Journal of Language Education
King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi

Publisher
School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi

Objectives
- To promote effective English language teaching and learning
- To disseminate knowledge and ideas about the EFL context to professional teachers and researchers in the field
- To promote and disseminate new directions in applied linguistics
- To provide novice researchers a venue for publishing their research
- To be a platform for faculty members, graduate students and scholars to publish their research related to language learning and teaching

Scope
reflections welcomes all research articles that deal with English language teaching, especially in EFL context, and applied linguistics in areas such as second language acquisition, teaching methodology, materials development, course design and evaluation, self-access learning, learner strategies, CALL and discourse analysis.

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Issue Dates
2 issues/year (January - June and July - December)

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Chulalongkorn University Printing House
254 Phayathai Road, Wang Mai Sub-district
Pathumwan District
Bangkok 10500
Tel: 02-2183548-50, 02-2183563
E-mail: cuprint@hotmail.com
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The Pronunciation of English by Students in Guangxi, South China

David Deterding
Universiti Brunei Darussalam

Abstract
This paper analyses the pronunciation of 24 students in Guangxi, south China, based on their reading a short text. It reports that the occurrence of [w] in place of /v/ is one of the most salient features of their pronunciation. In addition, they tend to use [s] for voiceless TH and [d] for voiced TH, omit dark /l/ in the coda of words such as full and wolf, merge long and short vowels such as FLEECE and KIT, and use full vowels in function words such as to and as. However, they tend not to insert a vowel at the end of words such as and, a feature reported for the English spoken in other parts of China, and the incidence of stressed pronouns at the end of a phrase is less than reported elsewhere. We can therefore conclude that some features are shared with the rest of China, but at the same time some features seem to mark the English of Guangxi as distinct from the English of the rest of China.

Keywords: English in China / pronunciation / voiced fricatives / TH sounds vowel length / epenthetic vowels / consonant cluster simplification / word stress / sentence stress

1. Introduction
English language teaching was first introduced in China as a ‘babarian’ language in the late nineteenth century (Adamson 2004, p. 21). Since then, and particularly since 1993, there has been a massive increase in the learning of English in China (Hu and Adamson 2012, p. 12). Bolton and Graddol (2012, p. 3) put the number of learners in China at about 400 million, and Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 146) suggests that the total number now probably outnumbers the population of the UK and USA combined. Of course, their ability in the language remains uncertain (Crystal, p. 68), but even if only a small proportion are proficient, that still represents a large number, so the way that they speak English is of considerable interest. Indeed, Seidlhofer (2011, p. 7) notes that non-native speakers of English around the world now substantially outnumber native speakers, so they are playing an increasingly influential role in shaping the development of the language, and it is therefore likely that the way English is spoken in China will have some impact on the way the language evolves in the future.

Substantial work has been done on the grammar and lexis of English in China (e.g. Xu 2010), but rather less research has been conducted on pronunciation. Deterding (2006a) analysed
the pronunciation of thirteen students from northern and central provinces, but the data included no speakers from the south of the country. Since then, Schneider (2011) has described the pronunciation of six speakers from southern provinces such as Guangdong and Fujian, Ao and Low (2012) have provided a brief overview of the pronunciation of ten speakers from Yunnan Province in the south-west of China, and Li and Sewell (2012) have analysed the pronunciation of six speakers from north China and six from the south, all studying in a Hong Kong university.

The current research describes the speech of university undergraduates in Nanning, the capital of Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region in the south of China. It is the home of the Zhuang people, who constitute the largest ethnic minority in China. Although the majority of the people living in Guangxi are Han Chinese, about 33\% of the 49 million are Zhuang (China Today 2014), and they speak a Tai language that is related to the language of Thailand. To the east of Guangxi is Guangdong Province, where Cantonese predominates. Many of the speakers in the current study are native speakers of Cantonese, so it is possible that Cantonese has affected their pronunciation. To the west of Guangxi is Yunnan, though the ethnic make-up there is somewhat different, as there are only a few speakers of Zhuang while there are more of other minority languages such as the Yi and Bai (Ao and Low 2012).

In this paper, I will analyse the pronunciation of speakers of English in Guangxi, and I will evaluate how their pronunciation differs from the English spoken in Yunnan and also the rest of China that has been described in previous papers.

2. Speakers
In February 2011, I visited Guangxi University in Nanning and recorded twenty-four first-year English language majors, twenty women and four men. The gender imbalance is unfortunate, but it reflects the population of students who select English language as their major at Guangxi University. Some information about the speakers is shown in Table 1, where female speakers are prefixed by ‘F’ and males by ‘M’. Most were aged 19 or 20 at the time of the recording, though one (F19) was aged 18 and one (F11) was aged 21.

The ‘English Start’ column indicates the age at which they started learning English. Most had been learning English for between six and ten years, though F20 had been learning it for eleven years and F7 for twelve. Although nowadays most students would start learning English in primary school, it was common in the late twentieth century for schools to be poorly resourced with the result that many pupils only started learning English in the first grade of Junior High School (Zhang 2012, p. 69), so the fact that some of these speakers only started learning English at the age of 13 is probably typical of those currently enrolled in university.
Table 1: Details of the speakers, including the age they started learning English, whether they listed Cantonese as a language they speak with one or more relatives, and any other variety of Chinese they speak

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>English Start</th>
<th>Cantonese?</th>
<th>Other?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Linzhou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Guilin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Cunhua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Guilin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Zhuang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Zhuang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Zhuang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F11</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Zhuang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Guilin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All are able to speak Putonghua (‘Mandarin’), though some stated that they rarely use it in informal situations. Ten of them stated that they speak Cantonese with one or more relatives, and some (F7, F11 and F13) listed it as the language they use most often with friends. All but five stated that they speak another variety of Chinese, eight of them listing Zhuang, six listing Guilin Dialect (a southern dialect of Mandarin), and a few others listing something else. Inevitably, the frequency with which they use these different languages varies, with F18 stating that she speaks Cantonese with all her relatives and also her friends, while F2 only uses it with her grandparents and F4 only uses it with her cousins. Similarly, F8 claimed to speak Zhuang with all her relatives and also her friends, others such as F16 and M2 use it with all their relatives but not with friends, and F9 uses it only with her grandparents.

3. Data
The twenty-four speakers were recorded directly onto a computer in a special-purpose recording studio at Guangxi University with a high quality microphone placed a few centimetres from their mouths. Each student read a short text, the Wolf passage (Deterding 2006b), which is especially designed to facilitate the description of all the consonants and vowels of English:

**The Boy who Cried Wolf**

There was once a poor shepherd boy who used to watch his flocks in the fields next to a dark forest near the foot of a mountain. One hot afternoon, he thought up a good plan to get some company for himself and also have a little fun. Raising his fist in the
air, he ran down to the village shouting "Wolf, Wolf." As soon as they heard him, the villagers all rushed from their homes, full of concern for his safety, and two of his cousins even stayed with him for a short while. This gave the boy so much pleasure that a few days later he tried exactly the same trick again, and once more he was successful. However, not long after, a wolf that had just escaped from the zoo was looking for a change from its usual diet of chicken and duck. So, overcoming its fear of being shot, it actually did come out from the forest and began to threaten the sheep. Racing down to the village, the boy of course cried out even louder than before. Unfortunately, as all the villagers were convinced that he was trying to fool them a third time, they told him, "Go away and don’t bother us again." And so the wolf had a feast.

I also interviewed them for about three minutes, but this paper will focus on an analysis of the Wolf passage. The data was analysed using Praat, Version 5.3.55 (Boersma and Weenink 2013), which enables repeated detailed listening of extracts of speech and also acoustic measurement. In the analysis below, first the consonants and then the vowels of these speakers will be discussed. Finally, two aspects of their suprasegmental speech will be considered: word stress and sentence stress.

In the analysis, to avoid making prescriptive statements about the pronunciation of some sounds, the conventions of Wells (1982) will be adopted. The sounds at the start of words such as think and then will be referred to as voiceless TH and voiced TH respectively, and lexical keywords will be used to refer to some vowels, so the vowels in words such as feast and fist will be referred to as FLEECE and KIT respectively.

4. Voiced fricatives

Standard Chinese has no voiced fricatives, apart from the sound at the start of a word such as 日 (‘sun’) which under some analyses is described as a voiced retroflex fricative that might be represented as /ʐ/ (Duanmu 2007, p. 24). Although Chinese has voiceless fricatives such as /f/ and /s/, the voiced equivalents /v/ and /z/ do not occur. (The sound at the start of 子 (‘son’, which is written as ‘z’ in Pinyin, is in fact an affricate, not a fricative.) Cantonese also has no voiced fricatives (Zee 1999).

Although Standard Zhuang has a sound that might be shown as /v/, it is actually pronounced as the approximant [β], and there are no other voiced fricatives in Zhuang (Wikipedia 2014).

As a result of the absence of voiced fricatives in their indigenous languages, one of the most salient features of the pronunciation of these speakers is the consonant at the start of village and villagers being produced as [w] rather than the expected /v/. These two words
each occur twice in the Wolf passage, and of the total of 96 tokens, 49 (51%) are produced with [w], and seventeen of the twenty-four speakers have [w] in at least one of these tokens, so only seven of them have [v] in all four tokens. It is notable that Ao and Low (2012) reported that this use of [w] in place of /v/ did not occur in their data from Yunnan Province, even though the two provinces are neighbouring. Similarly, Schneider (2011) stated that the phenomenon only occurred once in his data, in the word province. It seems that the widespread use of [w] in place of /v/ is idiosyncratic of the English of Guangxi.

One might then ask if it is influenced by the occurrence of /v/ pronounced as [β] in Zhuang. The eight speakers of Zhuang have an average of 2.1 tokens of [w] in the four tokens of village and villagers, while the sixteen who do not speak Zhuang have an average of 2.0 tokens, so this provides little evidence for an influence from Zhuang (t=0.17, df=22, p=0.8, ns). However, we might note that F7, F8 and F11 stated that they speak Zhuang with all their relatives, and they use [w] in place of /v/ in all four tokens of village and villagers, while F9, who uses Zhuang only with her grandparents, never uses [w] in these words, so perhaps people who speak Zhuang regularly have a greater tendency to use [w] in place of /v/ in English. Five non-Zhuang speakers, F1, F5, F10, F14 and F18, also have [w] in all four tokens of village and villagers, but it is possible that they are influenced by a language which is widely spoken around them even though they do not themselves speak it.

Producing the /z/ at the start of zoo causes less difficulty for these speakers. Only one speaker, F7, has an approximant that might be shown as [ɹ] at the start of zoo. In addition, F17 has an affricate [dz], F16 has [ʃ], and two others, F6 and F8, have [s] instead of /z/, but the remaining nineteen speakers have [z]. One other feature of the pronunciation of zoo is that nine of the speakers have [m] at the end of the word. It is not clear why this occurs.

Finally, there is the voiced fricative /ʒ/ that occurs in the middle of pleasure and usual, a sound that is frequently produced as [ɹ] in the English of people from China, especially those from places such as Beijing, Liaoning and Shandong in the north of the country (Deterding 2006a). Li and Sewell (2011) confirmed that the occurrence of [ɹ] in usual is mostly found in the north of China, as all five instances of this substitution in their data occurred with speakers from the north.

Just three of the Guangxi speakers, F2, F14 and F17, have an approximant (either [j] or [ɻ]) in the middle of pleasure. All the others have a fricative, though for some of them it is partly devoiced to [ʃ]. The same three speakers also have an approximant in usual, and four others do as well: F6, F7, F8 and F11. It is not clear why usual seems to be more problematic than pleasure. However, overall, /ʒ/ seems to be a little less troublesome than /v/ for these
speakers. In fact, four of the speakers (F1, F5, F10, F18) who have [w] in all four tokens of village and villager have a clear fricative sound, either [ʒ] or [ʃ], in both pleasure and usual. The other voiced fricative of English, /ð/, will be discussed in the next section.

