented in Table 3.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 1-11   *Rafieyan, V., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Table 3: Percentage of Variance Explained

Squared Correlation Value	Interpretation
0.01	Small Correlation
0.09	Medium Correlation
0.25	Large Correlation

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 4 presents the descriptive presentation of translation students' attitudes toward cultural components of the course. Descriptive data presented in the table consists of mean, standard deviation, and frequency percentages for each specific type of attitude including affective, cognitive, and behavioral as well as the overall attitude. According to the descriptive data presented in the table, translation students' specific attitudes (affective, cognitive, and behavioral) as well as their overall attitudes toward cultural components of the course were positive (the mean score for all was above the cut-off of 3). In this respect, affective attitude which referred to translation students' emotional reaction to the cultural components of the course accommodated the highest mean score (mean: 4.24) and behavioral attitude which referred to their overt behavior directed toward the cultural components of the course accommodated the lowest mean score (mean: 3.68).

Table 4: Distribution of Mean Scores on the Attitude Scale

Scale	Percent (%)					Mean	Standard Deviation
	SD	D	N	A	SA		
Affective	5.00	1.67	13.33	43.33	36.67	4.24	1.22
Cognitive	6.67	3.33	13.33	40.00	36.67	4.04	1.28
Behavioral	10.01	3.33	13.33	40.00	33.33	3.68	1.40
Overall Attitude	8.34	3.33	13.33	41.67	33.33	3.88	1.16
SD: Strongly Disagree (1), D: Disagree (2), N: Neutral (3), A: Agree (4), SA: Strongly Agree (5)							

Table 5 presents the descriptive presentation of quality of translation of culture-bound text for translation students participating in the study. Descriptive data presented in the table consists of the number and percentage of participants for each translation quality. According to the descriptive data, 23.33 percent of participants presented their translations at an above average level of quality (good and very good levels), 40.00 percent of participants presented their translations at an average level of quality (neither good nor bad level), and 36.67 percent of participants presented their translations at a below average level of quality (bad and very bad levels).

Table 5: Descriptive Presentation of Translation Quality

Translation Quality	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
Very Good	2	3.33
Good	12	20.00
Neither Good Nor Bad	24	40.00
Bad	18	30.00
Very Bad	4	6.67

Table 6 presents the results of spearman rank order correlation (rho) analysis between translation students' level of attitudes toward cultural instruction and the quality of their translations of

IJLLALW

culture-bound text. The first thing to consider in correlation analysis is the direction of the relationship between the variables (attitude toward cultural instruction and translation quality). The data shows that there is a positive relationship between the two variables, that is, the higher the attitude toward cultural instruction the higher the quality of translation. The second thing to consider in correlation analysis is the size of the value of the correlation coefficient. This value will indicate the strength of the relationship between the two variables (attitude toward cultural instruction and translation quality). The value of correlation coefficient obtained in the analysis of spearman rank order correlation (rho) is 0.742 which according to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) to interpret the values of correlation coefficient suggests quite a strong relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation.

Table 6: Correlation

			Attitude	Translation Quality
Spearman's rho	Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	0.742**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
		N	60	60
	Translation Quality	Correlation Coefficient	0.742**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
		N	60	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

To get an idea of how much variance the two variables (attitude toward cultural instruction and translation quality) share, the coefficient of determination was calculated. This can be obtained by squaring the correlation value. The coefficient of determination for the obtained correlation analysis is $r^2 = (0.742)^2 = 0.5505$ which according to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) to interpret the values of coefficient of determination suggests a very large correlation coefficient. To convert the value of coefficient of determination to 'percentage of variance', it was multiplied by 100, that is, $r^2 = (0.742)^2 \times 100 = 55.05$. This suggests that attitude toward cultural instruction helps to explain nearly 55 percent of the variance in translation students' quality of translation.

Discussion

The study found that translation students have an overall positive attitude toward incorporation of source language cultural materials into their class instruction. This positive attitude was also evident within affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains. The study also found that attitude toward cultural instruction plays an important role in quality of translation of culture-bound texts. Translation students who were more interested in cultural components of the course presented a better translation of culture-bound text than translation students who were less interested in the incorporation of cultural perspectives of the source language community into their curriculum. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study which states that there is no relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts is rejected.

These findings can be explained through the Noticing Hypothesis. Noticing is a crucial cognitive construct in target language acquisition. "The orthodox position in psychology is that there is little if any learning without attention" (Schmidt, 2001:11). The Noticing Hypothesis states that "people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 1-11   *Rafieyan, V., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

not attend to" (Schmidt, 2001:30). In order for the input to become intake, the detection of input in the form of awareness and attention is necessary (Schmidt, 1995). Not all input has equal value and only that input which is noticed then becomes available for intake and effective processing (Schmidt, 1990; 2001). Intake is part of the input which is being paid attention to and is taken into short-term memory and consequently is integrated into the interlanguage, a language independent from both the language learner's native language and the target language (Selinker, 1972).

In the current study, translation students who were more interested in the cultural components of the course most likely directed their noticing and attention to the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the source language and their distinctions with the sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the target language. This noticing of source language cultural perspectives may have helped the input they received to be turned into intake and the consequent development of their intercultural competence needed for a successful cross-cultural translation. Sociolinguistic and sociocultural perspectives of the source language probably went unnoticed for translation students who were less interested in cultural components of the course, however, resulting in their insufficient knowledge of cultural perspectives of the source language to equip them with the ability to render a comprehensible translation of source language for target language readers according to the sociolinguistic and sociocultural norms of the target language.

The findings obtained in the current study are consistent with the findings obtained in the study conducted by Rafieyan et al. (2013b) who found that a positive attitude toward the learning of the cultural perspectives of the source language community increases language learners' ability to comprehend pragmatically implied meanings. The findings obtained in the current study are also in line with the findings obtained in the study conducted by Rafieyan (in press a) who found that a higher attitude to acculturate in source language culture results in a higher quality of translation of culture-bound texts.

CONCLUSION

The study revealed a strong positive relationship between attitude toward cultural instruction and quality of translation of culture-bound texts. Translation students who were more interested in learning the cultural perspectives of the source language community managed to present their translations of culture-bound text at a higher level of quality than translation students who were less interested in the integration of cultural perspectives of the source language into their class instruction. Therefore, considering the significance of developing intercultural competence for successful cross-cultural translation on one hand and the significance of having a positive attitude toward source language culture in the development of intercultural competence on the other hand, teachers of translation courses are advised to incorporate popular cultural perspectives of the source language community into every translation course and present them in an interesting way (Rafieyan et al., 2013c; Rafieyan, in press b).

The study was limited in two ways, however. Firstly, the study merely followed a cross-sectional design and did not adopt an experimental pretest/posttest design to examine the effect of cultural

IJLLALW

intervention on the development of translation students' intercultural competence with respect to their attitudes toward cultural instruction. Secondly, the study did not consider the significant role of translation students' level of cultural intelligence in the development of their intercultural competence as a high level of cultural intelligence enables them to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings (Earley & Ang, 2003). Therefore, future studies are recommended to follow an experimental design to investigate the effect of cultural intervention in the development of intercultural competence and subsequently the quality of translation of culture-bound texts with respect to the role of cultural intelligence and attitude toward cultural instruction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES

Adaskou, K., Britten, D., & Fahsi, B. (1990). Design Decisions on the Cultural Content of a Secondary English Course for Morocco. ELT Journal, 44(1), 3-10. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/44.1.3

Agost, R. (1998). Traducció i Intertextualitat: el Cas del Doblatge. In L. Meseguer & M. L. Villanueva (Eds.), Intertextualitat Irecepció (pp. 219-243). Castellón de la Plana: Universitat Jaume I.

Albirini, A. (2009). Using Technology, Literature and Guest Speakers to Raise the Cultural Awareness of Arabic Language Learners. The International Journal of Language Society and Culture, (28), 1-15.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dweik, B. S., & Al-sayyed, S. W. (2015). Attitudes of Jordanian Students, Teachers and Educationalists towards Including Culture in EFL Classes and Textbooks "Action Pack 12". International Journal of Social Sciences, 40(1), 1126-1141.

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions across Cultures. Palo Alto, Calif: Stanford University Press.

Fantini, A. E. (2006). Exploring and Assessing Intercultural Competence. Retrieved 15 February 2012, from http://www.sit.edu/publications/docs/feil_research_report.pdf

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2013). Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. Belmont, C A: Wadsworth Publishing.

House, J. (1977). A Model for Translation Quality Assessment. Tubingen: Narr.

House, J. (1997). Translation Quality Assessment: A Model Revisited. Tubingen: Narr.

House, J. (2015). Translation Quality Assessment: Past and Present. New York: Routledge.

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The Measurement of Observer Agreement for Categorical Data. Biometrics, 33(1), 159-174. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2529310

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 1-11   *Rafieyan, V., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Malinowski, B. (1935). Coral Gardens and their Magic (2 Vols). London: Allen &Unwin.

Nida, E. (1964). Toward a Science of Translating. With Special Reference to Principles and Procedures Involved in Bible Translating. Leiden: Brill.

Pallant, J. (2013). SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS Program (5th ed.). Australia: Allen & Unwin.

Rafieyan, V., Lin, S. E., & Abdul-Rashid, M. (2013a). Language Learners' Attitudes towards the Incorporation of Target Language Culture into Foreign Language Instructions. International Journal of Linguistics, 5(4), 169-177. http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v5i4.4193

Rafieyan, V., Norazman, A. M., & Lin, S. E. (2013b). Relationship between Attitude toward Target Language Culture Instruction and Pragmatic Comprehension Development. English Language Teaching, 6(8), 125-132. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n8p125

Rafieyan, V., Lin, S. E., & Abdul-Rashid, M. (2013c). The Effect of Integrative Attitude on the Development of Pragmatic Comprehension. Elixir Social Studies, 57, 14041-14045.

Rafieyan, V. (in press a). Relationship between Acculturation Attitude and Translation of Culture-Bound Texts.

Rafieyan, V. (in press b). Relationship between Language Learners' Attitudes toward Cultural Instruction and Pragmatic Comprehension and Production.

Saldanha, G., & O'Brien, S. (2014). Research Methodologies in Translation Studies. New Tork, NY: Routledge.

Saricoban, A., & Caliskan, G. (2011). The Influence of Target Culture on Language Learners. Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 7(1), 7-17.

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. Applied Linguistics, 11(2), 129-158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129

Schmidt, R. W. (1995). Consciousness and Foreign Language Learning: A Tutorial on the Role of Attention and Awareness in Learning. In R. W. Schmidt (Ed.), Attention and Awareness in Foreign Language Learning (Technical Report No. 9, pp. 1-63). University of Hawaii: Honolulu.

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), Cognition and Second Language Instruction (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524780.003

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. International Review of Applied Linguistics, 10(2), 209-230. http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209

Thuy, P. T. (2013). House's Functional-Pragmatic Model of Translation Assessment and Implications for Evaluating English-Vietnamese Translation Quality. VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 29(1), 56-64.

Zimbardo, P., Ebbesen, E., & Maslach, C. (1977).Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behavior. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

IJLLALW

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND PRODUCTION OF CONVENTIONAL EXPRESSIONS

Vahid Rafieyan
International College of Liberal Arts, Yamanashi Gakuin University
Kofu, Yamanashi, Japan
E-mail: rafieyanv@ygu.ac.jp

ABSTRACT
Conventional expressions, consisting of strings such as *No problem, Nice to meet you,* and *That'd be great* which native speakers use predictably in certain contexts (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009), are described as crucial to intercultural communication (e.g., Coulmas, 1981). However, research in both target language development in general and target language pragmatics in particular has reported that language learners underuse such expressions (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009). This study aimed to discover the extent to which cultural intelligence (CQ), defined as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings (Ang et al., 2007), predicts the ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately. To this end, the study was conducted on 60 Iranian postgraduate students of English education at universities in Canada. Data of the study were collected through the cultural intelligence scale (CQS) developed by Ang et al. (2007) and a discourse completion task eliciting a variety of speech acts developed by Bardovi-Harlig (2009). The correlation of data derived from both questionnaires, using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r), revealed that cultural intelligence helps to explain nearly 76 percent of the variance in language learners' ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately. The pedagogical implications of the findings suggested providing more opportunities for language learners in English as foreign language contexts to be exposed to and assimilate in target language culture through telecollaborative partnership, educational sojourn, and pragmatic instruction.

KEYWORDS: Conventional Expressions, Cultural Intelligence, Pragmatic Competence

INTRODUCTION
Knowledge of conventional expressions, which consist of strings such as *No problem, Nice to meet you,* and *That'd be great,* used predictably in certain contexts by native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009), is essential in handling social situations in the same way as native speakers (Coulmas, 1981) because without that knowledge language learners do not have ready access to, and therefore do not make use of, standardized routines for meeting the social imposition as native speakers do (Edmondson & House, 1991). However, research has reported that these expressions are underused by language learners (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009). In spite of their communicative value, conventional expressions are not acquired seamlessly even by advanced language learners: some language learners may be uncomfortable with the use of some common expressions, some may not link expressions to their target language function or context, and still others may not control the form (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009). This underuse of conventional

IJLLALW

expressions in social interactions may stem from language learners' lack of cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence (CQ), defined as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings (Ang et al., 2007), is supposed to be influential to the appropriate production of conventional expressions as individuals with a higher cultural intelligence can more easily navigate and understand unfamiliar cultures and adjust their behaviors to perform effectively in culturally diverse situations (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000). Past research also supports the use of soft skills such as cultural intelligence to help people adapt to the cultural values and norms of the target language country and to better understand intercultural interactions (Ang et al., 2007; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Earley, 2002; Templer et al., 2006). In fact, people with high level of cultural intelligence are more familiar with the distinctions of intercultural interactions so that they naturally know how to behave in order not to cause any intercultural mistakes and to facilitate positive reactions (Thomas & Inkson, 2005).