5. The TH sounds
The sounds at the start of words such as think and this are the most variable consonants of English, not just in new varieties of English but also in traditional native-speaker varieties. For example, speakers in London typically use [f] and [v] (Wells 1982, p. 328), those in Ireland and New York have [t] and [d] (or their dental equivalents) (Wells 1982, pp. 429, 515), while many people in the ASEAN countries in Southeast Asia use [t] and [d] (Deterding & Kirkpatrick 2006), speakers in Hong Kong often have [f] and [v] (Deterding, Wong & Kirkpatrick 2008) and people in Germany tend to have [s] and [z] (Swan 1987).

For voiceless TH, Deterding (2006a) reported that speakers in China who did not have [θ] tended to have [s] instead, and this has been confirmed by Ao and Low (2012) for speakers in Yunnan and both Schneider (2011) and Li and Sewell (2012) for speakers from elsewhere. The current data also finds this use of [s] for voiceless TH. There are three words in the Wolf passage with initial voiceless TH: thought, threaten and third, and the realisation of this initial consonant is shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>[θ]</th>
<th>[s]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thought</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threaten</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>third</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51 (70.8%)</td>
<td>21 (29.2%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that [θ] occurs in nearly 71% of the tokens, but [s] also sometimes occurs. Three speakers (F2, F7, F14, all of them speakers of Cantonese) use [s] in all three tokens, eight others (F4, F5, F6, F11, F12, F16, F17, M2) use [s] in one or more tokens, and the remaining thirteen speakers use [θ] throughout. It is noteworthy that even the Cantonese speakers never use [f], the pronunciation that is often found in Hong Kong (Deterding, Wong and Kirkpatrick 2008), and furthermore none of them use [t], the sound that occurs throughout most of Southeast Asia (Deterding and Kirkpatrick 2006).

The results also show that [s] is most common in thought, even though this word is near the start of the passage when speakers might be expected to be most careful with their pronunciation. One possibility is that threaten has most instances of [θ] because it is the
least common word, on the basis that speakers are more likely to be influenced by the spelling for less common words. In the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) database, threaten is ranked 1401 in a list of the most common words, while thought and third are ranked 761 and 585 respectively (COCA 2014). However, this suggested correlation between word frequency and occurrence of [s] does not hold for the other two words, as thought is less frequent than third but it exhibits a higher occurrence of [s].

There are many words in the Wolf passage with voiced TH at the start, including the and that. However, they are often spoken rather fast, so it is hard to determine what sound occurs at the start. Here, I will just analyse the pronunciation of there (the first word in the passage) and this (which occurs at the start of a sentence and is stressed). The realisation of the sound at the start of these two words is shown in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Realisation of voiced TH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that about 79% of the tokens have [d] rather than [ð] at the start. Two speakers (F20, M1) have [ð] in both tokens, six others (F1, F3, F4, F10, F13, F14) have [ð] in one token and [d] in the other, and the remaining seventeen speakers have [d] in both tokens.

The fact that a non-standard pronunciation is common in there and this is consistent with the suggestion that pronunciation of the TH sounds might be related to word frequency, as these words are two of the most common words in English, being ranked 53 and 20 respectively in the COCA data. However, perhaps one should not compare function words like these with content words such as thought, threaten and third.

The occurrence of [s] as a realisation of voiceless TH is consistent with the findings of Deterding (2006a) for other parts of China. Deterding (2006a) further reported that voiced TH could be either [d] or [z], depending on the place of origin of the speaker, and this is consistent with the current data, as only [d] is found for speakers in Guangxi. Ao and Lo (2012) reported that only [z] occurred as a replacement for voiced TH in Yunnan, and this confirms that the pronunciation of speakers in Guangxi and Yunnan is quite distinct even though they are neighbouring provinces. Both Schneider (2011) and Li and Sewell (2012) reported [d] as well as [z] occurring as realisations of voiced TH in their data, but both studies included speakers from a range of different places.
6. Word-final consonant clusters
The tendency to simplify consonant clusters is a shared property of all varieties of English (Schreier 2005, p. 27), and in British English it is normal to omit a final /t/ when it is at the end of a word-final consonant cluster and the next word begins with a consonant, such as in phrases like next day, last chance, first light, west region, soft centres and drift by (Cruttenden 2024, p. 314). However, this omission of a word-final /t/ is less common if the next word begins with a vowel.

The speakers in Deterding (2006a) showed an aversion to simplifying word-final consonant clusters, believing such pronunciation to be lazy, and they preferred instead to insert an extra vowel at the end (to be discussed below). In contrast, the speakers in the current study often omit the final consonant in words such as fist and forest.

Here, I will just consider three tokens, all of which involve word-final /st/: fist in, forest and, and feast. In the first of these, fist is a stressed monosyllabic word followed by a word beginning with a vowel; in the second, the /st/ occurs at the end of an unstressed syllable in forest followed by a word beginning with a vowel; and feast is a stressed monosyllable that occurs as the final word of the passage. The omission of the /t/ in these three tokens is shown in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>/t/ retained</th>
<th>/t/ omitted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fist in</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forest and</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feast</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>49 (68.1%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>23 (32.9%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Just one speaker (F19) omits the /t/ in all three tokens. Eight speakers (F1, F4, F7, F9, F11, F15, F17, M1) omit the /t/ in fist in and forest and but retain it in feast. Two speakers (F13, F14) omit the /t/ in fist in but retain it in the other two tokens, and two speakers (F2, F12) omit the /t/ in forest and but retain it in the other two tokens. The remaining eleven speakers retain the /t/ in all three tokens.

The results in Table 4 show that the /t/ is omitted in nearly half of the tokens of fist in and also forest and, but it is almost always retained in feast. This mirrors one aspect of the data reported in Deterding (2006a): the speakers there were more likely to produce citation forms for words before a pause, but they often did not exhibit fluent linking between words.
And in the current study, while the speakers nearly all produce a /t/ in the final word, *feast*, they do not use word-final /t/ to link words together in *fist in* and *forest and*. In fact, in many cases there is a short pause after the /t/ in *fist* and *forest*.

The pattern of omitting the /t/ more often in *fist in* and *forest and* than the final word *feast* is also found in Brunei English (Deterding and Salbrina 2013, p. 28), and the lack of linking between words has been noted for other varieties of English in Southeast Asia, including Singapore English (Deterding 2007, p. 18).

For word-final consonant clusters, the main difference between the current study and Deterding (2006a) is that, in the current Guangxi data the speakers often omit the final /t/, while in the earlier study the speakers inserted an epenthetic vowel, an issue that will now be discussed.

7. Epenthetic Vowels

One of the most salient features of the pronunciation of speakers from northern and central China is an epenthetic vowel occurring after word-final consonants, so *and* often gets pronounced as [əndə]. In fact, Deterding (2006a) reported that every one of his thirteen speakers regularly did this. For example, twelve of them inserted a vowel in the middle of the phrase *and so*, and seven of them inserted a vowel in *wind blew*. Li and Sewell (2012) confirmed these findings, as eight of their twelve speakers included a vowel in *and scolded* and seven included one in *and saw*, while Schneider (2011) reported that three out of his six speakers regularly inserted a final vowel after words such as *grade, but, child and wind* and one just did it occasionally, but the remaining two speakers did not exhibit this phenomenon.

While a similar epenthetic vowel sometimes occurs with the Guangxi speakers, it is much less common than reported in Deterding (2006a). In fact, in the 24 recordings of the passage, there are a total of just 19 instances. Only ten speakers ever exhibit the phenomenon, and for five of them, there is just one instance. The most common occurrence of vowel insertion is at the end of the word *village*: for F2, F16 and F17, both tokens of *village* have an added vowel, in some cases as long as 200 msec, making the word sound like *villagy*, and F9 and F13 have an added vowel in one of the tokens.

Apart from *village*, the instances of this epenthetic vowel are at the end of the first word in the following phrases (with the duration of the added vowel shown in brackets): F2, *used to* (88 msec); F3, *and two* (55 msec); F5, *not long* (94 msec); F7, *and once* (75 msec), *and two* (105 msec), *and duck* (62 msec), *and began* (62 msec); F11, *wolf, wolf* (243 msec); F13, *used to* (60 msec), *escaped from* (69 msec); M2, *had just* (71 msec).
If we consider the phrases *and two, and once, and duck and and began*, there are a total of five instances of an epenthetic vowel in these four phrases from the twenty-four Guangxi speakers, which suggests that the rate of insertion is about 5.2% for these four phrases. This is much lower than the 61.5% reported for the two phrases *and the sun and and so* in Deterding (2006a) and also the 58.5% reported for similar phrases involving *and* by Li and Sewell (2012). Clearly the Guangxi speakers differ from speakers from other parts of China in this respect, and only F7 (with four tokens) has a pattern of vowel insertion after *and* which approaches that reported by Deterding (2006a) and Li and Sewell (2012).

### 8. Word-final single consonants

Above, I discussed the omission of /t/ from the end of a consonant cluster. Here I will consider single consonants at the end of a word. Chang (1987, p. 226) notes that speakers of English in China may produce *duck* either as [dʌk] or as [dʌʔ], and Deterding (2006a) reported the first pattern, with six out of thirteen speakers inserting a vowel at the end of *agreed* in the phrase *agreed that* and five of them inserting a vowel in the middle of *at last*.

However, the second pattern, omission of the final consonant (or its replacement with a glottal stop) is more commonly found in the Guangxi data. In the phrase *foot of*, the /t/ is absent for three speakers, F1, F2 and M2; and in the phrase *hot afternoon*, the /t/ is omitted from the end of *hot* by eight speakers (F6, F7, F8, F9, F11, F17, F19, F20). Just as with final /t/ in a consonant cluster, we find that there is little evidence of the /t/ being used to link the two words.

We might also consider the word *duck*, the word highlighted by Chang (1987). In the Wolf passage, it occurs at the end of a sentence, in the phrase *its usual diet of chicken and duck*. Two speakers (F19, F20) have a glottal stop at the end of this word, but all the others have [k], and none have an epenthetic vowel, so it seems that most of these speakers in Guangxi do not exhibit the pattern described by Chang (1987) for this word, at least when it occurs at the end of a sentence.

### 9. /l/ and /r/

There is an occasional tendency to confuse /l/ and /r/, though this is much less frequent than in Japanese English (Riney, Tagaki and Inutsuka 2006). Confusion between /l/ and /r/ usually occurs with consonant clusters, just as in Hong Kong English (Deterding, Wang and Kirkpatrick 2008). There are just two instances in the Guangxi data involving an initial consonant, with an initial [l] in *ran* (F7 and M2), and two tokens involving a medial consonant, with [l] in *forest* (F7) and [r] in *actually* (F8). However, *raising* and *racing* never start with [l], and *long* and *looking* never start with [r].
For consonant clusters, there are five tokens of *from* with [l] (two from F7, one from M1, and two from M2). In addition, there are seven tokens of [r] occurring instead of the expected /l/, two involving *plan* (F13 and M2), two involving *pleasure* (F13 and F16), two involving *exactly* (F13 and F14), and one involving *unfortunately* (F13). Finally, there are two tokens of *flocks* in which the /l/ is omitted (F13 and F16), so the word sounds like *fox*.

In summary, there are eighteen tokens of confusion between /l/ and /r/ or omission of /l/, and fourteen of them involve consonant clusters. Thirteen of the eighteen tokens are from just three speakers, F7, F13 and M2, two of whom, F7 and F13, use Cantonese widely, and they both stated they speak it with their cousins and also their friends, so it is possible that this feature is more prevalent with Cantonese speakers of English, such as those in Hong Kong. However, overall, seventeen of these twenty-four speakers in Guangxi never confuse /l/ and /r/.

10. Omission of dark /l/
The previous section discussed /l/ in the onset of a syllable. In the coda of a syllable, either before another consonant such as in *wolf* or at the end of a word such as *full*, /l/ in English is usually pronounced as a dark /l/ that can be represented as [ɿ], with the back of the tongue raised and a quality similar to [u] (Roach 2009, p. 48). In fact, in many varieties of English, including that of London, /l/ in the coda of a syllable is actually pronounced as a vowel (it is vocalised), so *field* can be pronounced as [fɪʊd] (Cruttenden 2014, p. 90). However, even with this L-vocalisation, the /l/ is not usually deleted, so *wolf* and *woof* are generally differentiated in Britain.

L-vocalisation is common in the English spoken in China, and the complete omission of the /l/ is also found. Deterding (2006a) noted *small* being pronounced as [smɔː], and Ao and Low (2012) reported that, when reading the Wolf passage, nine out of their ten speakers had no /l/ in *wolf* and four of them pronounced *full* as [fɔː] while others pronounced it as [fuː].

The omission of dark /l/ in *wolf* and *full* is also common in the Guangxi data. Fourteen of the twenty-four speakers have no /l/ in the phrase *wolf, wolf*, so in many cases it sounds like the shepherd boy was barking like a dog when he ran down the hill, and seventeen of them omit the /l/ in *full of*.

We might note that omission of /l/ after a back vowel and before a final consonant is a natural process that has been affecting English pronunciation for centuries, so for example /l/ was present in the Middle English pronunciation of *walk, folk* and *half* but it is absent from the modern English pronunciation of these words (Algeo 2010, p. 149), and Wells
lists *almond* as normally having no /l/ in modern British English (though 75% of Americans still prefer it with /l/), and furthermore the /l/ in *although* can optionally be omitted (2008, p. 24). However, the incidence of /l/ omission after back vowels is rather more widespread in the English spoken in China.

**11. Rhoticity**
There seems to be an increasing incidence of rhoticity in some varieties of English in East Asia that used to be non-rhotic. For example, Brunei English is usually assumed to be based on British English, which is mostly non-rhotic, but it has been reported that about 50% of university undergraduates in Brunei now have a rhotic accent, particularly having *r*-colouring in open syllables such as *more* and the second syllable of *before*, and it is suggested that this may result from the combined influence of American English and Brunei Malay, both of which are rhotic (Salbrina and Deterding 2012). The same may be happening in Singapore, and though the incidence of rhoticity is lower than in Brunei, partly because neither the Chinese nor the Malay spoken in Singapore is rhotic, it is highest for well-educated speakers, so it may be a growing phenomenon (Tan 2012).

What about the English spoken in China? Is there a growing incidence of rhoticity? If there are influences from the first language of speakers, one might expect that those from the north of China would exhibit a higher incidence of rhoticity, as the Standard Chinese of Beijing has widespread rhoticity in such words as 二èr (‘two’), but this is largely absent in south China.

In the Guangxi data, just two speakers, F10 and F18, have rhotic English, with both pronouncing *more* and *before* with *r*-colouring. Both of these speakers are Cantonese speakers, though both stated that they had lived in Nanning all their lives, so there is no evidence that they might have been influenced by exposure to people in Hong Kong or elsewhere.

Schneider (2014, p. 19) suggests that American English is the predominant model in China, but the small number of rhotic speakers in the current study suggests that this American influence does not extend to Guangxi. Perhaps it is more extensive in the large eastern cities such as Beijing and Shanghai. It will be interesting to see if the incidence of rhotic pronunciation increases throughout China in the future, particularly with widespread exposure to American films and music in the modern globalised world.

**12. Final /n/**
Duanmu (2007, p. 68) reports that there is often an absence of complete closure for final /n/ and /ŋ/ in Standard Chinese, especially with open vowels, with the result that the rhyme of a syllable such as 三(sān, ‘three’) may become a long nasalised vowel. This phenomenon
often affects the pronunciation of English in China. Deterding (2006a) noted that, of the 39
tokens of *sun* in his data, 13 were pronounced as a heavily nasalised vowel followed by a
nasal consonant and 15 had no perceptible final consonant, so only 11 had the partly
nasalised vowel followed by [n] that is expected in English. Ao and Low (2012) report the
same phenomenon sometimes occurring with *afternoon* and *soon*, so in their data it
occurred with close vowels as well as open vowels.

In the Guangxi data, in the word *fun*, five speakers have no final consonant, ten speakers
produce a heavily nasalised vowel followed by [n], and nine pronounce the word as might
be expected in British English, with some (but not too much) anticipatory nasalisation
followed by [n]. All but one of the Zhuang speakers have the standard pronunciation, and
only M4 has heavy nasalisation. In contrast, three of the Cantonese speakers have no final
[n], four have a heavily nasalised vowel, and just three have the standard pronunciation, so
this feature of pronunciation seems to be affected by the home language of the speakers.

13. Vowel length
Although Chinese has long vowels in open syllables such as 妈*mā* (‘mother’) and short
vowels in closed syllables such as 慢*màn* (‘slow’), the length of the vowel is predictable from
the structure of the syllable and so it is not contrastive (Duanmu 2007, p. 41). As a result,
speakers of English in China often fail to make a distinction between the long and short
vowels of English, so vowel pairs such as the FLEECE and KIT vowels may be merged. In fact,
this is one of the small number of pronunciation features of Chinese English mentioned by
Kachru and Nelson (2006, p. 169), and it is also listed by Chang (1987, p. 225).

Comparing the length of vowels by means of acoustic measurement is problematic, as
duration inevitably depends on speaking rate, and people constantly vary the rate at which
they speak. However, in English, the long/short vowels also differ in terms of quality (Roach
2009, p. 16), so FLEECE is usually more close and more front than KIT. We can therefore judge
the quality of these two vowels, and if they have a similar quality, then we assume they are
merged.

There is a minimal pair for FLEECE and KIT in the Wolf passage: feast and fist. By measuring
the first two formants (F₁ and F₂), we can obtain an estimate of the quality of the vowels. In
Figure 1, the formants of these two tokens for all twenty-four speakers have been
converted to an auditory Bark scale (Hayward 2000, p. 141) and then plotted to show an
estimate of how they are scattered in terms of the open-close dimension (the vertical axis)
and the front-back dimension (the horizontal axis). This plot just shows the top left part of
the vowel quadrilateral, so a vowel with F₁ = 6 Bark and F₂ = 12 Bark would be a mid central
vowel such as [ə].
In Figure 1, the two tokens of *fist* on the lower right have a centralised quality, but they should be discounted, as the speakers (F3 and F8) both mis-read the word as *first*. For the other speakers, the distribution of the two vowels is clearly overlapping, and overall there is little evidence of a distinction between them.

An alternative way to analyse these tokens is to compare the two tokens from each speaker and see how far they are separated from one another, both auditorily and acoustically. The acoustic distance can be derived by calculating the Euclidean distance between the two tokens on Figure 1. Excluding the tokens of F3 and F8, we find that the tokens of *feast* and *fist* of sixteen speakers are perceptually very similar and acoustically less than 1 Bark apart, and the tokens of just four speakers, F4, F6, F9 and F14 are distinct. This confirms that the overwhelming majority of the speakers do not make a distinction between the long and short vowels of English.

Three out of the four speakers who do make a distinction between *feast* and *fist*, F4, F6 and F14, are speakers of Cantonese. It is possible that the distinction between short and extra short vowels in closed syllables in Cantonese (Zee 1999) helps these speakers to differentiate the long/short vowels of English in *feast* and *fist*. 
14. Diphthong reduction
Although Standard Chinese has diphthongs such as /ai/ and /au/ (Duanmu 2007, p. 40), they can never be followed by a consonant, as the final nasals /n/ and /ŋ/ can only occur after a monophthong vowel. Adopting a systemic analysis, Halliday (1992) suggests that the Chinese syllable can end in a y-prosody or a w-prosody, and either of these can be oral or nasal, and this gives four possible endings: a diphthong ending in [i] (front oral), a diphthong ending in [u] (back oral), a final [n] (front nasal) and a final [ŋ] (back nasal), which neatly models the impossibility of a diphthong being followed by a nasal final.

Li and Sewell (2012) report that in their data diphthongs were sometimes shortened in closed syllables, particularly with the vowel in stone being pronounced as [ɔ], and four of their twelve speakers had a shortened vowel for mouth.

In the Guangxi data, thirteen of the speakers have a monophthongal vowel in time, while one speaker, M3, has no final [m] in the word, so only ten of the speakers have the expected pronunciation [ta’m]. Although the monophthong for the thirteen speakers can be quite long, so the pronunciation might be shown as [tʰə’m], the loss of a diphthongal quality is consistent with the phenomenon reported by Li and Sewell.

The difficulty of producing an English diphthong followed by a final consonant has also been noted for speakers from Vietnam, as, just like Chinese, Vietnamese only has diphthongs in open syllables. However, the solution adopted by speakers from Vietnam is to omit the final consonant rather than making the vowel a monophthong (Hansen 2006, p. 20).

15. Vowel reduction
In British English, a reduced vowel such as [ə] tends to occur in the weak form of function words like of, to and as (Roach 2009, p. 93) as well as in the unstressed fist syllable of content words such as confess and convince. In fact, Wells (2008, p. 175, 183) lists alternative pronunciations starting with [kɔn] for these two content words, but he includes the symbol ‘§’ to show that these alternatives are ‘non-RP’.

The occurrence of a full vowel rather than a reduced vowel in function words and the unstressed syllables of content words is one of the most widely reported features of new varieties of English around the world (Mesthrie and Bhatt 2008, p. 125) and it is found throughout southeast Asia (Deterding and Kirkpatrick 2006). In fact, it might be considered a standard feature of emergent World Englishes that probably serves to enhance the intelligibility of speech in an international setting (Deterding 2010).

For function words, Deterding (2006a) reported that, of a total of 65 tokens of the function words that, than, to and of produced by his speakers from China, all but three tokens were produced with a full vowel. Ao and Low (2012) similarly reported that most tokens of of had
a full vowel in their data from Yunnan, and in fact the articles a and the were also often produced with full vowels. The results for to (in to get) and the two tokens of as (in as soon as) in the Guangxi data are shown in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>full vowel</th>
<th>reduced vowel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to (get)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As (soon as)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(As soon) as</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>64 (88.9%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>8 (11.1%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that the overwhelming majority of the tokens of to are produced with a full vowel rather than [ə]. Only two speakers, F11 and F20, have a reduced vowel in this word. Similarly, the just two speakers, F3 and F17, have a reduced vowel in the sentence-initial token of as, and in addition to F3 and F7, two more speakers, F12 and F14, have a reduced vowel in the second token of as in the phrase as soon as they heard him. This confirms the findings of the other studies that the incidence of vowel reduction in function words is extremely low in the English spoken in China.

In contrast, Deterding (2006a) reported that the first syllable of considered was usually produced with [ə], with ten out of thirteen speakers having vowel reduction, while seven of them had [ə] in the first syllable of confess. For the Guangxi data, nine speakers have [ɒ] in the first syllable of concern while fifteen have [ə]. However, this is somewhat misleading, as all but one of the speakers with [ɒ] actually stress the first syllable of this word (to be discussed in the next section), and only one speaker, F4, has a full vowel in the unstressed syllable. A better estimate of the occurrence of [ɒ] in unstressed syllables of content words is offered by analysis of convinced. In this word, six speakers (F1, F3, F6, F11, F19, M2) have [ɒ] while the other eighteen all have [ə].

This is consistent with the suggestion of Deterding (2006a) that speakers of English in China may produce the expected citation form of content forms, including [ə] in unstressed syllables, but they almost never use the weak forms of function words. This phenomenon probably reflects the widespread memorisation of vocabulary, involving extensive imitation of the citation forms of words, but a lack of learning words in context.