Cultural intelligence comprises four dimensions of metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral with specific relevance to functioning in culturally diverse settings (Earley & Ang, 2003). Metacognitive cultural intelligence reflects mental processes that individuals use to acquire and understand cultural knowledge, including knowledge of and control over individual thought processes relating to culture. Relevant capabilities include planning, monitoring and revising mental models of cultural norms for countries or groups of people. Cognitive cultural intelligence reflects knowledge of the norms, practices and conventions in different cultures acquired from education and personal experiences. This includes knowledge of the economic, legal and social systems of different cultures and subcultures and knowledge of basic frameworks of cultural values. Motivational cultural intelligence reflects the capability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations characterized by cultural differences. Such motivational capacities "provide agentic control of affect, cognition and behavior that facilitate goal accomplishment" (Kanfer and Heggestad, 1997, p. 39). Behavioral cultural intelligence reflects the capability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions when interacting with people from different cultures. In this respect, mental capabilities for cultural understanding and motivation must be complemented with the ability to exhibit appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions, based on cultural values of specific settings (Hall, 1959). This includes having a wide and flexible repertoire of behaviors. Those with high metacognitive cultural intelligence are consciously aware of others' cultural preferences before and during interactions. They also question cultural assumptions and adjust their mental models during and after interactions. Those with high cognitive cultural intelligence understand similarities and differences across cultures. Those with high motivational cultural intelligence direct attention and energy toward cross-cultural situations based on intrinsic interest and confidence in their cross-cultural effectiveness. Finally, those with high behavioral cultural intelligence exhibit situationally appropriate behaviors based on their broad range of verbal and nonverbal capabilities, such as exhibiting culturally appropriate words, tone, gestures and facial expressions (Ang et al., 2007).

Considering the importance of possessing a high level of knowledge of target language conventional expressions in facilitating proper social interactions with target language speakers

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

on one hand and the significance of possessing a high level of cultural intelligence in acquisition of target language conventional expressions on the other hand, the current study seeks to investigate the relationship between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately according to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic norms of the target language.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of recent literature in the area of interlanguage pragmatics shows that research over conventional expressions, as a component of pragmatic competence, has received considerable attention by numerous scholars in the field during the past decade. In one study, Bardovi-Harlig (2009) explored the source of low production of conventional expressions by language learners. Participants of the study consisted of a group of learners of English enrolled in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest. The instruments used in the study consisted of an audio recognition task, an audio-visual production task, and a background questionnaire. The results of the study revealed that low production of conventional expressions by language learners has multiple sources including lack of familiarity with some expressions, overuse of familiar expressions, level of development, and sociopragmatic knowledge. In a similar study, Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga (2012) investigated the effects of instruction on the oral production of conventional expressions. Participants of the study consisted of a group of language learners in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest. An aural recognition task and an oral production task were used as pre-test and post-test to collect the data. Intervention consisted of three sessions centered around contextualized input and guided metapragmatic noticing. The findings of the study suggested that instruction promoted the use of some conventional expressions. In another study, Taguchi (2013) examined the effect of general language proficiency and study-abroad experience on appropriate and fluent production of target language conventional expressions. Participants of the study consisted of three groups of Japanese learners of English at a university in Japan: a low language proficiency without study-abroad experience group, a high language proficiency without study-abroad experience group, and a high language proficiency with study-abroad experience group. The ability to produce target language conventional expressions was assessed through a computerized oral discourse completion test. The findings suggested that while all learner groups failed to reach a native level, study-abroad experience presented an advantage in the appropriate production of conventional expressions whereas proficiency presented an advantage in speech rates. Bardovi-Harlig (2014) conducted another study to investigate language learners' awareness of the meaning of target language conventional expressions and the effect of the associated meanings on the use of conventional expressions in social interactions. A group of language learners enrolled in the intensive English program of a university in the American Midwest participated in the study. To explore the meaning that language learners assigned to conventional expressions, the modified aural Vocabulary Knowledge Scale was used. The data suggested that language learners' awareness of the meaning of conventional expressions seems likely to play a role in whether language learners use an expression and which expression among related expressions they use to the exclusion of others. Rafieyan et al. (2014a) were the other researchers who investigated the effect of pragmatic awareness on comprehension and production of conventional expressions.

Participants of the study were a group of international learners of English in an intensive English language program at a university in Malaysia. Data were collected through a contextualized pragmatic judgment task, a pragmatic comprehension test, and a discourse completion task. The study found that language learners who were more aware of target language pragmatic features had a higher ability to appropriately comprehend and produce target language conventional expressions than language learners who were less aware of target language pragmatic features. In their other study, Rafieyan et al. (2014b) investigated the effect of form-focused pragmatic instruction on the ability to produce target language conventional expressions. Participants of the study consisted of three groups of undergraduate students of English at a university in Iran: one group receiving implicit 'Focus on Form' pragmatic instruction, one group receiving explicit 'Focus on Forms' pragmatic instruction, and a final group merely receiving grammar instruction. Data were collected through an oral discourse completion task following eight sessions of treatment. The findings of the study revealed that both groups of language learners who received pragmatic instruction were equally more successful in appropriate production of target language conventional expressions than those who did not receive pragmatic instruction.

The review of past literature in the area of interlanguage pragmatics clearly shows that researchers in the area have investigated conventional expressions from different perspectives. While some scholars have investigated language learners' ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately and the significance of possessing a good command of conventional expressions in handling daily social interactions, some others have investigated the effect of pragmatic instruction, pragmatic awareness, and individual differences variables such as language proficiency level and study-abroad experience on the ability to produce appropriate target language conventional expressions. However, there is a dearth of research on assessing the relationship between cultural intelligence, which has been claimed to facilitate acquisition of target language cultural norms, and production of target language conventional expressions.

RESEARCH QUESTION
In this respect, the research question to be addressed in the current study is:
Is there any relationship between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately?

Accordingly the null hypothesis is:
There is no relationship between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Participants of the study consisted of 60 Iranian students studying for a Master's degree in English education at universities in Canada. The participants in the study were all at the second year of their studies. Their length of residence in Canada ranged from 12 to 15 months. Therefore, they had the opportunity to be exposed to Canadian cultural and pragmatic features for

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

quite a long time. They all also possessed an IELTS overall band of 6.5 or above as an entry prerequisite for their universities. Therefore, they were supposed to have a substantial linguistic ability as well. Among all students participating in the study, 22 were males and 38 were females. Their ages ranged from 22 to 32, with an average age of 24.5.

Instruments

To evaluate language learners' level of cultural intelligence, the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), developed by Ang et al. (2007), was adopted. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items with four subscales: metacognitive cultural intelligence (items 1-4), cognitive cultural intelligence (items 5-10), motivational cultural intelligence (items 11-15), and behavioral cultural intelligence (items 16-20). The items on the questionnaire were based on a 7-point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree with values 1 to 7 assigned to them respectively. In this respect, the value of 1 was assigned to 'strongly disagree', the value of 2 was assigned to 'disagree', the value of 3 was assigned to 'slightly disagree', the value of 4 was assigned to 'neither agree nor disagree', the value of 5 was assigned to 'slightly agree', the value of 6 was assigned to 'agree', and the value of 7 was assigned to 'strongly agree'. A higher score on the scale indicated that a person can better adjust to new cultures, understand local practices, and can behave appropriately and effectively in other cultures outside their own (Chen et al., 2011).

To assess language learners' level of ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately, a discourse completion task eliciting a variety of speech acts including expressions of gratitude, apologies, warnings, leave-takings, requests, condolences, declining offers, acceptance of a request, acceptance of an invitation, invitation, declining an invitation, an agreement, deflecting thanks, and an introduction developed by Bardovi-Harlig (2009) was adopted. The discourse completion task consisted of 32 scenarios comprising both initiating and responding scenarios. The initiating scenarios (n=13) required language learners to initiate an interaction and the responding scenarios (n=19) required language learners to respond to an interlocutor's turn.

Procedure

During the second semester of the academic year 2015/2016, 60 copies of the discourse completion task was administered to all language learners participating in the study. Language learners were instructed to read each scenario on the discourse completion task and write a brief expression they would say in each situation. Following the completion of the task, 60 copies of the cultural intelligence scale was distributed among the language learners. Language learners were instructed to read each item on the questionnaire and select the point on the scale which best reflected their attitude toward the idea mentioned. At the end, the slips of both questionnaires were collected by the researcher and were prepared for the subsequent data analysis.

Data Analysis

To measure language learners' level of cultural intelligence, descriptive statistics was used to describe and summarize the properties of the data collected from the participants. Descriptive statistics consisted mainly of mean and standard deviation. The cultural intelligence was represented by a mean score on a 7-point scale, where 1 (strongly disagree) represented the

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

minimum score on the scale and 7 (strongly agree) represented the maximum score on the scale. The mean score and standard deviation were computed for each subscale of cultural intelligence including metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral individually as well as all subscales generally.

To measure language learners' level of ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately, The appropriateness of the responses to the discourse completion task was assessed by two native speakers of English using a four-point rating scale ranging from zero (cannot evaluate) to three (native-like). The ratings along with the description for each band on the scale have been provided in Table 1. As there were 32 scenarios, each participant could get a mark ranging from 0 to 96. In this respect, language learners who obtained a mark of 0 were placed at the level of 'cannot evaluate', language learners who obtained a mark between 1 and 32 were placed at the level of 'obviously off', language learners who obtained a mark between 33 and 64 were placed at the level of 'slightly off, but acceptable', and language learners who obtained a mark between 65 and 96 were placed at the level of 'native-like'.

Table 1: Description of Ratings for Conventional Expressions

Rating	Band	Descriptions
3	Native-like	The utterance is almost perfectly appropriate. This is what a native speaker would usually say in the situation
2	Slightly off, but acceptable	The utterance is a little off from native-like due to minor grammatical and lexical errors but overall acceptable
1	Obviously off	The utterance is clearly non-native like because of strange, non-typical way of saying and/or major grammatical and lexical errors
0	Cannot evaluate	The utterance is impossible to understand

Adopted from Taguchi (2013)

The degree of agreement between the ratings assigned by the two native speakers of English was then assessed through Cohen's Kappa which is a measure of inter-rater reliability used to measure agreement between two coders (Saldanha & O'Brien, 2014). The analysis of Cohen's Kappa would give a value between -1 and +1. The interpretation of the values obtained through Cohen's Kappa, according to Landis and Koch (1977), are presented in Table 2. The inter-rater reliability assessed for the responses to the discourse completion task was 0.88 which, according to the guidelines set by Landis and Koch (1977), indicates an almost perfect agreement between the two raters. For cases which received different ratings, the two native speakers of English discussed until they reached an agreement.

Table 2: Interpretation of Cohen's Kappa Values

Values	Interpretation
Smaller than 0.00	Poor Agreement
0.00 to 0.20	Slight Agreement
0.21 to 0.40	Fair Agreement
0.41 to 0.60	Moderate Agreement
0.61 to 0.80	Substantial Agreement
0.81 to 1.00	Almost Perfect Agreement

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

To assess the relationship between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r), which is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013), was computed. Pearson correlation coefficient can only take on values from -1 to +1. The sign out the front indicates whether there is a positive correlation (as one variable increases, so too does the other) or a negative correlation (as one variable increases, the other decreases). The size of the absolute value (ignoring the sign) provides an indication of the strength of the relationship. A perfect correlation of +1 or -1 indicates that the value of one variable can be determined exactly by knowing the value on the other variable. On the other hand, a correlation of 0 indicates no relationship between the two variables. Knowing the value on one of the variables provides no assistance in predicting the value on the second variable (Pallant, 2013). Cohen (1988) suggests a set of guidelines to interpret the values between 0.00 and 1.00. The guidelines, which have been presented in Table 3, apply whether or not there is a negative sign out the front of the r value.

Table 3: Strength of Relationship

r Value	Interpretation
0.10 – 0.29	Small Correlation
0.30 – 0.49	Medium Correlation
0.50 – 1.00	Large Correlation

The squared correlation (r^2), called the coefficient of determination, was then used to measure the proportion of variability in the ability to produce target language conventional expressions that can be determined from its relationship with level of cultural intelligence. Squared correlation would give a value ranging from 0.00 to 1.00. Cohen (1988) has also suggested a set of guidelines to interpret the values of squared correlation. The criteria for interpreting the value of squared correlation (r^2), as proposed by Cohen (1988), have been presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Percentage of Variance Explained, r^2

r^2 Value	Interpretation
0.01	Small Correlation
0.09	Medium Correlation
0.25	Large Correlation

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Results
Table 5 presents the descriptive presentation of level of cultural intelligence of language learners participating in the study. Descriptive data presented in the table consists of the number and percentage of participants in each category of cultural intelligence. According to the descriptive data, motivational cultural intelligence which refers to the ability to direct attention and energy toward learning about and functioning in situations which are characterized by cultural differences accommodated the highest number of participants (33.33 percent) while behavioral cultural intelligence which refers to the ability to show appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions in interaction with people from different cultures accommodated the lowest number of participants (16.67 percent).

18

IJLLALW

Table 5: Descriptive Presentation of Cultural Intelligence

Type of Cultural Intelligence	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
Metacognitive	16	26.67
Cognitive	14	23.33
Motivational	20	33.33
Behavioral	10	16.67

Table 6 presents the descriptive presentation of ability to produce target language conventional expressions for language learners participating in the study. Descriptive data presented in the table consists of the number and percentage of participants for each level of ability to produce target language conventional expressions. According to the descriptive data, the majority of participants presented their ability to produce target language conventional expressions at a satisfactory level (91.67 percent). As the data shows, 25 percent of participants presented their ability to produce target language conventional expressions at a high level ('native-like' level), 66.67 percent of participants presented their ability to produce target language conventional expressions at an acceptable level ('slightly off, but acceptable' level), and only 8.33 percent of participants presented their ability to produce target language conventional expressions at a low level ('obviously off' level). None of the participants, however, presented their ability to produce target language conventional expressions at a 'cannot evaluate' level.

Table 6: Descriptive Presentation of Ability to Produce Conventional Expressions

Production of Conventional Expressions	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
Native-like	15	25.00
Slightly off, but acceptable	40	66.67
Obviously off	5	8.33
Cannot evaluate	0	0.00

Table 7 presents the results of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) analysis between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and the ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately. The first thing to consider in correlation analysis is the direction of the relationship between the variables (level of cultural intelligence and ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately). The data shows that there is a positive relationship between the two variables, that is, the higher the level of cultural intelligence the higher the ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately. The second thing to consider in correlation analysis is the size of the value of the correlation coefficient. This value will indicate the strength of the relationship between the two variables (level of cultural intelligence and ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately). The value of correlation coefficient obtained in the analysis of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) is 0.87 which according to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) to interpret the values of correlation coefficient suggests quite a strong relationship between the level of cultural intelligence and ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately.

IJLLALW

Table 6: Correlations

		Cultural Intelligence	Conventional Expressions
Cultural Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	0.870**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	60	60
Conventional Expressions	Pearson Correlation	0.870**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	60	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

To get an idea of how much variance the two variables (level of cultural intelligence and ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately) share, the coefficient of determination was calculated. This can be obtained by squaring the correlation value. The coefficient of determination for the obtained correlation analysis is $r^2 = (0.87)^2 = 0.7569$ which according to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) to interpret the values of coefficient of determination suggests a very large correlation coefficient. To convert the value of coefficient of determination to 'percentage of variance', it was multiplied by 100, that is, $r^2 = (0.87)^2 \times 100 = 75.69$. This suggests that level of cultural intelligence helps to explain nearly 76 percent of the variance in language learners' ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately.

Discussion
The study found that level of cultural intelligence is a strong predictor of ability to produce target language conventional expressions. Language learners who possessed a higher level of cultural intelligence demonstrated their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately according to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic norms of the target language at a higher level than language learners who possessed a lower level of cultural intelligence. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study which states that there is no relationship between language learners' level of cultural intelligence and their ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately is rejected.

These findings can be explained through the fact that higher level of cultural intelligence facilitates navigation and understanding unfamiliar cultures and adjusting behaviors to perform effectively in culturally diverse situations (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Rosen et al., 2000; Thomas & Inkson, 2005). Language learners who were more culturally intelligent were consciously aware of target language people's cultural preferences before and during interactions and adjusted their mental models before and during interactions (metacognitive cultural intelligence), were able to understand the similarities and differences across cultures (cognitive cultural intelligence), were able to direct attention and energy toward cross-cultural situations based on intrinsic interest and confidence in their cross-cultural effectiveness (motivational cultural intelligence), and showed situationally appropriate behaviors based on their broad range of verbal and nonverbal abilities (behavioral cultural intelligence) (Ang et al., 2007). This awareness and knowledge of target language cultural features ideally prepared them for producing target language conventional expressions appropriately according to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic norms of the target language.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

These findings can be also attributed to the fact that language learners who were more culturally intelligent were definitely equipped with the awareness of pragmatic differences between their native language and the target language. This awareness certainly led them to learn target language pragmatic features through contact with target language speakers and exposure to target language culture during their sojourn experience. Therefore, they developed the ability to use expressions which are appropriate according to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic norms of the target language during their intercultural interactions. However, language learners who were less culturally intelligent definitely were not aware of pragmatic differences between their native language and the target language. Therefore, pragmatic features of the target language must have gone unnoticed to a great extent by them in social interactions during their educational sojourn. The ignorance of target language pragmatic features, consequently, led them to use expressions which were although linguistically correct but pragmatically inappropriate according to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic norms of the target language during their intercultural interactions.

The findings obtained in the current study are in line with the findings obtained in the study conducted by Taguchi (2013) who found that study-abroad experience contributed to the appropriate production of target language conventional expressions. The findings obtained in the current study are also consistent with the findings obtained in the study conducted by Rafieyan et al. (2014a) who found that language learners who were more aware of target language pragmatic features had a higher ability to appropriately comprehend and produce target language conventional expressions than language learners who were less aware of target language pragmatic features.

CONCLUSION
The study revealed a strong positive relationship between level of cultural intelligence and ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately. In the current study, language learners who exhibited a higher level of cultural intelligence managed to produce target language conventional expressions more appropriately according to the conventional rules of target language culture than language learners who exhibited a lower level of cultural intelligence. Therefore, it is suggested to provide more opportunities for language learners in English as foreign language contexts to be exposed to and assimilate in target language culture through telecollaborative partnership, educational sojourn, and pragmatic instruction.

The study was limited in some ways, however. First of all, the study did not consider the role of level of contact with target language people and intensity of interactions with them in the development of participants' ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately during their academic sojourn. Regardless of the level of cultural intelligence, language learners who had more opportunities to interact with target language people could gain more knowledge of target language pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features and subsequently higher ability to produce target language conventional expressions appropriately than language learners who had less interaction with target language people. Also, the study was conducted based on a cross-sectional design which did not trace participants' pragmatic gains

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 12-23   *Rafieyan, V*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

during their educational sojourn. Therefore, future studies are recommended to consider the role of contact and intensity of interaction on a longitudinal design.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., & Tay, C., et al. (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation, and Task Performance. *Management and Organization Review, 3*(3), 335–371. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-Based and Time-Based Models of International Adjustment: Meta-analytic Evidence and Theoretical Extensions. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(2), 257–281. http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.16928400

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2009). Conventional Expressions as a Pragmalinguistic Resource: Recognition and Production of Conventional Expressions in L2 Pragmatics. *Language Learning, 59*(4), 755-795. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00525.x

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of Meaning of Conventional Expressions in Second-Language Pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1-2), 41-56. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2013.863894

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Vellenga, H. E. (2012). The Effect of Instruction on Conventional Expressions in L2 Pragmatics. *System, 40*(1), 77-89. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.01.004

Chen, A. S., Lin, Y., & Sawangpattanakul, A. (2011). The Relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Performance with the Mediating Effect of Culture Shock: A Case from Philippine Laborers in Taiwan**.** *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 35*(2), 246–258. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2010.09.005

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Coulmas, F. (1981). *Conversational Routine: Explorations in Standardized Communication Situations and Prepatterned Speech*. The Hague: Mouton.

Earley, P. C. (2002). Redefining Interactions across Cultures and Organizations: Moving Forward with Cultural Intelligence. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 24*, 271–299. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(02)24008-3

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions across Cultures*. Palo Alto, Calif: Stanford University Press.

Earley, P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural Intelligence. *Harvard Business Review, 82*(10), 139–146.

Edmondson, W., & House, J. (1991). Do Learners Talk Too Much? The Waffle Phenomenon in Interlanguage Pragmatics. In R. Phillipson, E. Kellerman, L. Selinker, M. Sharwood

IJLLALW

Smith, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Foreign/Second Language Pedagogy Research: A Commemorative Volume for Claus Faerch* (pp. 273–287). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2013). *Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences*. Belmont, C A: Wadsworth Publishing.

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The Silent Language*. New York: Doubleday.

Kanfer, R., & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Motivational Traits and Skills: A Person-Centered Approach to Work Motivation. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 19*, 1–56.

Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). The Measurement of Observer Agreement for Categorical Data. *Biometrics, 33*(1), 159-174. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2529310

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS Program* (5th ed.). Australia: Allen & Unwin.

Rafieyan, V., Sharafi-Nejad, M., & Lin, S. E. (2014a). Effect of Pragmatic Awareness on Comprehension and Production of Conventional Expressions. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 4*(7), 1352-1358. http://dx.doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.7.1352-1358

Rafieyan, V., Sharafi-Nejad, M., & Lin, S. E. (2014b). Effect of Form-focused Pragmatic Instruction on Production of Conventional Expressions. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 4*(8), 586-1592. http://dx.doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.8.1586-1592

Rosen, R. H., Digh, P., Phillips, C., & Rosen, R. T. (2000). *Global Literacies: Lessons on Business Leadership and National Cultures*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Saldanha, G., & O'Brien, S. (2014). *Research Methodologies in Translation Studies*. New Tork, NY: Routledge.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of Routines in L2 English: Effect of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience. *System, 41*(1), 109-121. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.01.003

Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2006). Motivational Cultural Intelligence, Realistic Job Previews, and Realistic Living Conditions Preview, and Cross-Cultural Adjustment. *Group and Organization Management, 31*(1), 154–173. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601105275293

Thomas, D. C., & Inkson, K. (2005). Cultural Intelligence: People Skills for a Global Workforce. *Consulting To Management, 16*(1), 5–10.

IJLLALW

A SOCIOLINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF EXPRESSIONS OF POLITENESS IN SPOKEN AKAN DISCOURSE: A CASE OF BARGAINING IN AKAN MARKET SETTING

Emmanuel Amo Ofori
University of Cape Coast, Department of Ghanaian Language and Linguistics, Cape Coast,
Ghana
Email: eofori@ucc.edu.gh

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses a sociolinguistic analysis of expressions of politeness in spoken Akan discourse. It seeks to address questions such as: what kinds of politeness strategies are employed by both sellers and buyers? What do they achieve with the use of these expressions? Is the use of these expressions a way of fulfilling a cultural obligation or they are just persuasive act? The analysis of the data shows the consistent use of the Akan politeness expression mepawokyɛw 'please' in bargaining conversation. This expression is used in the market regardless of ones age, gender and social status. That is, there is no show of power relations in bargaining conversation compared to other Akan discourses such as the chief's court, greetings etc. The study further reveals that the use of honorifics/address terms such as ɔsɔfo 'Pastor', ɔhemaa 'queen' and Nana 'Chief' serves as persuasive strategies used to win the heart of a buyer or a seller. Thus, persuasion is seen as bidirectional in Akan market with regard to the buyer and the seller. This study adds to the growing body of studies in the relationship between politeness expressions and persuasion in sociolinguistics research.

KEYWORDS: Sociolinguistics, Politeness, Persuasion, Bargaining, Market, Akan

INTRODUCTION

Bargaining is a type of negotiation in which a buyer and a seller of a good and service negotiate the price to be paid for an item with the hope of reaching an agreement. It is an alternative pricing strategy to fixed prices. It is very common in many parts of the world, especially in developing countries, although less prevalent in Europe and North America. Such transactions take place in the open market system where prices are not fixed. From personal observation at the market, it became obvious that both sellers and buyers apply their competence in their native language, coupled with their cultural understanding to bargain for a good price. If both speakers speak the same language, it creates a very smooth atmosphere for the commencement of bargaining conversation. The reverse is true because language barrier can hinder the flow of bargaining. The language used in the recorded bargaining conversation is Akan-Twi for both the seller and the buyer.

Akan is a language which belongs to the Kwa sub-group of Niger-Congo family in West-Africa, spoken in Ghana. Ghana has a total of ten regions. Out of these, Akan speakers constitute almost

24

five of these regions. These are: Brong-Ahafo, Ashanti, Western, Central and Eastern regions. Akan has a number of easily distinguishable dialects. These are Asante, Akuapem, Fante, Agona, Akyem, Wassa, Bono, Kwahu, Ahafo, Assin, Akwamu and Denkyira. These dialects have varying degrees of mutual intelligibility between and among them. Of these dialects, only Asante, Akuapem and Fante have gained literary status. The data for this work were gathered from the Asante dialect of Akan.

The paper has been divided into six sections. Section 1 is the introduction; section 2 focuses on the theoretical framework and the literature review; section 3 looks at the data collection method; while section 4 presents the analysis and discussion of the data: Akan politeness expression *'mepawokyεw,'* as a politeness strategy, and persuasion and honorific; and section 6 presents the conclusion of the study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Politeness Theory
Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) propounded the face saving view of politeness. It is the most widely applied of all the theories of politeness, and has been in existence for the past three decades. Their theory of politeness is based on the notion of 'face' which was derived from Goffman (1967) and from the English folk term, which ties face up with notions of being embarrassed or humiliated, or 'losing face'. Their theory is hinged on three concepts, namely: (1) face (2) face threatening acts and (3) politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) explain the concept of face using the statement below:

We make the following assumptions: that all competent adult members of a society have (and know each other to have) (i) "face", the public self-image that every member wants to claim for her/himself, consisting in two related aspects: (a) negative face: the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction-i.e. to freedom of action and freedom from imposition; (b) positive face: the positive consistent self-image or 'personality' (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of claimed by interactants). (p. 61)

Brown and Levinson claim that in every interaction, there is the tendency for one to violate these components of face. For example, insults can make the hearer to lose his/her positive face because the speaker shows disregard for the hearer's wants. On the other hand, invitation affects the negative face of the hearer in that the speaker impedes the freedom of action of the hearer. According to Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), every social interaction or discourse involves the performance of potential face threatening acts (FTAs), and these acts can result in a speaker or a hearer's losing of his/her face. Brown and Levinson propose three micro strategies for redressing FTAs. These are (1) do the act on record, which includes the substrategy of bald on record and the substrategy with redressive action, (2) off the record.

Every speaker, when responding to an utterance, must first decide whether to perform the FTA or not. If he/she decides to do so, then consideration should be put on whether to perform the FTA

25

on record or off record. A direct utterance is bald on record when it makes no attempt to minimize face threats. For example, eat the food now, now! On record redressive action, on the other hand, contains positive strategy and negative strategy. Brown and Levinson (1987) explain redressive action below:

By redressive action we mean action that "give face" to the addressee, that is, that attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA by doing it in such a way, or with such modifications or additions, that indicate clearly that no such face threat is intended or desired, and that in general recognizes H's face wants and her/himself wants them to be achieved. (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69-70)

Positive politeness strategies are applied to minimize potential threat to the hearer/addressee's positive face wants. For example, in making the request 'I am really proud of you; you always give me salt to put into my soup, thank you very much! Could you give me some salt, will you? Negative politeness strategies, on the hand, are applied to utterances which are less likely to threaten the hearer/addressee's negative face. For example, 'I'm sorry, please forgive me, are you the son of Obama? When a speaker uses an off record strategy, the speaker giving hints to convey his/her intention. For example, a child telling the father 'I lost my shoes'. This may indicate that the child wants the father to buy him/her new shoes. The last strategy is don't do the FTA.

In sum, in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, politeness is evaluated based on the weight of a given FTA; that is, the greater the likelihood that the speaker or hearer will lose face with the performance of the FTA, the more impolite that expression will be and vice versa (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Thus, politeness is a demonstration of a speaker's effort or ability to mitigate the face threat of a particular FTA by means of politeness strategies.

Literature Review
People around the world communicate in different ways. The choice of words, phrases and reactions differ from person to person and from culture to culture; yet we all have certain basic things in common. As claimed by Brown and Levinson (1987), people of every culture have two fundamental needs: (1) every human being wants to be accepted and liked at the same time strives to preserve the control over his or her action; and (2) freedom not to be constantly impinged on by others. This reflects the idea that politeness is expressed in all cultures but in different ways because what would be polite in one culture would not necessarily be polite in another culture. This is evident in a research conducted by Rash (2004) who shows how German-speaking Swiss adhere to strict conventions of polite behaviour, which have been eroded over time in the English-speaking world. The research indicates that speakers of Swiss-German, both young and old, and from all walks of life, believe that it is important to retain their traditional politeness rituals, and that greetings formulae are especially important. Speakers of Swiss-German are proud to keep this ritual of politeness because they believe that politeness is important for social cohesion and a sign of respect and affection for one's fellow human being.