16. Word stress

Word stress in English is complicated, depending on such things as the morphology of the word, its grammatical category, how many syllables it has, and its phonological structure (Roach 2009, p. 76). While one can attempt to derive rules for stress placement, there are rather a lot of exceptions (Brown 2014, p. 125). Not surprisingly, speakers around the world
tend to have varying patterns of word stress, sometimes ironing out a few of the exceptions. For example, in Singapore, many speakers stress the second syllable of *colleague*, because it has a long /iː/ vowel which would usually be stressed (Deterding 2007, p. 32). Note, for example, that *antique, defeat, esteem, mystique* and *police* are all stressed on the second syllable in which the vowel is /iː/. Similarly, in Brunei, *character* may be stressed on the second syllable because it is followed by two consonants, by analogy with trisyllabic words such as *disaster, encounter, remember, semester* and *September* (Deterding and Salbrina 2013, p. 42).

In the Guangxi data, the word which most often has an unexpected stress placement is *concern*. Eight speakers produce it with stress on the first syllable (F1, F3, F6, F7, F10, F13, F19, M2). It is not clear why this word is affected but other words are not, as, for example, no speakers pronounce *convinced* with initial stress. One thing to note in this respect is that *concern* is a noun in the passage while *convinced* is a verb, and it is common for nouns to have initial stress while verbs do not. Maybe the stress pattern in *concern* found among the speakers in Guangxi arises from analogy with the initial stress in other nouns such as *comfort, conduct, contact, contour* and *convoy*. We might also note noun/verb pairs like *console, construct, contrast, convert* and *convict* in which the noun is stressed on the first syllable but the verb on the second.

Aitchison (1991, p. 82) states that, in the late sixteenth century, just three words had a noun/verb contrast like this, but by 1934 there were more than 150 such pairs, including *addict, export, import, suspect* and many more. Indeed, the process seems to be continuing, as *address* seems to be following the trend, especially in America, where Wells (2008, p. 10) reports that 58% of people prefer the noun to have stress on the first syllable. Perhaps the speakers in Guangxi are ahead of their time by stressing the first syllable of *concern* when it is a noun.

There are no other obvious patterns of unexpected word stress in the Guangxi data. Schneider (2011) reported *competence* stressed on the second syllable by three out of six of his speakers, but other patterns, such as *linguistics* stressed on the first syllable and *England* stressed on the second syllable, were isolated tokens in his data.

17. Sentence stress

In British or American English, pronouns are almost never stressed, unless they are contrastive. However, stress on a sentence-final pronoun is common in Singapore (Levis 2005) and throughout Southeast Asia (Deterding and Kirkpatrick 2006).

Deterding (2006a) reported that eleven out of thirteen speakers in that study placed considerable emphasis on the final pronoun in the phrase *fold his cloak around him*. Li and Sewell (2012) confirmed this pattern, as nine out of twelve speakers stressed the final
pronoun in *looked out of the window and saw him*, while six of them stressed the final *him* in *ran away with him*.

This stressing of final pronouns is comparatively rare in the Guangxi data. Just six of the twenty-four speakers (F2, F3, F6, F10, F17, M2) stress the final pronoun in *as soon as they heard him*, and only three of them (F2, F3, F6) stress *him* at the end of *they told him*.

18. Conclusion
Some patterns in the English spoken in Guangxi are similar to the patterns reported for speakers from elsewhere in China: the tendency to use [s] for voiceless TH (and the avoidance of other replacements, such as [t] or [f]); the widespread omission of dark /l/ to the extent that *wolf* may sound like *woof*; the heavy nasalization of a vowel before a final nasal in a word such as *fun*; and the avoidance of vowel reduction in function words.

However, there are other patterns that make the English spoken in Guangxi distinct: the widespread use of [w] in place of /v/; the use of [d] but never [z] as a realisation of voiced TH; and the preference for simplifying word-final consonant clusters rather than inserting an epenthetic vowel at the end of a word. And it is interesting that, even though Guangxi is a neighbor of Yunnan, the pronunciation in the two places is distinct, with Guangxi favouring [d] for voiced TH while Yunnan has [z], and Guangxi’s regular replacement of /v/ with [w] not reported in the Yunnan data.

There has been some debate about whether Chinese English might be emerging as a distinct variety (Xu 2010; Li and Sewell 2012). The Guangxi data show that there may be some features shared throughout the country, but there are also substantial differences. Only time will tell if some of these differences will be ironed out as people travel more widely in the country, so that a national variety might emerge.

One might also note that some of the features of the Guangxi data are shared by other new varieties of English, especially the avoidance of vowel reduction in function words and also maybe the lack of linking between words. Finally, speakers of English in Guangxi might even be in the forefront of some changes taking place in the evolution of English, such as initial stress on *concern* when it is a noun. It will be interesting to see if this pattern gets adopted by other speakers.

Acknowledgements
I am indebted to Guangxi University, especially to Professor Song Yafei of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, for inviting me to visit them and also for facilitating the recordings. I am also grateful to the students for their patience and generosity in letting me record them and analyse their speech for this research.
References


Students’ Intuition-Based Self-Efficacy and Evidence-Based Self-Efficacy towards Their Oral Presentation

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Abstract
Self-efficacy has a profound effect on learners’ performance, especially, in speaking skills and oral presentations as they require a lot more than language knowledge. This study aims to investigate student’s intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy in oral presentations. The study was conducted with 24 subjects. They were asked to do the questionnaire and to report their intuition-based self-efficacy in their oral presentations. Later the same questionnaire was used to rate their self-efficacy after their actual performances. The results showed that the levels of intuition-based self-efficacy were significantly higher than evidence-based self-efficacy in all three components of the presentation: language, delivery and organization. Noticeably, evidence had an impact on students’ self-efficacy once they evaluated themselves from what they had performed.

Key words: self-efficacy, intuition-based self-efficacy, evidence-based self-efficacy, belief, oral presentation

1. Introduction
When students decide to engage in activities in learning situations, many factors can influence the choices they make such as self-efficacy, motivation, interest, attitudes, abilities, experiences, etc. These factors are related to affective factors. Among these factors, self-efficacy seems to be a crucial attribute as it mobilizes motivation, cognitive responses, and courses of action (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy is an individual’s belief in his/her ability to perform a specific task. These beliefs influence an individual’s task choice, and the effort in attaining and achieving the task (Bandura, 1997; Schunk, 1995). Self-efficacy also concerns the judgment of what he/she can do to perform a given situation (Bandura, 1997). In addition, self-efficacy influences an individual’s confidence in his/her ability to perform (Delcourt & Kizie, 1993).

When faced with difficult situations, self-efficacy will be affected by choices that students make to complete tasks (Bandura, 1977). Hence, they will choose to perform in areas in which they have high self-efficacy, and to avoid areas in which they have low self-efficacy. Students with the same knowledge and skills might perform differently depending on their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993). Moreover, a person who has a high sense of efficacy is likely
to be more successful than a person who doubts his or her efficacy. Thus, it can be assumed that self-efficacy is a predictor of academic success (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy is a factor that affects students’ performance and helps students to overcome the difficult learning situations, especially in second language learning. Second language learning is both demanding and challenging; therefore, students need to put in a lot of effort and motivate themselves in learning processes and performing tasks, especially in productive skills such as speaking and oral presentation. Students with strong senses of self-efficacy are more likely to succeed, and therefore perform better in oral presentation since they tend to put in more effort and are more persistent in completing a task. Also, they can lower their anxieties, and are more confident in performing their oral presentations. On the contrary, students with low self-efficacy would prefer to avoid demanding or challenging tasks because they believe that these activities are beyond their abilities. However, self-efficacy could be enhanced once students persist and continue doing the task until they have succeeded.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Sources of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy comes from four main sources; mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and emotional states (Bandura, 1994). These four sources can promote either high or low levels of self-efficacy.

Mastery experience refers to an individual looking at one’s past experiences (Bandura, 1977). When students had experienced success in tasks, their self-efficacy was shown to be higher (Warren, 2011). Previous and current success would build up future success. The mastery experience was an effective source to form a strong sense of efficacy and to create a course of action. When students acquire mastery experience such as in speaking areas, their self-efficacy is more likely to increase and they tend to perform better.

Vicarious experience is related to social model. When seeing students similar to them succeed in activities, one will raise his/her self-efficacy to perform the task (Bandura, 1977), thinking that “If she/he can do it, I can.” However, this source can provide a negative view to lower self-efficacy if that person thinks “If she cannot do it, I cannot”. In addition, vicarious experience could be more effective when comparing with students who had the same capabilities (Bandura, 1997). When students observe their peers who have similar capabilities, they tend to motivate themselves to perform and thus raise their own self-efficacies in the process.

Social persuasion refers to the feedback that one receives from others (Bandura, 1977). Whether an individual can perform well or not depends on others’ beliefs and expectations in their capabilities. Thus, social persuasion also affects an individual’s beliefs in his or her
capabilities. In the language classroom, social persuasion comes in the form of feedback, either from the teacher or peers. Therefore, one can raise his/her self-efficacy from the received feedback (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Particularly, students may receive encouragement or feedback from friends while practicing. Such incidents bring high self-efficacy to those students during their actual performances such as in oral presentations.

Emotional states are related to how one feels when he/she has to cope with stress or depression in different situations (Bandura, 1977). Emotions and moods affect students’ self-efficacy and the way they judge their ability. Once the person feels nervous with situations that he/she has failed before, he/she tends to develop a weak sense of self-efficacy in the area which is related to their performance and capabilities (Bandura, 1997). Emotional states also influence students’ self-efficacy in language classrooms. In doing tasks, students often determine what they can or cannot do based on their emotions. Therefore, in oral presentation, many students may often experience high anxiety and link this with their capabilities, worrying that they will not complete the task and/or will perform poorly in their oral presentations.

Self-efficacy will be high or low depending on how students believe about themselves in what they are capable of. If students believe that they can do it, want to do it, or are good enough to do it, their high self-efficacy will be developed. The way students know about themselves is related to their perception and view about the learning situations (Williams & Burden, 1997). In other words, their perception could come from intuition or instincts and accurate self-assessment of their performance (Cholle, 2011). Students could be guided by their intuition and perceive themselves to be capable of doing things so that they would be confident to perform any activities especially in areas where they have had prior success. If they could perform well, their success would reinforce their positive self-perception and success would bring further success. If they could not perform well, however, the evidence of their poor performance would threaten their perception and lower their self-efficacy.

2.2 Self-Efficacy in Oral Presentation
In order to give a presentation, students need to be well prepared and organized. In addition, they have to be confident while performing the task. Several research results conducted by Dwyer and Fus (2002), Dodds (2011) and Warren (2011) support that self-efficacy affects students’ performance in oral presentation. Students with a strong sense of self-efficacy tend to perform better and achieve a high score in oral presentation. Their research results suggest that self-efficacy can be a predictor of oral presentation achievement.

Dwyer and Fus (2002) investigated the relationship between public speaking self-efficacy and course grade. They found that students’ self-efficacy increased over the semester and this was related to students’ final grades. The study suggests that performances and self-
efficacy are interrelated so teachers should focus more on increasing students’ public speaking self-efficacy in order to help students improve their course grades.

Dodds (2011) focused on the correlation of self-efficacy and language performance. The result showed that students who had strong beliefs in their abilities were able to perform well in English lessons, while students who indicated low levels of self-efficacy performed the tasks at low-range levels. Therefore, in this study the researcher found that self-efficacy was directly correlated with the level of English language performance.

Another study by Warren (2011) has also supported the strong relationship between self-efficacy and performance. He found that students who felt confident in their abilities and had strong senses of self-efficacy in public speaking were more likely to perform better than those who had lacked self-efficacy. This research also showed a positive relationship between public speaking self-efficacy and public speaking skills. Teachers play a major role in providing encouragement and feedback to students’ performance. They should also help students to develop or increase self-efficacy in order to assist them to perform better. In addition, students themselves could raise self-efficacy by bearing a can-do attitude and putting more effort and persistence in completing challenging tasks such as oral presentations.

2.3 Component of an Effective Oral Presentation

Oral presentation, especially in English, seems to be a demanding and challenging task for students. In oral presentation, students need to understand the topic and its purpose clearly, know their audience, organize their speeches, choose appropriate visual aids and choose effective language to present. Therefore, self-efficacy plays an important role in oral presentation as students need “control” over these requirements of effective presentations.

Effective presentation consists of three main components; language, delivery and organization (Kougl, 1988; Metcalfe, 2010). The first component is language. The speakers need to choose appropriate words and forms to convey messages (Pabpairee, 2000). They need to be well aware of the meanings of words to provide clear, accurate and appropriate language in order to prevent misunderstanding, especially when presenting in a language which is not their mother tongue.

The second component is delivery. Delivery refers to the way that speakers convey the message to an audience (Kougl, 1988). In order to deliver an effective presentation, both voice and body language are crucial factors (Warren, 2011). In addition, eye contact, gesture, facial expression, and presentation technique are also important for effective presentation. Delivery could help speakers to provide clear and interesting presentations.
The third component is organization. The presenters need to organize their talk in a coherent way to ease the listeners in understanding the content (Pabpairee, 2000; Lucas, 2012). Coherence in organization would help the audience to follow the presentation easily and to understand the presentation accurately. Well organized presentation could help speakers deliver the message coherently. Therefore, all three components are important to help students prepare effective oral presentations. Once they prepare well, their anxiety would be lower and their self-efficacy would be higher during their real performances. Self-efficacy would help students feel in control of their oral presentations.

3. Purpose of the Study
This study aims to investigate student’s intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy in oral presentation. The research question is “Is there any consistency in intuitive-based self-efficacy and evidence-based self-efficacy when students assess their oral presentations?”

4. Methodology
The research was conducted in a natural classroom setting with 24 subjects in science and engineering fields. All of them enrolled in an elective English course at a tertiary level. The course aims to improve the four language skills as well as thinking skills by using tasks and class activities as well as oral presentations as the main mode of learning instruction. In class the students learned about how to make an effective presentation. They studied components of an oral presentation and were assigned to give a presentation on one assigned topic in groups. Prior to the oral performance, a questionnaire was distributed to investigate their “intuition-based self-efficacy” in their ability.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first part consisted of twenty questions with 5-rating scales asking about students’ self-efficacy in presentation. The second part contained two opened-end questions asking about strengths and weaknesses of their presentation. The last part had one question asking them to do the overall self-evaluation of the oral presentation. This questionnaire was adapted from Dwyer and Fus (1999) and Warren (2011).

Four weeks after the presentation, the same questionnaire was redistributed to investigate their “evidence-based self-efficacy”. The video of the presentation was shown to the subjects as evidence to remind them of their performances. The data from the two sets of the questionnaire were then compared by using the t-test method to discern the statistical differences between the two types of self-efficacy in oral presentations. As for the rating scale part of the questionnaire, the following scheme is used to interpret the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating Range</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.00 – 1.80</td>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.81 – 2.60</td>
<td>disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.61 – 3.40  neutral  (moderate self-efficacy)
3.41 – 4.20  agree  (high self-efficacy)
4.21 – 5.00  strongly agree  (very high self-efficacy)

5. Findings and discussion
Comparing the questionnaires’ results, differences between the students’ intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy in oral presentations were noticed. The major findings were as follow:

5.1 Levels of students’ intuition-based self-efficacy and evidence-based self-efficacy in oral presentation.
When asking the subjects to rate their performances before the real presentation with the rating scale 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent), most students (71%) viewed their presentation skills quite high, between 7 and 9. Only a few students (29%) rated themselves quite low between 4 and 6. This suggested that they believed in their oral presentation ability, and they seemed to have high self-efficacy. This view is confirmed by a high average mean score of the intuition-based self-efficacy questionnaire (3.73 = high self-efficacy, see Table 1).

Table 1: Mean scores of students’ intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Intuition-Based Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Evidence-Based Self-Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average mean of all component</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.73</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire results suggested that the subjects had high intuition-based self-efficacy in oral presentations. Of the twenty questions, eighteen were at a high level of self-efficacy, while only two questions (question 4 and 10) were a bit lower, at a moderate level. This level of self-efficacy was especially high in terms of organization as the mean score was higher than the other two components. This might be because the organization part was the part that students could prepare so this part was controllable for the students in their presentation. Once a student believed in his or her ability to control the situation, high self-efficacy would occur.

As for the evidence-based self-efficacy, the result revealed a change in students’ perception about their performance. In this evidence-based rating, only slightly more than half of them (54%) viewed their presentation skill as quite high, between 7 and 9. The rest (46%) rated themselves quite low, between 3 and 6. The subjects seemed to have lower self-efficacy after they saw their performance from the video. This might be because the students could not perform well as they thought, so their self-efficacy markedly dropped. This finding was
also supported by the statistical test. The mean scores of intuition-based self-efficacy (3.73) was higher than evidence-based self-efficacy (3.33) and it was also significantly higher than that of the evidence-based ones ($t = 2.169$, $p < 0.05$).

Considering the evidence-based self-efficacy, most levels were changed from high to moderate. This reveals that although students were quite positive about their ability in presentation, their perceptions about themselves were changed in a downward direction when the evidence of the performance was available. It was noticed that the highest mean self-efficacy scores appear to be in organization, which was the part that could be prepared or managed before the presentation. For language and delivery, the mean scores were obviously lower. Obviously, language and delivery were more difficult to control since they were dependent on feelings or ‘affects’ and language proficiency. Nervousness, anxiety, and excitement could easily occur while presenting and this directly affected the actual performance. Therefore, lower levels of self-efficacy could be resulted when the students evaluated their performance.

In terms of language use, the mean score of evidence-based self-efficacy was lower than the other two (3.11), which was the same as that of the intuition-based self-efficacy. To support the result, these parts of the intuition-based and the evidence-based self-efficacy were tested and a significant difference was noticed ($t = 2.252$, $p < 0.05$). This suggests that students had higher self-efficacy in terms of language use before their presentations. Evidence of language use in the presentation strongly affected their perception about their language ability. The evidence helped raise their awareness about the language problems in their performance.

Like the language component, for the delivery, students’ levels of self-efficacy were lower after they had seen the evidence of their presentations. The mean score of intuition-based self-efficacy was 3.70, and the evidence-based score was 3.27 and a significant statistical difference was shown ($t = 2.281$, $p < 0.05$). Again, in this area evidence seemed to affect students’ perceptions as they found that their performances were not as good as they had thought.

In terms of organization, the mean scores were 3.92 and 3.63 in the intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy categories, respectively. The result of the statistical test also suggested a significant difference between the two types of self-efficacy ($t = 1.433$, $p > 0.05$).

Noticeably, the results showed that after the presentation, students tended to exhibit lower self-efficacy than before the presentation. A study by Alwi and Sidhu (2012) also pointed towards the same direction in that when comparing students’ perceptions (intuition-based self-efficacy) with teacher’s evaluation, students tended to perceive themselves at a higher
level and believed that they could perform well. The students’ evaluation of their actual performance, however, is not usually high and this could affect their confidence and self-efficacy (Whitman & Boase, 1983). Since performance could be affected by stress, anxiety or nervousness, evaluation of the actual performance often results in lower scores than that of perception or intuition.

As we know, an oral presentation is normally one of the difficult situations that students face in their foreign language learning so stress can occur and this might affect performance and self-efficacy (Anyadubalu, 2010). Evidence could provide a good feedback for students to improve themselves, while a strong sense of self-efficacy provides a good start and moral support for them to perform. Once students have high self-efficacy and feel confident in their abilities, they are likely to perform well (Dwyer & Fus, 1999; Dodds, 2011; Warren, 2011; Alwi & Sidhu, 2012).

5. 2 Levels of students’ self-efficacy in each component of an oral presentation

In this section, levels of students’ self-efficacy in each component of an oral presentation would be discussed in details.

**Table 2: Levels of students’ self-efficacy in each component of an oral presentation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Intuition-Based</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Evidence-Based</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Component</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Use English fluently.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Use English accurately.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Use English effectively.</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Use transition signals /expressions</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delivery Component</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Make the presentation within the time limit.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Prepare an effective visual aid.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Use visual aid effectively.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Control excitement during the presentation.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Use a variety of techniques in presentation.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Grab the audience’s attention.</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Use effective body language.</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Make eye-contact effectively.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Raise or lower voice to make effective</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>presentation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Delivery message without reading</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Intuition-Based</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Evidence-Based</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>from the notes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Deal with all questions effectively.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization Component</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Organize the content logically.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Support main ideas with adequate evidence.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Include an introductory statement that summarizes the main idea.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. End presentation with a conclusion that reviews the main ideas.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Structure the presentation (introduction, body and conclusion) effectively.</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a. Language Components* The components that are related to language seemed to be affected by evidence the most. The four questions asked in this component included accuracy, fluency, the use of transition signals and effectiveness of the language use. The results suggested that the use of transitions and accuracy of language use were not much affected. The subjects seemed to be highly confident about their ability to use signal words and fixed expressions for a presentation. This might be because they could prepare well for this component. The students had learned these from class so they could take control over this part of the presentation.

As for accuracy, the subjects’ intuition-based and evidence-based self-efficacy was at the same ‘moderate’ level. They regarded themselves as intermediate language users of English and did not expect to produce a grammar-free oral production from the beginning. They, however, expected to perform well in terms of fluency and to use English effectively, though not perfectly so this part of the intuition-based self-efficacy was ‘high’. Evidence of the actual performance, though, brought down the levels of their self-efficacy after the task. They may find it more difficult than expected to take control over their language use, thus they could not perform as planned, and as a result, self-efficacy dropped.

*b. Delivery Components* In terms of delivery, the subjects were asked about issues on time, visual aids, body language, and presentation techniques. Like the language components, the elements that were highly related to preparation and could easier gain control were affected by evidence the least. This helped explain why the subjects had high self-efficacy over issues on time control and the use of visual aids both before and after the actual presentation.

In terms of ‘affects’ which were more difficult to control (Arnold, 2011), the subjects seemed to be well aware of these emotional factors. They realize that they might not be
able control their excitement well and rated their self-efficacy at the moderate level both before and after the presentation.

In terms of the presentation techniques, it was obvious that evidence from the actual presentation affected their self-efficacy more. From their intuition, the subjects felt that they would present well using effective body language, having good eye contact, controlling their voices to grab audience’s attention and dealing with questions well. They had learnt about how to make effective delivery and were also well prepared for the presentation. However, the actual performance was not as expected so the evidence-based self-efficacy as highly affected as their actual delivery was influenced by their affective factors which were not easy to control.

c. Organization Components  Organization was the only component that the subjects showed ‘high’ levels of self-efficacy both before and after the performance. Evidence did not seem to significantly affect students’ self-efficacy. The subjects were highly confident about the organization of their talk. They thought that they structured the presentation well, introducing logical content and supporting their points well. Classroom instruction and good preparations seemed to play important roles on students’ self-efficacy. Once they have learned and prepared well, they would be confident and could easily manage their presentation skills.

6. Implication and conclusion
The results have shown that students seemed to have high levels of self-efficacy towards their oral presentation. After learning about effective presentations and having a good preparation, they intuitively believed in their ability. Evidence of students’ actual performance, however, could strongly affect their self-efficacy. The levels of self-confidence seemed to be lower after they had seen their actual performance. The lower levels of evidence-based self-efficacy, however, do not imply a negative wash back of presenting an evidence of students’ performance to them. On the other hand, the video of their performance provided an important feedback for further improvement. The students showed high awareness of their own weaknesses from the evidence. Their lower levels of evidence-based self-efficacy do not mean that they lose their beliefs in their ability but they seemed to rely more on reasons, not intuition, which is one sign of learning development. Evidence from many studies also shows that affective factors like emotion and reasons are inseparable in the learning process. They complement each other (Damsio, 1994; Forgas, 2008).