Habwe (2010) also conducted a study on Kiswahili honorifics, and he pointed out that honorifics are used to complement politeness strategies in both formal and informal encounters. He

IJLLALW

explained further that in Africa, politeness is preferred because it defines and sustains social hierarchies which are used to show respect and esteem. An earlier research by Agyekum (2003) shows how Akans are much particular with the use of address terms or honorifics. He pointed out in his work that the language of persuasion and honorifics go hand in hand. He mentioned categorically that, communicatively, competent Akan speakers achieve their goals in communicative encounters by persuading their addressee(s): that is, by according them with some form of deference and placing them on a higher social-status than themselves. Agyekum's work is in line with how buyers and sellers alike in Akan informal market would want to address their prospective customers with appropriate address terms in order to persuade them. The difference between his work and the present study is that his focus was on the entire honorifics and indexing in Akan communication. This paper, however, concentrates on these address terms as used in a market setting where language can be said to be in its natural occurrence. Participants involved in the talk exchange are in a position to express themselves freely in a natural language while attempting to persuading their addressee as far as buying or selling of a product is concerned.

A closely related work that was done in Akan about the language of persuasion and politeness was in Akan judicial discourse by Obeng (1997). He mentioned in his work that persuasions and politeness go hand in hand, and emphasizes that Akan legal professionals employ various persuasion strategies when entering a plea for their client in order to prevent face-threats. He explained further that subordinates tend to speak with deference to superordinates since greater attention is paid to the relative socio-cultural roles and positions of the discourse participants. The difference between Obeng's work and the present study is that he focused on persuasion and politeness in Akan judicial discourse where power relation is much revealed. However, in a bargaining setting, there is nothing like power relations because the seller/buyer shows a sign of deference, which is a natural disposition regardless of differences like age, social status or gender between the buyer and the seller. Signs of verbal politeness are usually required to avoid an undesirable outcome of the encounter, both in order to get through the bargaining process with the gain for both parties and in order to establish good relations for future interactions at the market.

An important aspect to politeness is the theory of face, as mentioned in the literature review of this study. Akans are people who have high expectations for face, and this is seen in the work of Agyekum (2004). According to Agyekum, face is very important in Akan society because premium is attached to communal rather than individual tendencies. This is reflected in Akan face expressions which are derived from physical changes that occur on one'sface. This is important in the present work because the researcher would be able to deduce why buyers and sellers use polite expressions, and those who do not pay attention to the face of others may be considered as impolite. Agyekum's work centred on the general perspective of face as perceived by Akans, but this work looks at how this idea of face is attended to by both sellers and buyers in bargaining talk exchange in natural Akan market setting.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The analysis of this study is based on the following questions:

1.   What kinds of politeness strategies are employed by both sellers and buyers?
2.   What do they achieve with the use of these expressions?
3.   Is the use of these expressions a way of fulfilling a cultural obligation or they are just persuasive act?

DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The data for this study were obtained from recording of bargaining conversation from an Akan informal market setting. It was originally recorded in 2007 at the Kumasi central market in Ghana. The data were originally used for my Masters Thesis titled "Explicitness and Implicitness in communication: a case study of Communication in Akan informal market setting".

I recorded bargaining conversations from daily and weekly markets as well as different groups of people such as wholesalers, retailers and buyers. The emphasis here is on the recordings of interactions among Akan sellers and buyers at the Kumasi central market, Ghana. The portion that was used for the analyses of this work was sampled out of ten bargaining recordings relevant to the work. The sampled data were transcribed and used for the analyses. Particular care was taken to represent accurate features associated with sequential development of talk that is transition from one speaker to the next seller-buyer; buyer-seller in that order. The recorded conversation represents actual verbal behaviour of speakers collected in a natural setting. The use of recorded materials for research work is very effective because it helps in getting 'authentic' data from a natural language setting. As a native speaker of Akan, I used my intuitive native speaker's competence in the gathering of the data. In the following section, I explore the use of the Akan politeness expression *mepawokyɛw* meaning *please* in bargaining talk exchange in Akan market. (Note that in this paper participants in the talk exchange will be addressed as buyers and sellers. The context of the talk exchange would also be indicated).

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The Akan politeness expression 'mepawokyɛw' as a politeness strategy

The data analysed show that both buyers and sellers use the politeness expression *mepawokyɛw* as a strategy in bargaining. The use of this expression is very common in Akan discourses such as greetings, request, etc. It is common for most Akan speakers to use such an expression irrespective of the speech event or occasion of the talk exchange. However, the consistent use of such an expression in the market is worthy of attention since both buyers and sellers do not only use it to satisfy a cultural obligation, but to achieve a particular communicative purpose.

[Context 1: This talk exchange took place in an informal market setting where goods were displayed openly so that anyone could walk in and make a choice. This is popularly known as *bend-down-boutique*. The buyer is the one who sets the pace by asking the price of the cloth.]

    Buyer: Nana, me-pa-wo-kyɛw   me-re-tɔ   ntoma
            Chief I-remove-you-cap   I-prog-buy cloth
            'Chief, please, I am buying cloth.'

28

IJLLALW

Seller: ɔhemaa, ntoma bɛn   saa   na   wo pɛ?
        Queen   cloth which that COMP you want
        Me wɔ Holland ne ATL, bɛ-hwɛ   mu
        I   have Holland and ATL INGR-look inside
        na   yi   deɛ wo pɛ
        and remove   which   you want.
        'Queen! Which kind of cloth do you prefer? I have Holland and ATL.
        Come, have a look at them and take your pick.'

Buyer: Me-pa-wo-kyɛw   me-pɛ Holland ntoma no   bi, yɛ de
        I-remove-you-cap   I-want Holland cloth   DEF some we use
        re-kɔ-hyia   ayeforɔ
        PROG-OPT-meet wedding
        'Please, I want some of the Holland cloth. We are going to use it for a
        wedding ceremony.'

As already mentioned, it is worth noting that within the Akan cultural setting, the word *mepawokyɛw* which translates *please*, but which literally refers to *I remove my cap for you* or *I doff my cap for you* is used purposely to show humility, and it is used whether or not the speaker is actually wearing a cap or hat or any headgear. The origin of the expression is transparent, though it is not respectful to address an elderly person while wearing a cap. It is always proper or culturally acceptable that one removes the cap to show how humble and respectful he/she towards others. This is a common expression used by both sellers and buyers to show respect to one another in the talk exchange. That said, the use of *mepawokyɛw* is not obligatory for opponents in a talk exchange. They are free to use it whenever they deem it appropriate, and it is therefore not possible to predict exactly when it will appear. Besides its frequency in initial turns, the use of this expression is typical of situations where the seller seems not to agree with the price quoted by the buyer, or vice versa, a typical situation of 'face work' may seem to be necessary in order to minimize the risk of a breakdown in the conversational interaction. See the dialogue below.

[Context 2: This is a talk exchange that took place between two gentlemen in a way-side bargaining situation, in which sellers are seen holding their goods waiting for potential buyers along the streets. The buyer apparently had not prepared for this kind of purchase but the beauty of the pair of shorts attracted his attention, and therefore decided to enter into a bargaining conversation with the intention of possibly buying the shorts.]

        Buyer₁: Nika   yi   ɛ-yɛ sɛn?
            Shorts this   it-is what
            'What is the price of this pair of shorts?'

        Seller: Me-pa-wo-kyɛw, ɛ-yɛ 12
           I-remove-you-cap   it-is 12
           'Please, you can have it for 12 Ghana cedis.'

IJLLALW

Buyer: Ma me ma   wo 6, Nana
     Let me give you 6 chief
     'Let me give you 6 Ghana cedis Chief.'

Seller: Me-pa-wo-kyɛw, ɛ-n-yɛ
     I-remove-you-cap it-NEG-is
     'Please, it (price) is not good.'

The discrepancy in the prices quoted by both the seller and the buyer is quite revealing, because the buyer wants the product half the price of the seller. This is a case of potential conflict between the buyer and the seller due to disagreement in the cost of the goods that the buyer is interested in. In such cases, the use of the politeness expression *mepawokyɛw* or such a sign of deference is natural regardless of the differences like age or gender between buyer and seller is expected. Signs of verbal politeness are usually required to avoid an undesirable outcome of the encounter, both in order to get through the bargaining process with a gain for both parties, and in order to establish good relations for future interactions at the market. Obviously, this is not peculiar to the Akan society; it is part of the natural dispositions of people interacting in some business all over the world.

The purpose of *mepawokyɛw* by the seller is to display polite behaviour on the part of a salesman who ought to be service-minded. It is also used to mitigate face-threatening acts; that is, such a politeness expression helps to maintain the addressee's positive face (Brown and Levinson 1987) since its use implies that the speaker approves of the image of the buyer. In every talk exchange, therefore, there must be co-operation on the part of each participant to try and maintain, save, defend and respect the face of himself/herself and that of his/her counterpart. This is in line with Agyekum (2004) who argues that the social aspect of face is very important in Akan societies where premium is attached to communal rather than individual tendencies. Thus, interlocutors in the talk exchange must pay attention to both the negative and positive face of their addressees.

It is important to note that in bargaining, there is no show of power relations as reflected in most discourses around the world with respect to the use of politeness expression. Obeng (1997) indicates that in Akan judicial discourse subordinates tend to speak with deference to superordinates since one must pay attention to the relevant sociocultural roles and power relations of the discourse participants. In Akan market setting, however, buyers and sellers tend to be polite irrespective of the age or gender of the addressee. No one is considered a superior as far as bargaining is concerned. This scenario can be analysed in two ways: first there could be a cultural reasons; that is, it is culturally very relevant for Akan speakers to pay attention to the social aspect of face and so no matter who the addressee is, he or she must be accorded the necessary respect. A competent Akan speaker who does otherwise is considered impolite. Secondly in the Akan market, sellers tend to be polite in selling their goods in order to gain profit while buyers also do so to get relatively low price for goods bought- this being a typical case of marketing strategy of persuasion (See the next section for the discussion on persuasion.) Therefore, sellers and buyers combine cultural obligations and persuasion to achieve their relevant goals in the market.

IJLLALW

Persuasion and Honorifics/Address Terms

Persuasion is a communicative strategy that speakers use to elicit behavioural compliance with their wishes. It is an intentional and non-coercive influence employed to change an addressee's values, attitudes and beliefs (Griffin, 2000; Oliver, 1957; Ryan, 1992). In a broader sense, persuasion is any form of discourse that influences thought, feelings and conduct. Books and Heath (1993: 360) also define persuasion as "an individual's psychological orientation and habits of responding to and processing information are related to persuasibility". Communicatively, competent Akan speakers achieve their goals in communicative encounters by persuading their addressee(s), by according them some form of deference, and by placing them at a higher social-status level than themselves. The use of deferential honorific terms of address forms is one of the techniques used in bargaining talk exchanges. The use of deferential titles as terms of address and reference is a significant act of politeness and, hence, persuasive strategy. Among the deferential titles used in bargaining conversations are *Nana* "Chief", *ɔhemaa* 'Queen mother' and *ɔsɔfo* "Pastor".

In contexts 1 and 2, the use of the address term *Nana* by the buyer to refer to the seller is a formal title which indicates politeness on the part of the buyer. He uses this address term to honour the addressee by raising her status and simultaneously humbling himself by lowering his status. The title *Nana* and *ɔhemaa* are kinship terms typically acquired by only royals. Thus, to refer to a seller as *Nana* simply because you are buying something is inducive enough to win the heart of a seller so that one gets a good deal.

[Context 3: This is a bargaining situation that took place between a man and a woman. The woman comes to the market on a weekly basis, purposefully to buy goods in bulk and later sell them in her village.]

    Seller: Customer, na wo ho   te   sɛn?
           Customer, and you body stay how
            "Customer, how is it?"

   Buyer: Me ho yɛ,   ɔsɔfo, me-bɛ-tu   wo nooma no   bi
        I body good pastor I-FUT-uproot you goods DEF some
        "I am fine, Pastor, I will like to buy some of your goods in bulk."

   Seller: Wo ba   ha na wo a-yɛ   me sɔfo sɔfo   saa na wo a-bu   me
        You come here and you PERF-do I pastor pastor that and you PERF-break I
        na   wo de kɔ
        then you be go
        'Any time you come here, you intentionally call me 'pastor, pastor' so that
        you can have a cheap offer.'

The buyer's use of the address term *'ɔsɔfo'* ('pastor') is an attempt to groom the seller by calling him something that functions almost like a metaphor, her purpose being to obtain a fair price for what she intends to purchase. She knows, and he knows that she knows, that he is not a pastor by profession, but the label is used as a praise term here. Pastors are supposed to be kind and

31

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 24-36   *Emmanuel Amo Ofori*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

considerate in whatever they do, hence the application of that term. The idea is that the buyer transfers properties associated with pastors to this seller, hence the word has all the characteristics of a metaphor. Usually when someone uses a metaphor – whether a creative one or conventionalized one – the standard assumption is that what the metaphorical expression appears to denote (due to its descriptive content) is not what it refers to. When someone utters ''John is a bulldozer'', we say that ''bulldozer'' is a metaphor, because we understand that the properties attributed to John by means of the predicate ''(is) a bulldozer'' are certain salient properties of bulldozers but not all features of bulldozers, because John is not an inanimate vehicle (which a true bulldozer IS) but a human being who frequently behaves like a bulldozer in certain respects. But when a metaphorical expression is used as an address term, i.e. as a vocative term that refers to the 2nd person addressee, there can be no doubt about the identity of the referent, because if it is clear that the expression is an address term, it will necessarily refer to the addressee, no matter what the descriptive content of the expression seems to be. Thus, the issue when a metaphor has a vocative function (as address term) is not what the speaker refers to by means of the metaphor but whether or not the metaphorical address term creates a cognitive effect that would not have been as manifestly communicated if a more neutral address term that expresses something entirely true about the addressee had been chosen instead.

The buyer is trying to flatter the seller by means of the term 'pastor' because, as it is known in some parts of the world, and especially in Ghana, a 'pastor' is a person that people hold in high esteem, so the speaker's intention is that she has a very high opinion of the seller. She uses this highly positive address term in order to make the seller more willing to reduce the price of the goods she plans to buy from him, a typical case of persuasion.

The seller responds to the buyer addressing him as "pastor' by stepping out of the immediate discussion and making a general comment on the buyer's behaviour whenever she comes to him as a customer. He apparently accuses the buyer by trying to get a favourable price by cajoling him with the address term *ɔsɔfo*.' The seller is here threatening what Brown and Levinson's (1987) call the interlocutor's positive face. She is now being criticised for having labelled him a pastor- an address term which seems to have irritated him for quite a long time. Positive face, according to Brown and Levinson, is the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others. They point out that the definition of positive face is adequately achieved only if certain interpretations are borne in mind. First of all, the wants that a member wants others to find desirable may actually have been satisfied; furthermore, positive face is adequately achieved on the view that the objects of desire are propositions like 'I am a nice person', 'I have beautiful roses', natural-language expressions of wanting often leave the subject and predicate unspecified and finally, in general, the persons want their goals, possessions, and achievement to be thought desirable not just by anyone, but by some particular others especially relevant to the particular goals. The seller threatens the final interpretation of positive face because the goal of the buyer is to achieve a reduction in the price of the goods, but the seller who is instrumental to achieving that particular goal of the buyer threatens the positive face of the buyer. The implicature here is that the seller is suggesting that it might be a good idea for the buyer to stop trying to flatter him by calling him 'pastor'. His accusation is a very good example of the fact that he has seen through the ultimate informative intention behind her constant use of the address term 'pastor'.

He was supposed to be made to feel good but he was not supposed to be able to recognize her intention to influence him so that she, not he, will be the victorious person when the bargaining process is over. When she uses the vocative term 'pastor', she has no communicative intention that her informative intention be recognized, so her choice of address term counts as 'covert communication', to use the terminology adopted within the framework of Relevance Theory.

Therefore, the use of honorifics or address terms indicates that sellers and buyers use such terms to honour and persuade their addressees with the intention of getting what in their estimation is a good deal. Thus, honorifics and persuasion go hand-in-hand. We can therefore conclude that address terms such as *'ɔsɔfo', ɔhemaa* and *Nana* are used in Akan informal market purposely to persuade prospective buyers and sellers alike.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have attempted to show the use of the politeness expression *'mepawokyɛw'* in Akan informal market. The study showed that this expression is used in the market as politeness strategy to fulfil a cultural obligation and as a persuasive act. It is also used to mitigate face-threatening acts in terms of potential conflict situation that may arise due to disagreement in pricing. The discussion also reveals that this expression is used regardless of the age and gender of the addressee, and that there is no power relation or positional roles in the market compared to other Akan discourse settings like the court. The study further reveals that address terms are used in the market as politeness strategies to persuade the addressee in question, be it buyer or seller, thereby suggesting that persuasion is bidirectional. This study is limited to spoken Akan discourse in bargaining conversation in the market. The findings cannot be extended to other spoken discourses within the Akan speech community.

REFERENCES

Agyekum, K. (2004). The Sociocultural Concept of Face in Akan Communication.
        Journal of Pragmatics and Cognition, 12(1), 71-92.
Agyekum, K. (2003). Honorifics and Status Indexing in Akan Communication. *Journal of*
        Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 24(5), 369-385.
Brooks, W.D., & Heath, R.W. (1993). *Speech Communication* (7th ed.) Madison: Brown and
        Benchmark Communications.
Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language use: Politeness phenomena. In
        Questions and Politeness, Esther Goody (ed.), 256-311. Cambridge: Cambridge
        University Press.
Brown, P., & Levinson S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage.*
        Cambridge University Press.
Goffman, E. (1967). *Interactional Ritual. Essay on Face-to-Face Behaviour.* Garden City, NY:
        Doubleday.
Griffin, E. (2000). *A First Look at Communication Theory* (4th edn). Boston Burr Ridge:
        McGraw-Hill.

Habwe, J. H. (2010). Politeness Phenomenon: A case study of Kiswahili Honorifics. *Swahili Forum,* 17 (2010), 126-142.

Obeng, S. G. (1997) Communication Strategies: Persuasion and Politeness in Akan Judicial Discourse *Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse, 17 (1),* 25-52.

Ofori, E. A. (2008). *Explicitness and Implicitness in Communication: A Case Study of Communication in Akan Informal Market Setting.* Mphil Thesis, Norwegian University of Science and Technology.

Oliver, R.T. (1957). *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech* (2nd edn). New York: Longmans.

Rash, F. (2004). Linguistic Politeness and Greeting Rituals in German-Speaking Switzerland. *Linguistik online*.

Ryan, H. (1992). *Classical Communication for the Contemporary Communicator*. London Mayfield

Appendix

[Context1: This talk exchange took place in an informal market setting where goods were displayed openly so that anyone could walk in and make a choice. This is popularly known as *bend-down-boutique*. The buyer is the one who sets the pace by asking the price of the cloth.]

Buyer₁: Nana, mepa   wo kyεw me re-tɔ   ntoma
       Chief   I remove   you cap   I prog-buy cloth
       'Chief, please, I am buying cloth.'

Seller₁: ɔhemaa, ntoma bεn   saa   na   wo pε?
       Queen   cloth   which kind COMP you want
       Me wɔ Holland ne ATL, bε-hwε   mu
       I   have Holland and ATL INGR-look inside
       na   yi   dee   wo   pε
       and remove which   you want.
       'Queen! What kind of cloth do you prefer? I have Holland and ATL. Come,   have a   look   at them and take your
pick.'

Buyer₂: Mepa   wo kyεw   me pε   Holland ntoma no   bi, yε de
       I-remove you cap   I want Holland cloth DEF some we use
       re-kɔ-hyia   ayeforoɔ
       PROG-OPT-meet   bride
      'Please, I want some of the Holland cloth. We are going to use it for a
      wedding ceremony.'

Seller₂: εneε, wei bεfata   wo   paa
       Then this FUT-fit you   well
       'Then, this will really fit you'

Buyer₃: Nana, na   εyε   sεn?
       chief then it-be   what
       'Chief, so what is the price?'

Seller₃: ɔhemaa, εyε 600,000 cedis pε!
       Queen   it-be 600,000 cedis only
       'Queen, it is only 600,000 cedis!'

Buyer₄: Nana, na wo n-te   so koraa
       Chief so you neg-reduce on at all
       'Chief, so won't you reduce it at all'

Seller₄: Ayε wo ara   nti   fa   590,000 cedis bra

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 24-36   *Emmanuel Amo Ofori*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

    Be you own because take 590,000 cedis come
    'For your sake I will accept 590,000 cedis'

Buyer₅: Nana mɛ-ma   wo 400,000 cedis
    Chief I-give you 400,000 cedis
    'Chief, I can offer you 400,000 cedis'

Seller₅: Ɔhemaa, fa   kakra to me so na me mfa   ɛ-ma wo
    Queen take small add I on and I   FUT-take give you
    'Queen, just add a little amount to it and I can let you have it'

Buyer₆: Nana wo   n-nye   420,000?
    Chief you neg-collect 420,000
    'Nana won't you accept 420,000?'

Seller6: M'awuraa obi   bɛ   ma-a me 450,000 nso ma-n-nye!
    My lady someone INGR give-PST 450,000 but   I PST neg-collect
    'My lady, someone even offered 450,000 but I didn't accept it!'

[Context 2: This is a talk exchange that took place between two gentlemen in a way-side bargaining situation, in which sellers are seen holding their goods waiting for potential buyers along the streets. The buyer apparently had not prepared for this kind of purchase but the beauty of the pair of shorts attracted his attention, and therefore decided to enter into a bargaining conversation with the intention of possibly buying the shorts.]

Buyer₁: Nika   yi   ɛ-yɛ sɛn?
    Shorts this it-is what
    'What is the price of this pair of shorts?'

Seller₁: Me-pa   wo kyɛw, ɛ-yɛ 120
    I remove you cap it-is 120
    'Please, you can have it for 120,000'

Buyer₂: 120? Na waist no   ɛ-yɛ sɛn?
    120   So waist DEF it-is what
    '120,000 cedis? What is the waist size of the pair of shorts?'

Seller₂: Waist no   ɛ-yɛ 32
    Waist DEF it- is 32
    'The waist size is 32 cms'

Buyer₃: 120 deɛ anoɔden!   Wo n-te   so kakra mma me?
    120 as-for mouth-hard you NEG-reduce on small for me
    Wo   last price ɛ-yɛ sɛn ?
    you last price it-is what
  '120,000 is too expensive! Won't you reduce it for me? What is your final price?'

Seller₃: Last price? Mɛtumi   de   a-ma   wo 70
    Last price I-FUT-can be PEF-give you 70
    'Last price? I can let you have it for 70, 000 cedis'

Buyer₄: Me ma   wo 20 wo n-nye?
    I   give you 20 you NEG-collect
    'I can offer 20,000 cedis. Won't you accept it?'

Seller₄: Me-pa   wo kyɛw daabi
    I-remove you cap   no
    'With due respect/please, no'

IJLLALW

[Context 3: This is a bargaining situation that took place between a man and a woman. The woman comes to the market on a weekly basis, purposefully to buy goods in bulk and later sell them in her village.]

Seller₁: Customer, na wo ho   te   sɛn?
     Customer, and you body stay how
      'Customer, how is it?'

Buyer₁: Me ho   yɛ, sɔfo me-bɛ-tu   wo nooma no   bi
      I   body good pastor I-FUT-uproot you goods DEF some
      'I am fine, Pastor, I will like to buy some of your goods in bulk.'

Seller₂: Me koraa   ma hwɛ wo a-nim   a-kyɛ,   me-hu-u   wo wɔ ha
      I personally I look you PERF-face PERF-long I-see-PST you prep here
      a-kyɛ   pa ara
      PERF-long very much
      'Personally, I have been expecting you, it's a long time since I saw you here.'

Buyer₂: Wo nooma no   ɛ-yɛ sɛn? Me-n-tu   no sɛn?
      You goods DEF it-be how I-neg-uproot it   how
      'What is the price of the goods, what is the price in bulk?'

Seller₃: ɛnnɛ deɛ nooma no   yɛ a-to   mu, nti   ɛ-boɔ no ɛ-kɔ
     Today as-for goods DEF we PERF-throw inside because it-price DEF it-go
     a-nim   mu
     PERF-face inside
     'The price of the goods has been increased, because of that, the goods are now
      expensive.'

Buyer₃: ɛ-yi naano   deɛ   me-bɛ-fa   kɔ-ɔ   yɛ no, na ɛ-dwa   ɛ-n-yɛ koraa
      It-be last time which I-INGR-take go-PST   be it   it-market it-neg-do at all
      'The ones I bought the last time, I ran at a loss.'

Seller₄: Seesei ɛ-dwa no   deɛ   baabiara   ɛ-n-yɛ.   Nnooma no   boɔ   kɔ soro
     Now   it-market DEF as-for everywhere it-NEG-be   goods   DEF price go   up
     'Market nowadays is bad. Prices have soared'

Buyer₄: ɛnnɛ deɛ   boa me kakra
      today as-for help I small
      'As for today, you have to be considerate'

36

THE EFFECT OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT GUIDELINES ON STUDENTS' DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIORS IN AN IRANIAN EFL SETTING

Marzieh Ahmadi
Dr. Ahmad Alibabaee
Sheikhbahaee University
Nazaninahmadi703@yahoo.com
Ahmadalibabaee@shbu.ac.com

ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to find out the effectiveness of classroom management technique on controlling students' disruptive behaviors in an English learning class in an English institute. First, through reviewing the literature the researcher found the common framework between the approaches to classroom management technique and asked the teacher of the class to apply it in the problematic class. The guidelines involved announcing rules and procedures, mentioning consequences, and systematic reinforcement. Twenty one pre-intermediate EFL learners studying English in an English institute in Isfahan, Iran participated in this study. The data were gathered through a whole course classroom observations. The result revealed that the class management technique turned out to be helpful and using SPSS software the amount of students' disruptive behaviors changed for better and the class became under the teacher's control. The findings would be helpful for EFL teachers working in the similar situations in which students' disruptive behaviors inhibit the smooth flow of the classroom.

KEYWORDS: classroom management, disruptive behavior, reinforcement

INTRODUCTION
According to Marzano and Pickering (2003) teachers play various roles in a typical classroom, but surely one of the most important one is being a classroom manager. Effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a poorly managed classroom. If students are disorderly and disrespectful, and no apparent rules and procedures guide behavior, chaos becomes the norm in the classroom. In these situations, both teachers and students suffer from the situation. Teachers struggle to teach, and students most likely learn much less than they should. In contrast, well-managed classroom doesn't just appear out of nowhere. It takes a good deal of effort to create—and the person who is most responsible for creating it is the teacher. We live in an era when research tells us that the teacher is probably the single most important factor affecting student achievement – at least the single most important factor that we can do much about.

To illustrate, as a result of their study involving some 60,000 students, Wright , Horn, and Sanders (1997) noted that :'' The result of this study will document that the most important factor affecting student learning is the teacher. In addition, the results showed wide variation in effectiveness among teachers. The immediate and clear implication of this finding is that

IJLLALW

seemingly more can be done to improve teacher education programs to improve the effectiveness of teachers. Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all achievement levels regardless of the levels of heterogeneity in their classes. If the teacher is ineffective, students under that teacher's tutelage will achieve inadequate progress academically, regardless of how similar or different they are regarding their academic achievement (p.63)''. It is noteworthy that "among the top reasons why teachers are deemed unsuccessful or leave the profession is their inability to effectively manage student behavior, experts say" (Mehta, 2009, p.8).

First year teachers often struggle with classroom management due to the fact that there is no identifiable single best practice or method for how to manage a classroom. Some teachers, for example, offer rewards for good behavior; others believe that creates a false motivation. Although there is a myriad of possible approaches, experts agree on a handful of guidelines. It is a focal point that "teachers must be consistent in their message and consequences, lay a strong foundation of expectations early in the school year, follow through with promised punishments when children misbehave and remain dispassionate and unflappable" (Mehta, 2009, P. 8). Research dictates that although styles may differ, there are constants that remain for sound practices in classroom management. These guidelines include classroom procedures and rules, a hierarchy of consequences that is followed consistently from day one, communicated expectations, and positive reinforcement. There is truth to the broken-windows theory of police work: if small transgressions go unchecked, larger problems will arise. "...from day one, misbehavior is dealt with quickly and dispassionately. Students who get out of their back are instantly countered with detentions, phone calls home, or trips to the principal's office" (Mehta, 2009, P. 4).