Furthermore, the extent to which the evidence plays roles seems to lie in the level of ‘control’ that students have over the components of the presentation. It could be seen that for aspects that they could prepare, for example, useful formulaic expressions, organization of content, visual supports, time plan, etc., the levels of intuition-based self-efficacy was high and once these have been readily prepared, the evidence would be self-proof and bring satisfactory
results which, in turn, help confirm their high sense of self-efficacy. Even though, the performance was usually not as good as planned and the self-efficacy tended to drop, a significant difference was not noticed in their intuition- and evidence-based self-efficacy. This implies that learner’s preparation for oral presentation in terms of language and aspects that could be prepared and rehearsal could be effective tools to help learners.

As for factors that are harder to control as in terms of ‘affects’, evidence-based self-efficacy seemed to be markedly lower. Affects, such as, anxiety, nervousness or excitement have proved to be the main factor that influences students’ actual performance especially in terms of language and delivery. Therefore, students need to be trained on how to gain control over these affective issues so that students could gain a lot more from their capital of high levels of intuitive-based self-efficacy. In addition, issues on the relationship between self-efficacy and students’ actual scores need further investigation in order to provide insights that would contribute to how to facilitate students to improve their oral presentations.

References


Perceived Self-Efficacy of Thai Secondary School English Teachers

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Abstract
Effectiveness of learning and teaching may be influenced by many factors from either the students themselves or the teachers. For teachers, one of the factors for their effective teaching may lie upon their belief of one’s own ability to succeed in teaching, which can be referred as self-efficacy. The following survey study attempted to examine teacher’s efficacy level among Thai secondary school teachers. Subjects were 30 English teachers who are currently teaching at Thai secondary schools. The finding shows that the participated teachers have sense of self-efficacy at moderate level (Mean=6.47) and further observation was done on the differences among the three sub-scales of self-efficacy, the result shows that teachers’ self-efficacy in instructional strategies (Mean=6.64) was the highest; followed by self-efficacy in classroom management (Mean=6.51) and student engagement (Mean=6.46), respectively.

Keywords: Teachers’ Sense of Self-Efficacy, Secondary School English Teachers, Student Engagement, Instructional Strategies, Classroom Management

1. Introduction
Self-efficacy is a cognitive theory which is brought to attention by Bandura (1977) who suggested that to succeed in a particular task, one must believe in his ability to accomplish it. He also suggested that the sense of self-efficacy starts developing in early childhood and continues throughout an individual’s life. The notion then has been researched in many aspects of cognitive theory, including self-efficacy of teachers. Within the context of teaching, Tschannen Moran & Woolfolk Hoy defined ‘teacher efficacy’ as that “the teacher’s belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context” (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p.223). For teachers, this characteristic may be an important motivational factor that may lead to the effectiveness and efficiency of their teaching. Therefore, this preliminary study aims to examine the levels of teacher self-efficacy of EFL Secondary school teachers.

2. Literature Reviews
2.1 Teachers’ Sense of Self-efficacy
According to Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), one of the important characteristics of teachers in motivating student learning and increasing their academic performance is teachers’ self-efficacy, or the confidence to succeed in their teaching.
Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) proposed that self-efficacy of teachers can be categorized into three dimensions, namely, student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. The first dimension is self-efficacy in student engagement, which refers to how much teachers can motivate students in the classroom. It is believed that teachers with high self-efficacy tend to be able to vary their techniques to motivate students in their learning more than teachers with low self-efficacy. The second dimension of self-efficacy is self-efficacy in instructional strategies; this type of self-efficacy refers to how much one teacher can vary his/her instructional strategies and ways of dealing with students. Teachers who might lack the confidence to employ a variety of teaching strategies in order to enhance their students’ learning may have low self-efficacy in this aspect, while those who are confident in the success of their teaching might be able to employ more varied instructional strategies.

The last aspect of teacher self-efficacy is efficacy in classroom management. This refers to the confidence that a teacher has in managing the classroom, which includes dealing with disruptive students. Teachers with low self-efficacy might not have enough confidence in their ability to engage their students in the learning process. Furthermore, teachers with low self-efficacy might have problems in managing their classroom and in effect, the effectiveness of teach may not accomplished. In other words, teachers who have high self-efficacy are likely to be more successful in managing their classroom.

2.2 Research on Self-efficacy

Even though this survey study to examine the level of efficacy, other variables may be included such as including type of school, gender and so forth. This section reviews studies that focus on teachers’ sense of self-efficacy, especially those studies which employed the same questionnaire used in the present study.

Another study focusing on teacher self-efficacy was conducted by Ozder (2011); he compared the self-efficacy of novice teachers in Turkey with their performance in the classroom. The results showed that these novice teachers had only modest levels of self-efficacy in their classroom performance, and when looking at the three dimensions of self-efficacy, the results revealed that self-efficacy in students’ engagement and classroom management were significantly different, while the levels of self-efficacy in instructional strategies and classroom management were not different. Novice teachers appeared to have stronger belief in their instructional strategies than in their classroom management and student engagement.

Yilmaz (2011) carried out a study about the relationship between the self-efficacy and the English proficiency of 54 Turkish EFL teachers. His findings indicated that there is a positive correlation between teachers’ self-efficacy and their self-rated English proficiency.
Furthermore, the study also revealed that teachers’ efficacy for instructional strategies was greater than their efficacy for management and engagement.

Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) carried out a study to investigate the possible relationships between experience and academic degree and teacher self-efficacy of 447 EFL teachers in Iran. The results showed that teachers with three or more years of teaching experience had significantly higher levels of overall self-efficacy in all dimensions – student engagement, classroom management, and instructional strategies – than their novice counterparts. However, regarding their qualifications, teachers who had English-related academic degrees did not have significantly high levels of self-efficacy, except in student engagement.

In addition, Shaukat and Iqbal conducted a study in Lahore, Pakistan, in 2012. They looked at the three dimensions of self-efficacy, namely, student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management. Their aim was to find out whether there is a difference in these three sub-categories of self-efficacy among teachers in relation to their gender and age. The results of this study showed a significant difference between self-efficacy beliefs of males and females. In other words, gender may affect teachers’ levels of self-efficacy.

To summarize, many studies have investigated teachers’ sense of self-efficacy against other characteristics of teachers, and the results of these studies show that self-efficacy can be influenced by several factors such as teaching experience, gender, or type of school. This study pursues a similar notion.

3. Methodology
3.1 Subjects
The subjects of this study were 30 Thai teachers who teach English at the secondary school level, both government and private schools. There are 15 teachers from Bangkok and other 15 teachers are from the provincial area. The teachers are 10 males and 20 females with average age of 44.27 years old. The youngest is 24 and the oldest is 59 and their teaching experience ranges from 1 year to 38 years.

3.2 Questionnaire
The research instrument used in this study is a Teachers’ Sense of EfficacyScale (TSES), which was developed by Megan Tschannen-Moran, College of William and Mary Anita Woolfolk Hoy, the Ohio State University (2001). There are two forms of questionnaires: short form (12 items) and long form (24 items). The participants were asked to rate their capabilities, utilizing the following scale: 1 = Nothing, 3 = Very Little, 5 = Some Influence, 7 = Quite a Bit, 9 = A Great Deal. The TSES has been extensively utilized, and subjected to factor analysis procedures to assess construct validity (Tschannen–Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The researcher chose the long form for this study which included 24 questions.
categorized into three subscales of self-efficacy namely, efficacy in student engagement (8 items), efficacy in instructional strategies (8 items) and efficacy in classroom management (8 items). The reported reliabilities for the three subscales were 0.91, 0.90 and 0.87, respectively with overall reliability of 0.84. The questionnaire was translated into Thai to avoid any misunderstanding.

3.3. Data Analysis
After the participants had completed the questionnaire, the descriptive statistics was used to calculate the mean score for an overall teacher self-efficacy level and those for each subscale based on the following criteria:

- 1-3 mean score is considered as low self-efficacy
- 4-6 mean score is considered as medium self-efficacy
- 7-9 mean score is considered as high self-efficacy

4. Results
4.1 Overall Teachers’ Self-Efficacy of Secondary School English Teachers
The answer the research question examined secondary school English teachers’ perceptions of their self-efficacy in three subscales: student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management.

Table 1 Mean scores and Standard Deviations for the participants’ perceptions of their self-efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>How much can you do to help your students think critically?</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?</td>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>How much can you do to help your students value learning?</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>Self-Efficacy Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>How much can you do to foster student creativity?</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?</td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>How well can you respond to defiant students?</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?</td>
<td>6.73</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?</td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 1, the highest mean score is item 9 (7.00), which belongs to the subscale of student engagement and addresses to what extent teachers can make students value their learning. This item is the only item that is considered to be at the high level of self-efficacy. The second-highest mean score is item 7 (6.93), which belongs to the subscale of instructional strategies and focuses on teachers’ belief in their ability to answer difficult questions from students. The third-highest mean score is item 21 (6.87), which belongs to the subscale of classroom management. This question relates to how teachers deal with difficult students. The levels of self-efficacy for the latter two items are considered to be at
the moderate level. From the data, it can be seen that the highest mean scores come from three different subscales.

Furthermore, the majority of participants have the highest mean scores on self-efficacy in helping their students to appreciate in learning. They also have high mean scores on self-efficacy in dealing with difficult questions from their students. The last point of top three highest mean scores of participant is dealing with difficult students.

As for the three lowest mean scores, the lowest mean score is item 2 (5.76), which is under student engagement subscale. This question shows the level of teachers’ belief in helping their student to think critically. The second lowest mean score is item 4 (6.06) which is under student engagement subscale and it deals with level of teachers’ belief in motivating student to learn. The third lowest mean score is item 5 (6.13) which is under classroom management which focuses on how teachers believe in their clear understanding of the expectation of students’ behavior. Even though these are the lowest three mean scores, the results are still considered at moderate level of self-efficacy.

Apart from the overall self-efficacy, the three subscales of self-efficacy, namely self-efficacy in student engagement, instructional strategies and classroom management, which are also examined in order to see any differences among the three subscales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Means and Standard deviation of Teacher Self-Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self –efficacy in student engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self –efficacy in instructional strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self –efficacy in classroom management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, the overall level of teachers’ self-efficacy is at medium level (M = 6.54, SD = 0.88). The findings concerning the three subscales indicated that all of them are also in the medium level. Self-efficacy in ‘instructional strategies’ (M = 6.65, SD = 1.02) is higher than other two subscales: classroom management (M = 6.52, SD = 0.91), and student engagement (M = 6.47, SD = 0.87), but the difference was not significant. Therefore, it might be able to say the teachers in this study have more confidence in their teaching techniques and strategies rather than their ability to manage the classroom and to engage students in the classroom activities.
5. Discussion and conclusion

From the findings of the study, teachers of English at secondary schools participating in this study reported a moderate level of sense of self-efficacy. Regarding the three dimensions of self-efficacy, the findings show the participants rated themselves as more efficacious in instructional strategies than classroom management and student engagement. It could be said that teachers tend to believe in their teaching strategies more than their abilities in classroom management and student engagement.

In addition, the results showed that teachers in provincial areas have higher overall levels of sense of self-efficacy than teachers from the Bangkok area, but the mean scores of the three subscales are not significantly different. Therefore, from the data obtained, it can be said that teaching context, i.e. provincial areas or Bangkok area, does not affect English teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. However, further analysis of the demographic data of the participants could reveal some interesting findings on what else may influence teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. In this study, teaching experience, teacher education, age and gender were included as items in the questionnaire, and it seems that the data obtained showed that some of these aspects affected teachers’ sense of self-efficacy.

Regarding teaching experience, the data showed that 80% of the participating teachers in provincial areas had more than 20 years of teaching experience, whereas only 20% of participating teachers in the Bangkok area had a similar amount of teaching experience. Considering this difference, it could be said that teaching experience may influence the level of sense of self-efficacy of the participants. Similar results were presented in Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy’s (1990) study, which showed significant differences between experienced and novice teachers regarding efficacy. Their findings showed that experience affects teachers’ self-efficacy. Moreover, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) reported a positive correlation between EFL teachers’ sense of efficacy and years of teaching experience. Also, the study of Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) showed teachers who had longer teaching experience also had significantly high levels of overall self-efficacy.

Another factor is level of education. It was observed that 47% of the participating teachers in provincial areas had graduated with a master’s degree, while only 27% of participating teachers in the Bangkok area held a master’s degree. Because of this, it might be interpreted that the education level affects teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. However, the results contradict those of the study of Akbari and Moradkhani (2010). That study found that the academic degree obtained did not play a significant role in English teachers’ sense of self-efficacy.

Other factors that might affect teachers’ sense of self-efficacy are age and gender. The demographic table showed that 80% of participating teachers in provincial areas were more than 40 years old, and 34% of participating teachers in the Bangkok area were more than 40
years old. In consideration of this difference, it could be asserted that age has a strong impact on the teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. However, there are few other studies that focus this point. The last factor that might affect teachers’ sense of self-efficacy is gender. According to the demographic data 73% of participating teachers in provincial area were women, and 27% of them were men. In the Bangkok area, 60% of participants were women, and 40% were men. The gender percentages are not that different, but still of all participants there were more female teachers in provincial areas, which could make gender a factor that affects teachers’ sense of self-efficacy. However, there are again few other studies that have focused on this point, so the effect of gender on sense of self-efficacy remains inconclusive.

This study aimed to find the levels of self-efficacy of EFL teachers in secondary schools in Thailand, and the results revealed that teachers have sense of self-efficacy at only moderate levels even though some of them have been teaching for 30 years. It is important to note that self-efficacy is a motivational construct based on self-perception of competence rather than actual level of competence. A teacher’s self-perceived assessment of competence may be either higher or lower than an external assessment of teaching skill.

Teachers’ self-efficacy is a factor that may help teachers to succeed in their teaching, and at the same time, there are many factors that affect teachers’ sense of self-efficacy such as teaching experience, level of education, age and gender. Teaching experience and level of education might affect teachers’ sense of self-efficacy more than age and gender. For further research, this study may be replicated in a different context or using different methods to ensure reliability and validity of research findings. An interview or other research tools may be included. The number of participants may be increased to ensure generalizability and validity of the results of the study.

References
Content and Language Integrated Learning Approach in Designing an English Course Book for Police Investigators at the People’s Police University in Vietnam

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People’s Police University in Vietnam (VPPU)

Abstract
In the 1990s, locally designed and produced materials used for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at the People’s Police University in Vietnam (VPPU) proved ineffective due to flaws in L2-L1 translation. Since the creation of the original materials, English teachers at the VPPU have made consistent efforts to fix the problems, ranging from orthodox to empirical and experimental. Studies in recent years indicate that needs analysis seems to be a useful approach that can be transferred between language-led ESP and the more balanced Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). This paper reviews the evolution of CLIL to define the curriculum and to establish the scope of designing materials. It attempts to answer several significant questions about the context of education, such as what CLIL based materials have been published and compiled internationally, regionally and nationally, and the effectiveness of teaching with those materials in Vietnam. A case study of pilot teaching of CLIL-based materials conducted in the People’s Police Academy in Vietnam (VPPA) - an educational institution of the shared context as the VPPU. The aim of this paper is to make a proposal for the application of appropriate CLIL models in developing specific course books for police students in the VPPU.

Key words: ESP, CLIL, CLIL based materials, People’s Police University in Vietnam

1. Introduction
There is an overdue need for the introduction of updated materials for ESP teaching in VPPU. For this purpose to be realized, a first step is to conduct a needs assessment. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) consider Needs Analysis as one of the key stages in ESP curriculum design. According to the researchers, subsequent stages, include syllabus design, selection and production of materials, teaching and learning, and evaluation. Moreover, Ruiz-Garrido, M. F. & Fortanet-Gómez, I. (2009) believe that “needs analysis can be applied to CLIL, as have been carried out before mainly to ESP, for syllabus design and materials development.”

The VPPU English lecturers and experts all have come to a consensus on two main needs of VPPU students: linguistic competence and police professional knowledge. Nevertheless they
seem to disagree about the solutions to meeting these needs. Nguyen Thi Hong Thuy (2009) paved the first stones of “designing some ESP sample units for students at the People’s Police University.” Meanwhile, Nguyen Thi Thu (2010) referred to Quest, an interactive Internet resource, in teaching a particular skill of ESP reading. Although staff have tackled some questions, the intrinsic part of effective materials remains untouched. Therefore, this article will explore the potential of CLIL to shape ESP curricula and materials in the specific context of VPPU.

2. Literature Review

Foreign language learners in general, and police students in VPPU in particular, are required to be competent both in linguistic and professional skills so that they can effectively cooperate with their global counterparts. However, Fernández D. J. (2009) claims that the joint task of language teachers and content teachers “has always been a difficult endeavor.” This challenge is due to insufficient efforts from both groups to help learners acquire the language necessary for communicating subject-matter content, as well as the groups’ failure “to see that subject-matter content is a linguistic construal.”

CLIL-based materials could be the answer that we are seeking. Originally described in the 1990s, CLIL involves educational methods where “subjects are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content, and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language” (Darn, 2006). In the CLIL approach, students can take advantage of being exposed to the target language and content lesson simultaneously through five dimensions: culture, environment, language, content and learning.

CLIL can also be defined as any educational activity in which “a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a non-language subject in which both language and the subject have a joint role” (Marsh, 2002, p. 58). According to Coyle (2007), the dual focus on both the content and language aspects has been proved to help learners acquire new knowledge and skills as well as progressing in a language in a way which is relevant to their needs and experience.

In its Action Plan for Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity (2003: 8), EU emphasizes that, CLIL, in which pupils learn a subject through the medium of a foreign language, [...] can provide effective opportunities for pupils to use their new language skills now, rather than learn them now for use later. It opens doors on languages for a broader range of learners, nurturing self-confidence in young learners and those who have not responded well to formal language instruction in general education. Within the framework of Content-Based Instruction (CBI), CLIL developed alongside other popular approaches, such as Content-Based Learning (CBL), ESP, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), Integration of Content and Language (ICL), Language Across the Curriculum and even Task-Based Learning (TBL). The differences between CLIL and these other approaches
are “basically ontological and, consequentially, epistemological” (González, A. J. M.: 2013). However, despite underlying differences, these approaches get bundled together because they share some assumptions, namely: teaching/learning a foreign language is an educational practice; content is inseparable from linguistic expression; it is necessary to coordinate the learning of language and subject-matter; language is the major medium of instruction and learning; subject-matter content contextualizes language learning.

Although many Content-Based Instruction approaches combine content and learning objectives, CLIL is likely to be most effective for VPPU because of its strong research base. For instance, “the important advantage offered by CLIL is its potential for achieving bilingualism and improving intercultural understanding” and, “CLIL is worth implementing into the school curricula” (Klimova, B. F.: 2012). As the benefits of CLIL from both a motivational and a language competence perspective have been confirmed (Lasagabaster, D., 2009), I strongly believe that teaching CLIL-based materials for police students in the VPPU is a sustainable approach.

*English for Law Enforcement (McMillan)*, which has been introduced into the VPPU’s curriculum since 2012, is preferred at the beginning thanks to its authenticity. However, students benefit scantily from the course book since it has been developed out of the EU and American legal framework as well as upon the assumption of TESOL methodology applied in the continent. CLIL, therefore, is agreed to be “a generic umbrella with models that require methodological adaptations and language support depending on the language proficiency of the involved students.” (Nashaat S. N., Berzosa, C. & Crean, F. M.,: 2013).

Upon seeking the simulation patterns that can be realized for educational institutions, Pérez-Vidal (2005) lays out three CLIL models (A, B, C), distinguished by their level of focus on content and language, of which Model C is most desired as it equally focuses on language and content as each is a vehicle conducive to the other.

### 3. Methodology

#### 3.1 Pilot Implementation of CLIL in Vietnam

In Vietnam, the CLIL approach has been piloted in a restricted scope with a number of subjects. “Accordingly, from school year 2011-2012, natural science subjects, including Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Computer Science, will be taught totally in English in piloted gifted schools.” (Thuy Nhan: 2009). This limited quantity is principally due to the obstacles in implementing the project on the national scale.

In an attempt to meet the requirements of updated and effective ESP course books, the VPPU has taken into consideration some compiled materials for the police from countries, such as Indonesia and Georgia, attained by our colleagues under the English Language Program sponsored by Regional English Language Office, U.S. Embassy. These text books can hardly be used in the localized context of the VPPU, and the university still needs its own CLIL-based course books as Darn, S. (2006) claims “Institutions using a CLIL approach are
likely to enhance their profile by accessing international certification and preparing students for internationalisation.”

The model of *language teaching through content teaching* suggested by Fernández, D. J. (2009) as a revision and modification of Mohan’s (1986) description of the combinations of language and content, can be viewed as another reference in designing the materials in the VPPU. This could, as stated by Coyle (2009), surpass other models thanks to the following CLIL advantages,

- Raising linguistic competence and confidence
- Raising expectations
- Developing a wider range of skills
- Raising awareness: cultures and the global citizenship agenda

And in some particular situations, it “attempts to overcome the restraints of traditional school curricula, and in future it could bring about a shift to curricular integration.” (Novotná & Hofmannová, 2000). This could be exemplified by a project which aimed at designing CLIL-based materials for the People’s Police University in Vietnam (VPPA).

### 3.2 Experimental Teaching Session at the People’s Police Academy in Vietnam (VPPA) - A Case Study

An experimental teaching project was launched at the People’s Police Academy in Vietnam (VPPA) in March 2015. Regarded as the cradle of police officer training in Vietnam, VPPA campus is based in Hanoi, the North of Vietnam, with which VPPU in the South, maintains a hand-in-glove co-operative relationship.

The educational project was sponsored by the U.S. Embassy, and coordinated by Lottie L. Baker, Ed. D., a English Language Specialist from Regional English Language Office. Twenty trainers were selected from experienced staffs of language teachers, fifteen of VPPA Faculty of Foreign Language and five of VPPU Department of Foreign Language. Sixty commissioned officers from Traffic Policemen Department and Administrative Policemen Department of Hanoi, were assigned to two corresponding classes of trainees.

The trainers were trained beforehand on the curriculum, material compilations, and feedback collection, by which helped create the materials. At the beginning of each class meeting, they had to assure that necessary preparation has been completed and possible scenarios anticipated for unexpected questions from trainees. Then the meetings were conducted in form of co-teaching lectures and interactive activities, which provides comfort and diversity to the classrooms. After each class, lecturers collected feedback from students about the perceived successes and drawbacks of the sessions and discussed each other’s perspectives and suggestions. These daily efforts were encouraged and supervised by the Program Coordinator, whose ultimate aim was a refined compilation of materials for policemen in Vietnam.
The materials were eclectically assembled from latest web postings and articles which are relevant to the program themes, as well as task-based conversations built up to familiarize trainers to daily situations. Materials developed for police academies in Georgia and Indonesia were consulted as references and models. The materials, which have undergone meticulous editing carried by proficient English speakers, including the Embassy-sponsored EL Specialist and her colleagues, tends to be a reliable resource to be taught in the future with appropriate modifications.

The reliability of the material, on the other hand, lies in the trainers’ reflection on the experience of piloting the materials, as well as in the trainees’ comments, which were gathered after each class meeting and at the end of the training course.