Assertive discipline, as a concept, was created by Canter and Hunter (2001) is a method of disciplining that focuses on encouraging positive behavior, formulating a discipline plan, teaching the students the appropriate way to behavior, formulating a discipline plan, teaching the students the appropriate way to behave, and to make decisions. Canter and Hunter (2001) describe an assertive teacher as one who sets consistent, positive behavioral limits while supporting and reinforcing students for their appropriate behavior. Being assertive is the foundation of this method to effective classroom management. The purpose of this model is not to punish poor behavioral choices but to prevent them from occurring. This method as a proactive approach to discipline supposes that discipline, expectations, and rules must be taught early in the school year and reinforced throughout. Canter and Hunter (2001) imply that a teacher must approach the management of behavior and classroom management plans with as much thought and planning as he/she would do for preparing the lesson plans. In short, a discipline plan must be created prior to the students' walking in the first day of school. Being prepared and having a plan assures the teacher will not resort to reactive discipline that is inconsistent and ineffective. Reactive responses to discipline lose sight of the goal of behavior management: stopping undesired behavior and teaching appropriate behavior. Wong and Wong's (2005) research mirrors many of the characteristics of Marzano (2003). Wong and Wong portray an ideal classroom as one where students are actively engaged and working. Students know that the assignments and tests are based on preplanned objectives. These objectives are clearly communicated between the teacher and the students. Additionally, teachers have established

procedures and routines that the students follow. A common and very effective routine is a "do now" or anticipatory set activity that is engaging and serves as a bridge from the previous day's lesson and creates relevance for the current day's lesson. Assignments for the class are also posted where the students can see them. These procedures and routines have been carefully planned by the teacher and reinforced until they become common practice. Another approach to classroom management is called Discipline with Dignity. This approach is a flexible program for effective school and classroom management that teaches have the duty of thinking, cooperation, mutual respect and shared decision-making. This approach was developed by Dr. Richard Curwin and Dr. Allen Mendler (1997). The goal is to make sure that students are treated with dignity at all times, even when they misbehave or break the rules. With this behavior method, teachers will build student self-esteem and encourage positive and appropriate behavior. According to research, this approach has been very effective in inner city school environments. Teachers and students create contracts for classroom behavior that includes prevention, "action dimension," and resolution. Students have responded well when they are given responsibility and when the rules are fair and applied evenly (Curwin & Mendler, 1997). However, there are criticisms on this method because it gives students more control and limits the teacher to only certain consequences.

Another classroom management approach was developed by William Glasser, in the 1950s, called Reality Therapy. The emphasis of this program is to help students connect each behavior with its consequence through class meetings, clear rules, and contracts. Glasser's Reality Therapy (Emmer & Stough, 2001) stressed the use of choice as the cause of behavior, good or bad, and thus instructed teachers to direct students towards making value judgments about their behavior. By making value judgments, students would come to realize the importance of "good" choices in behavior and continued to make them again in the future. Therefore, students were taught the difference between a "good judgment", and a "bad judgment". The purpose of this method is to teach students right from wrong at a very early age. This process would promote good behavior and diminish bad behavior in the classroom. Teachers must model good behavior and reward students that make positive choices. Critics say that some aspects of this plan, such as the lack of structure and grading are its weak points (Randall, 2004).

In another attempt to manage the students' behavior the 1-2-3 Magic plan was developed by Thomas Phelan (1995). This approach was first dedicated to helping parents manage their children's behavior at home and began its history as a parental tool to help others control their child's behavior. But soon it found its way into the schoolrooms and offices of teachers, counselors, and psychologists. The methodology is a basic counting action by the teacher to either start or stop a behavior. When the teacher counts to "three" the desired behavior should have started or stopped otherwise a consequence will result. This approach is very effective for small children, but its methods have not been effective on the high school level. Another classroom management technique that has become common is Peer Mediation (Schmidt, Friedman, & Marvel, 1992). Mediation techniques and programs have become very popular in the public sector, in courts, and in schools to solve disputes like divorces or accidents. Students are trained to help mediate problems in a school setting and are provided also a proactive and student-led system of behavior and classroom management. Students would learn skills in active

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 37-46   *Ahmadi, M., & Alibabaee, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

listening, compromise, and taking responsibility for their actions. This method works very well in a high school setting where students are able to take ownership of the classroom and their peers behaviors and consequences.

In the same line, for the high school students, White, Algonzzine, Audette, Marr, and Ellis (2001) developed the Unified Discipline approach. This is a carefully structured school wide behavior management program developed to help improve school wide discipline to make sure there is consistency among all of the teachers and administrators. Students would be given clear rules, expectations, and consequences that would be applied throughout the school. All teachers and administrators have a role within the discipline plan and all students are aware of the rules and the consequences that will result when classroom rules are broken. This system encourages communication among all members of the school community and takes the guesswork out of administering punishment. Unified discipline creates a team atmosphere and helps ensure that all students are treated fairly. There are many different types of classroom management approaches as well as many resources for teachers, parents, and administrators to use when developing behavior management programs in the classroom and at home. Ultimately, teachers must use the approach that works for them and the students they teach in their specific situation.

The goal is to provide a classroom where students feel comfortable in their environment so they can reach their full educational potential. After evaluating different classroom management approaches mentioned in the literature the researcher found that although approaches may differ in some way or another, there are constants that remain for sound practice in classroom management. These guidelines include classroom procedures and rules, a hierarchy of consequences, communicated expectations and positive reinforcement. The present study was designed to investigate the effectiveness of the above mentioned guidelines in an EFL class which face the problem of having misbehaving students. This research was conducted to investigate the effect of class management guidelines on students' disruptive behaviors namely using L1, not doing homework, not paying attention to the teacher when teaching new lesson, etc. in an EFL class in an institute. The researcher's purpose was to help the teacher of the class to manage her class better, to control disruptive students and their behavior and to teach more effectively which resulted in the more efficient learning of the students through applying the framework of class management guidelines.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Based on the objective, this study sought to answer the following question:
Are class management guidelines helpful in controlling disruptive behaviors of students of an Iranian EFL learning class?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
This action research was conducted in an EFL learning class in an English institute located in Isfahan, Iran. The class consisted of twenty one male students aged nine to ten. Besides all of the

IJLLALW

participants took part in a placement test and were recognized as being at pre-intermediate level. There was not any institutional requirement for the students regarding their behaviors in the class and it was all on the part of teacher to keep the class disciplined. After passing one week of the researcher's observing the class, it was found that a number of students were out of control and their disruptive behaviors interrupted teacher's instructions and wasted a considerable amount of teaching time. To overcome the stated problem the researcher with the classroom teacher's consultation prepared nine rules, wrote them on a colorful paper which was likely to attract students' attention, and attached it on the wall where everyone saw it in the class. Also, the rules were announced by the teacher both in English and in students' L1 to be clearly understood by students. The teacher encouraged students to obey the rules using positive reinforcement in the form of receiving prize after each two sessions of obeying the announced rules. The rules were as follows:

1.   Don't use your L1 (Persian) whenever you want to ask a question
2.   You are supposed to get 19 out of 20 on your spelling tests
3.   Don't leave your seats when the teacher is teaching a new lesson
4.   Listen carefully to the teacher whenever the teacher is speaking (you may miss important points)
5.   Be energetic and participate in discussions
6.   Do your homework completely
7.   Raise your hand before being allowed to speak
8.   Don't distract other classmates by raising unrelated topics
9.   Don't whisper when the teacher is writing on the board

Instruments
The data were collected through observations, field notes, and interviews. In the first five weeks the researcher observed each session of the class to find whether there is any problem in the classroom and teaching procedures. Meanwhile, the field notes containing a number of popped up questions were jotted down for further analysis and being used in the first interview session with the classroom's teacher. In the interview session the researcher asked a number of questions to find if the investigated problem of students' disruptive behaviors really bothered the teacher and if the teacher had any suggestion/s for resolving the issue. After completing the observations and before analyzing the data quantitatively, in the second session, the teacher was interviewed to analyze the data qualitatively based on the teacher and researcher's objectives and to investigate if the guidelines worked to change the students' behaviors for better.

Design
The present study is partly qualitative and partly quantitative in nature and is actually an action research shedding light on the effectiveness of classroom management guidelines on the Iranian EFL learners' disruptive behaviors in a class consisting of twenty on students in an English institute, specifically on their two disruptive behaviors namely using L1 and not doing homework.

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 37-46   *Ahmadi, M., & Alibabaee, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Procedure

The researcher observed the class for five sessions to find the problem. After thorough observations the researcher listed the students' behaviors which prohibited the teacher to control the class. It turned out that the problem lay on the lack of classroom management, so the researcher reviewed the literature for a solution. There were many approaches regarding classroom management with some minor differences, but the general framework among them was the same including three steps of 1) Classroom procedures and rules, 2) A hierarchy of consequences, 3) Communicated expectations and positive reinforcement. After negotiating with the teacher and the institution's manager the researcher had to skip the negative consequences in step 2 because of some institution's policies and followed other steps. Nine rules were prepared and attached on the wall of the class and were announced by the teacher both in students' L1 and L2 (English). The focus was on the two most disruptive behaviors, using L1 and not doing homework. The teacher recorded the two mentioned behaviors on a table which is shown below:

	15th s		16th s		17th s		18th s		19th s		20th s		21th s	
	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2	B1	B2
X1	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
X2	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
X3	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
X4	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+
X5	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X6	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
X7	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X9	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+
X10	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-
X11	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X12	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X13	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X14	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X15	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X16	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X17	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X18	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X19	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
X2o	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-
X21	-	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	+	+

X= Participant
S= Session
B1= Using L1
B2= Doing homework
-          = Disobeying the rule
+   = obeying the rule

After that descriptive statistical analysis was used with the data. The researcher analyzed the data using SPSS software to determine the percentage of each behavior of students in each session to find the amount of progress of them regarding their obedience of rules.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 37-46   *Ahmadi, M., & Alibabaee, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study examined the effectiveness of classroom management guidelines on a class of Iranian EFL learners in an English institute. The class consisted of twenty on students and data was recoded to be analyzed from fifteenth session. The result of analyzing each session regarding students' B1 which is their use of L1 and B2 which is their doing homework is shown in tables below:

var15b1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	13	61.9	61.9	61.9
	Yes	8	38.1	38.1	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

As you can see from Table 1 in fifteenth session 61.9 percent of the students (subjects) t used their L1 and 38.1 percent obeyed the announced rule and did not us their L1(b1) in the class hour.

var15b2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	11	52.4	52.4	52.4
	Yes	10	47.6	47.6	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 shows that in fifteenth session 52.4 percent of the students did their homework and 47.6 percent of them did not their homework.

var16b1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	9	42.9	42.9	42.9
	Yes	12	57.1	57.1	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

var16b2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	7	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Yes	14	66.7	66.7	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

The above two Tables are the result of analyzed data gathered in sixteenth session. In this session regarding the use of L1 42.9 percent of the students disobeyed the rule and 57.1 obeyed it which shows an increase in the number of students who concerned the rule. The next table shows that 33.3 percent of participants did not do their homework but 66.7 percent of them did it to show an

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 37-46 *Ahmadi, M., & Alibabaee, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245 *www.ijllalw.org*

improvement in comparison with previous session of the class. Up to this session no reward was delivered to students and students were encouraged to receive positive reinforcement in the form of different rewards after each two sessions of obeying the announced rules.

var17b1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	7	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Yes	14	66.7	66.7	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

var17b2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	21	100.0	100.0	100.0

These Tables reveal that there is a noticeable improvement in participants' behavior particularly in relation to their doing homework. As you can see all the participants did their homework in this session, but to encourage those who used L1, only participants who obeyed all the rules received rewards. Other sessions' analyzed data are as follows:

var18b1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	8	38.1	38.1	38.1
	Yes	13	61.9	61.9	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

var18b2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	2	9.5	9.5	9.5
	Yes	19	90.5	90.5	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

var19b1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	5	23.8	23.8	23.8
	Yes	16	76.2	76.2	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 37-46   *Ahmadi, M., & Alibabaee, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

var19b2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NO	2	9.5	9.5	9.5
	Yes	19	90.5	90.5	100.0
	Total	21	100.0	100.0	

As a whole the results shows improvements in participants' behavior. After the last session of the class the researcher interviewed with teacher to be informed about the improvement in participants' learning and the teacher's feeling regarding her classroom management after applying the classroom management guidelines. She admitted that there was a noticeable change in participants' behavior and only two or three of the students did not obey the rules at all. She also said that the class was under her control better than before applying the guidelines, so she could teach with more concentration on her teaching plan with less distraction on the part of students' disruptive behaviors.

Discussion

Behavioral theorists have devoted their time and energy into researching behavior, and how can we motivate and condition children's learning. Many others have influenced how behavior can be modified for optimal learning. These important aspects have assisted the evolution of education and behavior management resulting in teacher's class management. Of the approaches that were reviewed in the literature and mentioned at the beginning of this research paper it was found that each approach was unique in its own right. Each had solid goals and objectives. They had all some guidelines in common which were deduced by the researcher and applied in the problematic class in which the research was conducted. According to this study the result showed that implementing the steps of classroom management guidelines had a significant effect on changing students' dissatisfactory behaviors for better, more disciplined behaviors. The findings are in conformity with results of other researchers whose works were mentioned in the review of the literature part of the paper. To sum up, it seems helpful for teachers specially those who are in the first years of their career to apply class management approaches in their classes to prevent disappointment come to them besides providing an environment for learners to have equal opportunity to learn. Otherwise they will face a chaotic place to the detriment of ordered class.

CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to investigate the possible effect of classroom management guidelines on EFL learners' disruptive behaviors to make the learning and teaching process more beneficial for the most important parties in an educational context namely the teacher and students. Two particular behaviors of students' L1 use and not doing assigned homework went under investigation. The findings revealed that the clear announcement of the classrooms' rules accompanied with the age-appropriate rewards decreased students' undesired behaviors and increased the desired behaviors mentioned in the annunciated guidelines significantly. The findings would probably be helpful for EFL teachers if they face similar problems in their instructional procedures. It would also be suggestive for teacher educators to inform training

language teachers of probable students' dissatisfactory conducts in the classroom and tried solutions which may work in their future situations too. The present study suffered from limitations such as the presence of the researcher in the classroom that may distract both the teacher and students. Additionally, due to the time limit of the class it was not possible to scrutinize all the students' disruptive behaviors.

REFERENCES

Burden, P.R. (2003) *Classroom management: Creating a successful learning community.*
        (2nd ed.) Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley.
Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1976). *Assertive discipline: A take-charge approach for today's educator.* Santa Monica, California: Lee Canter and Associates.
Curwin, R. L., & Mendler, A. (1997). "Discipline with dignity": Beyond obedience.
        Education Digest, 63(4), 11-15.
Emmer, E. T., & Stough, L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist, 36(2),* 103-112.
Fox, B. B. (1990). The effects of assertive discipline on student behaviors. Classroom *Management Quarterly, 12,* 45-67.
Phelan, T. W. (1995). *1-2-3 Magic: Effective discipline for children 2-12 (2nd ed.).*
        Illinois: Child Management.
Randall, Kevin. (2004). "The theories of William Glasser." Retrieved November 26, 2007, from http://www.kevinrandell.com/docs/sci_port/ EDU4112_Glasser_essay.doc
Schmidt, F., Friedman, A., & Marvel, J. (1992). *Mediation for kids* (2nd ed.).
        Florida: Grace Contrino Abrams Peace Education Foundation.
Smith, R. (2004). *Conscious Classroom Management (1st Ed.).*
White, R., Algozzine, B., Audette, R., Marr, M., & Ellis, E. (2001). Unified discipline: A school-wide approach for managing problem behavior. *Intervention in School And Clinic, 37(1),* 3-8.

IJLLALW

CONFLICT IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING THEORY AND PRACTICE: A STUDY IN SAUDI ARABIAN CONTEXT

Mohammad Abdul Wajid
PhD Candidate, Department of English
University of Sathyabhama, India
Language Instructor,
King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA

Dr. Mohammad Saleem
Department of English, Faculty of Sciences & Arts
King Abdulaziz University – Rabigh branch,
Rabigh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
E-mail: editor.uc@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Communicative Language Teaching (henceforward referred as CLT) is the generally accepted approach to teach English as a foreign language (henceforward referred as EFL) in Saudi Arabia. The theory and practice of CLT made appearance in Saudi Arabia much later than it did in other countries where English is taught as a foreign or second language, and this delay seems to have left an impression on the teaching of English in the kingdom as many English teachers still follow traditional approaches, like, Audio-lingual method or Grammar-translation method. So, even if the teachers believe CLT is a desirable approach, they may not implement it properly, and there appears a conflict in their belief and practice. The present paper makes an attempt to measure the extent of this conflict in the belief of Saudi teachers of English in CLT as a good approach and their reluctance to put the belief into practice. A small survey using questionnaires was conducted at the colleges affiliated to King Abdul-Aziz University, Jeddah, to measure teachers' attitude towards CLT and implementation of CLT in their classes. The obtained results reveal that teachers show great favour for CLT but consciously or unconsciously avoid implementing it in classrooms.

KEYWORDS: communicative language teaching, English teaching in Saudi Arabia, classroom practices, approach, teaching method

INTRODUCTION

In Saudi Arabia there is an ever growing need for good communicative skills in English. This has created a great demand for English language teaching. Hundreds of thousands of people today want to improve their English and wish to have a good command over the language. Parents, especially those whose children go to colleges and universities, are anxious to see their wards learn English as fast as possible. The students themselves want to be able to master the language

47

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 47-59   *Mohammad Abdul Wajid., & Mohammad Saleem*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

to a high level of accuracy and fluency, as that would pave their way towards better job opportunities. Thus, there is an enormous and unprecedented demand for higher quality in English language teaching, and appropriate teaching materials and resources.

The present research study is an outcome of a concern related to this unprecedented demand for English language in Saudi Arabia. Since the 1980s communicative language teaching approach (CLTA) has dramatically influenced language teaching practices in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and in theory almost all English educators agree that it is an effective way to build learner's communicative capabilities in English. But, at the same time, when it comes to implementing the tenets of the approach in classrooms, much discrepancy in theory and practice is observed as teachers are found to use too much drill, direct grammar teaching and encouraging rote-learning methods that are discouraged in CLT.

The Problem
As mentioned above, I have observed that teachers of English at the colleges in Saudi Arabia display a great appreciation for CLT as an approach to teach English as they feel that since CLT lays more emphasis on fluency in English, which is the need of the day, rather than on accuracy, it is a much better approach than some of the conventional approaches they have been following. But, at the same time, while teaching an actual class, most of them slip into the same conventional methods of sentence-drilling and repetition. This leads to a conflict in teachers' beliefs and practice. The reasons behind such a behaviour may be many, for example, lack of training in CLT, ease of handling a class through conventional methods of teaching, lack of proper guidelines to use CLT in class, learners being unprepared to follow the steps involved in learning English language through a learner-centered approach like CLT, learners being tradition-bound, culturally and mentally, to the established norms that a teaching approach like CLT might look to them to be counterproductive and thus a waste of time and energy, and so on. The issue is quite significant, and if the behaviour is found to be rampant, it requires some remedial measures, like refresher courses for in-service teachers.

The Objective
The primary objective of the present study is to find out if there exists a conflict in the beliefs of Saudi EFL teachers in CLT as an approach, and its practical implementation in class.
The secondary objective of the study is to measure the attitude of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia towards CLT as an approach.

The Scope of the Study
The scope of the present study is very limited. This has been just a small survey conducted to measure the attitude of English teachers in the colleges affiliated to a particular university, towards CLT as an approach to teach English. The results obtained through the survey and their interpretations are meant only to shed light on the possible conflict in theory and practice as regards the teaching approach.

IJLLALW

Significance of the Study

Communicative language teaching approach is commonly accepted as the most effective approach to teach a foreign language, like English, in a non-native teaching/learning environment. In Saudi Arabia where there is an ever growing demand and need for successful fluency building in English for learners at all levels, it is imperative that a theory and approach to teach the target language that brings the most desired results, and at the same time which works very well in coordination with the local culture and learning sensibilities, is recognized and implemented properly. CLT is claimed to provide answers to most of the foreign language teaching/learning issues. If teachers are not clear about the goals and expected outcomes of the approach, or if they are confused about its tenets, it may seriously hinder the desired results.

Therefore, under the given circumstances, the proposed study is very significant since it is aimed at identifying a perceived conflict possibly affecting the use of CLT in classrooms to teach English. In a way, it will prove to be an up-to-date overview of the use of CLT in Saudi Arabian classrooms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Issues related to CLT and associated topics have always attracted scholars' attention. There are plenty of research studies carried out in EFL and ESL (English as a second language) contexts addressing issues, such as, suitability of CLT in non-native environments, problems arising because of exclusion of learners' context in CLT, and problems related to learner's unpreparedness for CLT, and so on. CLT has caught researchers' fancy in Saudi Arabia as well. Research studies carried out in the recent past and in the decade gone by seem to have shifted their attention to CLT in a major way since almost all the research studies in English Language Teaching area include CLT in one way or the other in their research perspective. Take, for example, the study by Ghadah Hassan Batawi (2007), titled 'Exploring the Use of CLT in Saudi Arabia' investigates teachers' understanding and views as regards the use of CLT in classrooms, looking at the actual practices of teachers in language classrooms concerning the major aspects of CLT, like, error correction, students' role, teachers' role, significance of grammar, and group work, etc. The researcher notes that most English teachers employ a combination of methods and approaches, not just CLT. Teachers were more comfortable with using both traditional (grammar-translation based) and communicative approaches, preferring the traditional method most of the time. In addition, the findings of the study suggest there are some obstacles that affect teachers' experiments with CLT. The researcher has grouped the difficulties into three main categories: difficulties caused by the teacher; difficulties caused by the students; and the difficulties caused by the education system. Khalid Al-Seghayer (2014) agrees with Batawi and states that, "the methods employed to teach English in Saudi Arabia are largely centered on the audio-lingual method (ALM) and, to a lesser extent, the grammar translation method (GTM)" [2014: 22]. In, "The Four Most Common Constraints Affecting English Teaching in Saudi Arabia," Al-Seghayer identifies the four constraints as (i) belief constraints, (ii) pedagogical constraints, (iii) curriculum constraints and (iv) administrative constraints.

IJLLALW

Syed Md. Golam Faruk's much acclaimed (2013) study, 'English Language Teaching in Saudi Arabia: A World System Perspective' reviews the status of English education in the kingdom. Apart from placing English studies in Saudi Arabia in the world perspective, Faruk also discusses the current scenario of English education in Saudi Arabia. Ali Algonhaim explores Saudi university students' language activities and their relationship to foreign language anxiety, and arrives at the conclusion that the previous educational habits of students affect their present learning, therefore, Saudi Arabia needs to modernize and update her EFL teaching methods. He suggests that if both communicative and non-communicative activities are used together in English classrooms using CLT as an approach, the students will make better progress in learning the language. Muhammad U. Farooq's very recent (2015) research work is focused on teachers' apprehension on the use of CLT as an approach to teach English. In his own words,

> The results suggest that despite showing keen interest in change and being eager to implement CLT, they are not optimistic about the complete adoption of CLT due to the problems and challenges they face in the classroom, like overcrowded classes, non-availability of AV aids, students' low level of proficiency, time constraints, etc. (P. 188).

Reima Al-Jarf's (2008) research work was centered on developing EFL freshmen students' spelling problems. The findings of the study indicated that Arabic speaking students had phonological and orthographic problems in EFL. The study suggested that 63% of the spelling errors were phonological, and 37% were orthographic. In a similar vein, Haifa Al-Nofaie (2010) investigated Saudi teachers' and students' attitude towards employing Arabic as a facilitating tool in English classes. The responses recorded by the researcher were found to be positive. Christo Moskovsky and Fakieh Alrabai (2009) found out that Saudi students possess a substantial, but dormant, reserve of motivation which could be tapped to produce better learning outcomes, provided the learning conditions are favourable to them.

Communicative language teaching as an approach to teach English as a foreign language has been received with mixed feelings in other countries too where the learners were set to receive instructions in traditional ways and the onus of motivating the learners fell solely on language teachers. The sudden and unexpected change from teacher to learner oriented teaching baffled many, and everywhere there were many false starts, hiccups and failures. CLT has been the subject of much research to investigate whether the approach, being a Western innovation, can be applied to and followed as a language teaching method in English as a Foreign Language context (Burnaby and Sun, 1989; Ellis, 1996; Li, 1998; Xiaoju, 1984; Sreehari, 2012; Vongxay, 2013; Tosuncuoglu, 2013; Kadwa, 2012; Islam, 2012; Farooq, 2015; Al Asmari, 2015).

Sreehari (2012) examines the implementation of CLT in his local settings (AP, India) to identify the possibilities and problems in the implementation of the approach and the teaching principles and techniques in the colleges there. The results from his study indicate that teachers should follow more learner-centered ways in their teaching of English if they want more success with the new approach. Tosuncuoglu (2013) studied the same kind of issues in Turkish contexts. He also suggests that, "Such an approach requires a very different attitude on the part of teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second language (ESL), especially when

50

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 47-59   *Mohammad Abdul Wajid., & Mohammad Saleem*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

it comes to correction and evaluation" (P. 327). Similarly, Vongxay (2013) conducted a case study in New Zealand on teachers' perceptions on the implementation of CLT to teach English at an Institute of higher education, and his results were of mixed response. Mohd. Nurul Islam's (2012) study is quite significant in the sense that it brings forth a perspective on English teaching using CLT in a lesser known setting in the academia, namely Bangladesh. He comments that although CLT is acknowledged by the National Curriculum & Textbook Board in Bangladesh, still there are a number of misapprehensions about it. The researcher focuses on four of the main misapprehensions, usually held by the language teachers and researchers both. Other notable studies in the field are: Badger and Yan, 2008; Zoltan Dornyei, 2009*;* Sahail M. Asassfeh, Faisal M. Khwaileh, Yousef M. Al-Shaboul and Sabri S. Alshboul, 2012; Saeed Ahmad and Congman Rao 2013; Ming Chang, 2011.

Though the status, problems and challenges of teaching English in Saudi Arabian contexts have been explored by researchers from time to time, but still there remains much to be done in this area of research, and exactly for the same reason the present study has taken shape. The present study is different from all the previous studies as none of the previous studies discussed here investigated the existing conflict between the beliefs of English teachers in Saudi Arabia in the theoretical foundations of CLT approach and practical implementation of it in classes. Thus, there exists a gap in research and existing knowledge, and the present research tries to address it.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What is the attitude of teachers of English in Saudi Arabia towards CLT as an approach?
2. Is there a conflict between the beliefs of English teachers in Saudi Arabia in CLT, and its practical implementation in classes?

Research Hypothesis
Keeping in mind the objectives of the present study the researcher has framed the following hypothesis: I have hypothesized that there exists a conflict in the beliefs of English teachers in Saudi Arabia in CLT as an approach to teach EFL, and its practical implementation in class.
Based on the hypothesis framed here, I designed the present study to answer the above questions.

METHODOLOGY
The present research was proposed to be a study on attitude, and therefore, the research methodology followed in the study is a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. Quantitative data has been collected from teachers of English at the colleges in Saudi Arabia through a survey questionnaire, while qualitative analysis involved in the interpretation of the numerical data collected through the questionnaire.

Research setting and the participants
The present study was conducted at King Abdul-Aziz University, and the colleges affiliated to it, at Jeddah, Usfan, Khulais, Kamil and Rabigh. There is uniformity in teachers' training in Saudi Arabia, so, there was no difficulty in choosing the participating teachers, but it was made sure that the selected teachers had a good service experience to have framed some opinion on the

IJLLALW

positive or negative aspects of implementing CLT to teach English in Saudi Arabia. Also, the rationale behind the selection of these teaches was that in informal conversation with the researcher, they had expressed their dissatisfaction with CLT as an approach. In any case, all the selected teachers had been using CLT for quite some time in their English teaching careers, and therefore, they had enough experience to express their attitude towards the approach in an objective manner.

Data Collection: Instrument
The primary source of data collection for this study was questionnaire. I have chosen questionnaire as a source for data collection because it saves time and contains detailed, desired information and excludes all unnecessary information (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 116). The questionnaire contained attitudinal questions meant to elicit teachers' responses on their beliefs about CLT and the practical implementation of the approach, rating their use of communicative activities in the class on a scale.

The questionnaires used in this study have been adapted from Savignon and Wang (2003). The questionnaire tested and used by them is found to be reliable and valid, and so, it has been taken as a model in preparing the questionnaire for the present study. Certain changes have been made in the questionnaires to suit the needs of the present study according to its context. Savignon and Wang used 7-point scale for measurement, while in the present study 5-point Likert scale has been used. They have used the questionnaire to gather opinions of students, whereas I have used it to gather the opinions of teachers. They have used a long questionnaire with many sub-sections on attitude, beliefs, experiences, etc. of students learning English through different approaches at different stages of their schooling, but my questionnaire is small with only 20 statements, and not divided into sub-sections. Every statement comprised of five options. – 1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Agree, and 5. Strongly agree. The distribution of credit on attitude for a positive direction was as follows:

Response:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Credit:	1	2	3	4	5

Whereas, for a negative direction the credit allocation was reversed, i.e., 5, 4, 3, 2, 1.

Measurement Technique
I used two different measurement techniques to analyze the results obtained in this study: (i) Calculation of Cronbach's Alpha for internal consistency of the questionnaire statements, and (ii) Calculation of means and percentage of the scoring done for the responses received from the participants.
(i) To calculate Cronbach's Alpha, the following formula was used:

$$\alpha = (k / (k-1)) \text{ x } (1-\Sigma \text{ Var/Var})$$

Where,
k = number of statements in the questionnaire

Var = variance (population standard deviation) of obtained scores for each statement

IJLLALW

**International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)**
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 47-59   *Mohammad Abdul Wajid., & Mohammad Saleem*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Σ Var = sum of variance

(ii) The mean and percentage of scores was calculated using simple arithmetic calculations.

Validity and Reliability

The data collection instrument was tested for validity and reliability as well as for internal consistency of the test items. The reliability and internal consistency [calculated using the formula given above: α = (k / (k-1)) x (1-Σ Var/Var)] on Cronbach Alpha was 0.68. A commonly accepted rule is that an Alpha of 0.60 indicates acceptable reliability. To ensure the validity of the scale constructed for attitude, expert opinion was sought. In the pilot study conducted with 10 teachers, the average score for positive direction statements was measured 73.42, and for negative direction statements it was 48.

Sampling

A random selection technique was followed in selecting the colleges and participants for data collection to minimize bias in responses. A uniform syllabus is followed in Saudi Arabia to teach English, and since everywhere the emphasis is on following CLT approach to teach the language, there was no problem in randomized selection, either in the selection of the participating colleges or in the selection of teachers. The following factors played important role in the selection process:

Age: It was kept in mind that both young and mature teachers are represented. But this factor was not considered for analysis of the results obtained.

Length of service: This factor was important since teaching experience plays a major role in attitude. But again, the factor was not counted for analysis of results to impact the final interpretation.

Gender: The researcher made sure that male and female teachers got equal representation in data collection, but without being taken into consideration to impact the final result analysis.

Sample Size

20 teachers were chosen to participate in the study and questionnaires were distributed to them. This was done for ease of collecting and handling the data as to collect data from a larger number of teachers would have been extremely difficult for me. The present sample size represents 5 different colleges. All the participants chosen for the study were briefed about the objectives of the research. Any potential ethical issues, if there arose any, were discussed and settled in advance. Before administering the questionnaire the participants were asked if they had any difficulty in understanding the questionnaire. Only after ascertaining everything was alright, the questionnaires were distributed.

Variables

The present study measures the attitude of teachers towards implementation of CLT in their classes to teach English in Saudi Arabia. There are several factors related to the implementation

53

I J L L A L W

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 47-59   *Mohammad Abdul Wajid., & Mohammad Saleem*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

of CLT as an approach to teach English that affect teachers' attitude towards its adoption as their favoured approach, or otherwise, in the class. All research studies that measure a perceptible change in something brought about by some factors carry out the measurement with the help of those elements, called "independent" and "dependent" variables. Thus, in the present study too, the perceptible changes in the attitude of the respondent teachers of English at the colleges in Saudi Arabia towards CLT as an approach are measured using some independent variables and some dependent variables, described below.

Independent Variable
Independent variable are those factors that bring about the expected, perceptible change in something, but which themselves remain unchanged in the process, that is, these factors are not dependent on some other external or internal factors. In experimental or quasi-experimental studies these are the factors whose effect on something becomes the subject of study. Although, the present study is neither experimental nor quasi-experimental, still, through data collection and analysis it measures the effect of the elements of CLT approach on the attitude of teachers to adopt or reject it in class. Therefore, the elements of CLT that are used in this study as an input to note their effect upon the attitude of concerned teachers function as independent variables. They are as follows:

i.   Use of only English in the class
ii.   Mother tongue not permitted to be used in FL class
iii. Learners' context is not important in learning English
iv.   Communication is the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language
v.   Learners' progress cannot be measured directly

All these independent variables are used as input statements in the questionnaire in various forms in the present study to elicit responses from teachers towards CLT.

Dependent Variable
Dependent variables are those factors that vary according to the nature of something affecting them, that is, these factors are dependent on some external or internal factors, and they change according to the nature of the given input. In other words, the effects brought about in something by external or internal factors are dependent variables. The present study measures teachers' attitude towards CLT and its elements, therefore, that functions as a dependent variable in this context.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Data Analysis
The data obtained through the questionnaires was tabulated and analyzed for Percentage, Mean and Standard Deviation. The table given below shows totals of attitude scores on each statement in the questionnaire calculated through a Likert Scale with five points, following the credit scoring scheme described above. These scores were used to calculate the Mean, Standard Deviation (SD) and the percentage of scores on attitude.

IJLLALW

Table 1: Teachers' Beliefs, Theory and Practice of CLT in Class: Summary of Results

No.	Statement	Total of scores	Mean of Scores	SD	%
1	I focus mainly on grammar to teach English in my classes.	72	3.6	1.5690	72%
2	I engage my students in sentence drills and ask them to repeat sentences after me.	68	3.4	1.3134	68%
3	I mostly use Arabic in my class to teach English language.	75	3.65	1.3088	73%
4	To me teaching English is to explain grammar rules and students practicing them to construct sentences.	80	4	1.3764	80%
5	It is always I (the teacher) who speaks in the class; students seldom speak.	74	3.7	1.3803	74%
6	I don't allow students to make errors in grammar and sentence structures.	71	3.55	1.5719	71%
7	I always correct the errors of my students.	74	3.7	1.5593	74%
8	*My teaching of English is communications based; students learn to communicate in English.*	*49*	*2.45*	*1.7006*	*49%*
9	*I always design activities for students to interact in English with each other and in groups.*	*48*	*2.4*	*1.5355*	*48%*
10	*My focus in class is communication, but if necessary I explain grammar rules.*	*36*	*1.8*	*1.0052*	*36%*
11	*I allow my students to learn to communicate in English through trial-and-error attempts.*	*46*	*2.3*	*1.3803*	*46%*
12	*I create an atmosphere in the class for students to always use English.*	*41*	*2.05*	*1.3945*	*41%*
13	*I never correct the errors made by students while they communicate in English.*	*68*	*3.4*	*1.7290*	*68%*
14	Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLTA) is difficult to implement in the classroom.	66	3.3	1.3018	66%
15	CLT puts unrealistic demands on teachers and learners in non-native FL settings like Saudi Arabia.	73	3.65	1.2680	73%
16	I find CLT difficult because Saudi students are not prepared to follow it.	68	3.4	1.3917	68%
17	I find CLT difficult because Saudi students are used to traditional methods of teaching English.	76	3.8	1.3218	76%
18	I find CLT difficult because owing to their socio-cultural background Saudi students do not show interest in discussion on many topics.	78	3.9	1.1652	78%
19	I need more training before I implement CLT in the classroom.	79	3.95	1.2343	79%
20	CLT is not effective in Saudi Arabia because students have no chance to speak English outside the class.	74	3.7	1.4545	74%

IJLLALW

The statements included in the questionnaire, in accordance with the research hypothesis, had clearly two directions, positive and negative. To avoid bias in data collection, both types of statements were presented in one questionnaire, but with a clear division of segments. Thus, statements 1-7, and then 14-20 bear positive direction while statements 8-14 take negative direction for the hypothesis. Accordingly, the Mean of the scores obtained for the positive direction statements is higher (73.42) than the Mean of scores obtained for the negative direction statements (48).

Interpretation

High Mean and high Percentage of scores for the positive direction (all the statements implying that the teachers are using traditional methods of teaching English, rather than using CLT) is indicative of the confirmation of the idea that the English teachers selected for this study most of the times avoided CLT and instead used traditional method to teach the language like, teaching of grammar, sentence drills and repetition, etc. A Mean of scores pegged at 73.42 indicates that a majority of teachers strongly agree or agree to the statements confirming this belief. The lower Mean and lower Percentage of scores for the negative direction (all the six statements implying that the teachers were using CLT to teach English) indicates that though teachers were aware of the theory behind CLT, they were using it in the class very little. The Mean of scores for this direction is 48, indicating that the teachers tend to be Neutral or undecided as regards the use of CLT in their classes. This is where the conflict lies.

CONCLUSION

The present study was taken up to seek answers to the following questions:

1. What is the attitude of teachers of English in Saudi Arabia towards CLT as an approach?
2. Is there a conflict between the beliefs of English teachers in Saudi Arabia in CLT, and its practical implementation in classes?

The analysis of the data collected for the study clearly reveals that,

1. The attitude of teachers of English in Saudi Arabia towards CLT as an approach is neutral, neither positive nor negative.
2. There exists a conflict between the beliefs of English teachers in Saudi Arabia in CLT, and its practical implementation in classes.

The results indicate that though English teachers in Saudi Arabia express some faith in the tenets of CLT, they are lacking in practical implementation of the approach in their classes.

Pedagogical Implications

The results obtained through the present study hint at a disturbing trend among teachers of English in Saudi Arabia. CLT is considered by many as the most successful foreign language teaching approach, and therefore, in Saudi Arabia too the approach is recommended. But, either the teachers are not prepared to implement the approach in its full spirit, or they feel there are other hurdles on the way. This implies that,

IJLLALW

1. Teachers should be given appropriate training in CLT;
2. English language classes should be fully furnished with all the materials required to follow CLT in class;
3. Students should be given some bridge course/crash course in English, in addition to the regular teaching; and,
4. Examination system should be restructured to accommodate a different evaluation system based on achievements in communicative capability.

Suggestions for Further Research

While carrying out the present study, I faced several limitations for lack of resources and time, which, I believe, future researchers interested in this area may take up for further study. Some of those points are as follows:

1. The present study was conducted on a small scale, surveying the opinions of only 20 teachers. The results may show a different trend if a different study is conducted on a larger scale.
2. The present study didn't take into account several other factors, like gender and length of service of teachers of English. A further study may include these dimensions in the study of conflict regarding theory and practice of CLT.
3. Students' opinions about CLT may also help arrive at a better picture of CLT and its acceptability in Saudi contexts.

Limitations of the study

The results are not meant to present either a critique of the approach or suggest any remedial measures if the expected conflict is interpreted to raise a serious pedagogical issue. The scope of the present study is limited to English language taught as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia using CLT as an approach, and not to any other foreign language in any other setting. Still, on further experimentation and research the results and the associated measures may be applicable to other foreign languages as well.

The results cannot be interpreted as a generalized comment on the nature of English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia. For a broader generalization, further research at a larger scale, with larger samples and larger area setting is required.

REFERENCES

Algonhaim, A. (2014). Saudi University Students' Perceptions and Attitudes towards Communicative and Non-communicative Activities and their Relationship to Foreign Language Anxiety. *Research Journal of English Language and Literature (RJELAL), 2(2),* 83-101. http://www.rjelal.com

Al-Jarf, R. (2008). *Phonological and Orthographic Problems in EFL College Spelling*. First Regional Conference on English Language Teaching and Literature (ELTL 1). Islamic Azad University-Roudehen, Iran. February 17, 2008.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 12 (1), May 2016; 47-59   *Mohammad Abdul Wajid., & Mohammad Saleem*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Al-Nofaie, H. (2010). The Attitudes of Teachers and Students towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools- A Case Study. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, *4(1),* 64-95.

Al-Seghayer, Kh. (2011). *English Teaching in Saudi Arabia: Status, Issues, and Challenges*. Riyadh: Hala Print CO.

Al-Seghayer, Kh. (2014). The Four Most Common Constraints Affecting English Teaching in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *4(5),* 17-26.

Badger, R., & Yan, X. (2008). To what extent is communicative language teaching a feature of IELTS classes in China? *IELTS Research Report*, *(13),* 1-44.

Batawi, Gh. H. (2007). Exploring the Use of CLT in Saudi Arabia: A study that examines the feasibility of communicative approach in Saudi classrooms. MA Thesis. American University of Sharjah.

Berg, B. L. (1989). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences* (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Berns, M. S. (1983). Functional Approaches to Language and Language Teaching: Another Look. *Studies in Language Learning*, *(4),* 4-22.

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1998). *Research in education* (8th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative research in education: An introduction to theory and methods* (3rd ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Brandl, K. (2008). *Communicative Language Teaching in Action: Putting Principles to Work*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Brown, J. D., & Rogers, T. S. (2002). *Doing Second Language Research: An Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Second Language Research for Graduate/Master's Students in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, and Others*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Burnaby, B., & Sun, Y. (1989). Chinese teachers' view of western language teaching: Context informs paradigms. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23(2),* 219-238.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-27). Harlow: Longman; New York: Routledge.

Cresswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.

Ellis, G. (1996). How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach? *ELT Journal*, *50(3),* 213-218.

Farooq, M. U. (2015). Creating a Communicative Language Teaching Environment for Improving Students' Communicative Competence at EFL/EAP University Level. *International Education Studies*, 8(4), 179-191.

Faruk, S. Md. G. (2013). English Language Teaching in Saudi Arabia: A World System Perspective. *Scientific Bulletin of the Polytechnic University of Timisoara*, *12(1-2),* 73-80.

Hiep, P. H. (2007). Communicative language teaching: unity within diversity. *ELT Journal*, *61(3),* 193-201.

Kadwa, M. S. (2012). Attitudes of Saudi Arabian Learners to Online Communication in EFL. Published M. A. (with specialization in TESOL) dissertation, University of South Africa.

IJLLALW

Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32(4),* 677-703.

Li, X. (1984). In defence of the communicative approach. *ELT Journal*, *38(1),* 2-13.

Littlewood. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research*. (3rd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Moskovsky, Ch., & Alrabai, F. (2009). Intrinsic Motivation in Saudi Learners of English as a Foreign Language. *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, *2(1),* 1-10.

Nurul Islam, M. (2012). Communicative Approach: Some Misapprehensions. *Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *2(1),* 211-219.

Raudenbush, S. W., Bryk, A. S., Cheong, Y. F., & Congdon, R. T. (2004). *HLM 6: Hierarchical Linear and Nonlinear Modelling*. Lincolnwood, IL: Scientific Software International.

Reda, Gh. (2013). Book Review. *English Teaching in Saudi Arabia: Status, Issues, and Challenges* by Khalid Al-Seghayer. (2011). Riyadh, Saudi Arabia: Hala Print CO. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, *2(1),* 1-2.

Sreehari, P. (2012). Communicative Language Teaching: Possibilities and Problems. *English Language Teaching*, 5(12), 87-93.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Thompson, G. (1996). Some misconceptions about communicative language teaching. *ELT Journal*, *50(1),* 9-15.

Tosuncuoglu, I. (2013). Communicative Language Teaching and Group Techniques in Turkey: Present and Future. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *22(3),* 326-332.

Vongxay, H. (2013). The Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in an English Department in a Lao Higher Educational Institution: A Case Study. Published Master of Education Thesis. Unitec Institution of Technology, New Zealand.

Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.