4. Findings

In this paper, for the learners’ sake, only figures and statistics from students’ feedback are employed to clarify the effectiveness of materials and teaching activities.

It can be ascertained that the initiative of CLIL-based material was highly appreciated by the trainees. Fifty-five out of sixty participants provided feedback on the materials and the teaching. A large majority of learners welcomed the designed content, which were vividly manifested by abundant and diversified teaching activities. (cf. Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not very good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Very good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching activities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practically, trainees’ performance failed to come up to the trainers’ expectation. During the training course, lecturers took notes on outstanding participants as progress assessments. And at the end of three weeks of training, they were asked to sit a test that is expected to validate the outcomes of the project. The percentage of students that scored high in their final test is comparatively low in part Reading Comprehension and Oral performance. This might correlate to their poor command of police register that they have acquired. The breakdown of Table 2 also suggests that the in-service officers are not very competent in both linguistic and professional skills and that a large majority of them may not survive a conversation with a foreign perpetrator, or a visitor that seeks help from local policemen.
This low-quality performance could be the direct consequence of short time span of the course, which was commented about by many of the trainees on the surveys. It could also result from impairments of the outdated materials they studied before, as well as their lack of exposure to native speakers in their working environments. In general, the textbook is the single most predominant curriculum delivery vehicle in schools (Jobrack, 2011). The textbook’s role, however, extends beyond the dissemination of information “in mediating the politics of what is taught, and even what methods are used to teach students.” (Robinson, T. J., Fischer, L., Wiley, D. & Hilton, J., 2014).

Apart from aforementioned causes, subjective factors that can downgrade the effectiveness of the project should also be taken into consideration. Informal discussions and interviews with the trainers, therefore, were carried out in order to confirm the supposed deficiency in CLIL knowledge of training staff.

Despite the growing interest in CLIL, only a modest amount of research relevant to the learning of police profession through English as a medium can be found in the literature. It would not be overstated that the majority of trainers of the project are novice in this field. They do not have the faintest notion of CLIL approach and CLIL based materials. In other words, they should therefore need further CLIL training courses to have a good command of the target language and resort to the learners’ mother tongue only for strategic purposes. And they should also be aware that, as Novotná, J., Hadj-Moussová, Z. & Hofmannová, M., claim, “CLIL calls for an interactive teaching style. Verbal input should be accompanied with the use of visual and multimedia aids.” CLIL teaching skills could be attained by attending training courses or referring to “4C’s Curriculum Guidance, 3A’s Lesson Planning Tool and Matrix Audit Tool for Tasks & Materials” recommended by Coyle (2005).

3. Balance between language and content

Teachers’ shortage of CLIL knowledge has sometimes threatened the success of the project by undermining the balance between language and content, which is the core essence of CLIL. Being tied to traditional approaches, instructors appeared to forget their task in this field is to flexibly adapt their instructional support in order to enable incidental acquisition in the learners. Instead, they should have been able to “involve learners as much as possible, build their interdependence in both content and language and encourage cooperative learning as peer support is equally important in CLIL.” (Novotná, J., Hadj-Moussová, Z. & Hofmannová, M., 20).

Table 2: Trainees’ scores of final test (in percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral performance</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Conclusion and recommendations

The fruitfulness of projects funded by the U.S. Embassy in Indonesia, Georgia and recently in Vietnam, implies that, in the long run, the exploitation of CLIL as an innovative and efficient form of instruction in classrooms for policemen and law enforcers should remain a target in the VPPU’s foreign language projects. However, rather than hastily establishing too ambitious goals of developing materials for all the ten police majors in the institution, it is now wiser to gradually prepare materials for units one at a time. It is recommended to start with Forensics, Anti-Drugs or Prisoner Warden, as they share similar characteristics with their counterparts in ASEAN countries as well as in America.

Another suggestion to consider is that encouraging the English instructors and the content instructors at VPPU to coordinate closely in designing the materials — this will ensure that the English taught is tied to the real needs of the police officers’ jobs and content knowledge in other courses. Thus, as Kelly, K. (2014) claims, furnishing all the necessary conditions from management factors, such as administration’s support, a whole-school policy, to teacher factor and resource factor, is necessary for CLIL materials to be practiced nationwide. This will, in turn, realize the possibility of developing CLIL-based police training materials in other ASEAN countries.

The possibility of project expansion could be incorporated into the agenda of Asia Regional Law Enforcement Management Program (ARLEMP), which is held annually in various countries to clarify mutually accepted aims and measures at both governmental and individual level. Furthering this paper’s commentary, forums concerning perception of the CLIL approach can be conducted for voices from CLIL practitioners in police training educational institutions across the ASEAN region to be heard. This has become an urgent call for concerned educators in the region as Banegas, D. L. (2014) suspects that “publishers, especially in this era of the global coursebook, may not be interested to localise their international coursebooks to match the national curricula in every setting [due to] ... huge investment and little profits.”

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Grammatical Cohesion in the English to Arabic Translation of Political Texts

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Abstract
Cohesive markers help to relate words and sentences together in the text. Also, they make the whole text united and meaningful resulting from their functions in linking the sentences. While translating from the SL to the TL, the translator may not translate the whole cohesive markers or translate them incorrectly which affect the communicative meaning of the SL. Thus, many studies have analyzed different texts at different languages by using one of the translation theories to find the better strategy of translating such cohesive markers. In this study, the researcher will make use of Halliday and Hasan (1976) model of cohesion to identify cohesive markers used in Arabic and English texts, and only focusing on References as cohesive markers. The source English texts are taken from The New York Times and The Washington Post online articles, their translated Arabic versions are taken from the online Arabic newspaper, namely, Asharq Al-Awsat. Also, the study will adopt Nida’s translation techniques (1964) to identify the translation techniques used to translate English grammatical cohesive markers into Arabic text. The results showed that two techniques of Nida are appeared in analysis ‘Alteration’ and ‘Subtraction’, besides; one new technique is appeared in this study, namely ‘Sustaining’. By identifying the translation techniques used in translating the cohesive markers, the translators or the linguists will be aware of these techniques.

Keywords: cohesion, references, technique, alteration, subtraction

1. Introduction
Languages are tools to express meanings. They are rich in linguistic items that convey different meanings. Cohesive markers are one aspect of the semantics which can be expressed and used differently in different languages. Halliday & Hasan (1976) cited in Crane (2006, pp. 132-133) refer to cohesion as “non-structural text-forming relations” and the relation refers to the semantic ties which reflect the meaning within the text, and hence, without these semantic ties, the sentences will lack the relationship between them. Nowadays, news affection on the audience is an essential issue as news seeks to convey certain communicative message in different issues: political, cultural, religious and others. The political written text is one of the main issues the audience interested in since writers and critics view their opinions about events occur in certain countries. This study deals with political text related to Middle East issues since Arab people are interested to read what other writers’ opinions about the political issues taken place in their countries as those
writers are not biased in their perspectives. Besides, as a result of globalization and world of technology, some people tend to use the internet as means of communication with outside world more than other means of communication. Online newspapers are one source of information about the world. They are commercial as they cost a lot of money and time. Therefore, they need to convey only the important news and political opinions to laymen and only news and political types which are of interest to the public. Moreover, the translators of such texts must be aware about evoking the communicative meaning of the SL by using cohesive ties.

When translating from English text into Arabic text, the translators translate all the cohesive markers which mean shifting the cohesive markers or make replacement. However, some translators don’t translate all cohesive markers in English text which make the text seems awkward or meaningless and lead to the loss of information. In other words, they don’t follow certain translation techniques which affect the communicative meaning of the English text. Thus, they should be aware about these techniques used to translate English cohesive markers into Arabic in order to respect the output meaning of the ST which means he/she needs to convey the same or original message. Hence, this article aims to identify the translation techniques used for translating the cohesive markers from the SL into the TL.

2. Literature review
When we translate, we transfer the SL texts to TL text by transfer what equivalent to the TL texts. Therefore, the translator sometimes uses a proper translation technique in order to convey the same message of the ST. In her study, Baker (1992, p. 206) shows that using different grammatical structures in both the SL and the TL may change the communicative message the translator wants to convey. Therefore, to convey the message by translating the exact or equivalent meaning of the SL, the translator should take in his or her consideration some types of shifts, for example, ‘adding’, ‘omitting’, or ‘altering’ the ties meaning of the TT, as cited in Djamila (2010). Mokrani (2009) asserts that Arabic is more flexible than English since sometimes Arabic doesn’t require the subject in the sentence unlike English language. He adopted some translation strategies which are: ‘omission’, ‘compensation’ and ‘transposition’. Omission strategy means to omit part of the ST, but the referential cohesion can be understood from the text. Compensation strategy means that some part of the text cannot be translated but their lost meaning is expressed within the text, in other parts. Finally, transposition strategy means “the process where parts of speech change their sequence; when they are translated, it is in a sense a shift of word class”, (Mokrani, 2009, p. 29). On the other hand, semantically, there are some of the cohesive devices in some languages which have more than one function or, ‘polysemous’, as Newmark described, this may considered as a problem to translator/s, Newmark (1988, p. 59). Later, Darwish (2010, p. 228) claims that techniques used to translate cohesive devices are different from language to another. These techniques are: ‘Retaining’, ‘Omission’, ‘Addition’ and ‘Replacement’. ‘Retaining’ is used to achieve faithful translation; however, if retaining a
cohesive device may not make the sentence sounds natural another technique used which is ‘omission’ whereas if the meaning becomes awkward, ‘addition’ technique could be used. Another technique is ‘replacement’, for example, to replace a pronoun by a noun or vice versa, (pp. 226-232).

Regardless of the translation techniques stated by scholars, other researchers named some expressions used while translating ST cohesive markers into TT. For example, Blum-Kulka (1986, p. 17) who defines cohesion as an ‘overt relationship holding between parts of the text’ and it is identified by ‘language specific markers’, postulates two directions of shifts used in translating cohesive markers as follows:

- **Shifts in levels of explicitness, i.e. the general level of the target texts textual explicitness is higher than or lower than that of the source text.**
- **Shifts in text meaning(s): i.e. the explicit and implicit meaning potential of the source text changes through translation** (ibid, p. 18).

Kulka postulates that the grammatical differences between languages affect the cohesive devices that are used in both source and target text by means of ‘transformations’ such as (addition). Also, the differences in ‘stylistic preferences’ between languages, in translation, are expressed by shifts in levels of explicitness. Furthermore, she claims that the translator might produce a TL text which is more redundant than that in the SL text, resulting from ‘a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text’, (ibid, p. 19). In her main hypothesis, namely, “the explication hypothesis”, Blum-Kulka (1986, p. 19) claims that, there is “an observed cohesive explicitness from the SL to the TL texts regardless of the cohesive differences between the two languages”. She refers to ‘Explication’ as “an inherent feature in the process of translation”, (ibid). In addition, she asserts that through translation, the translator must pay attention to the cohesive ties as they provide semantic unity of the text and any fault through transfer them in translation may change the target meaning of the text, (P. 21). On the other hand, Vinary & Darbelnet (1958) in (Baker, 2005, p. 80) refer to ‘Explicitation’ and ‘Implicitation’ as ‘addition’ and ‘omission’ strategies. The term was first used by them and later developed by Nida (1964). Furthermore, Vinary and Dabelnet (1958, p. 8) define ‘Explicitation’ technique as the process where implicit information of the source text is introduced in the target text whereas ‘Implicitation’ is the process where certain explicit details in the source language are defined in the target language (ibid, p. 10). Scholars discuss that in terms of ‘gains and losses’, e.g, in Hungarian pronouns, it is not possible to identify the gender, thus, part of the meaning is lost when translating the personal pronoun (she) from English to Hungarian, (Baker, 2005, p. 80)

Other scholars never used the terms ‘Explicitation’ and ‘Implicitation’ and they refer to other terms or expressions such as Barkhudarov (1975) and Vaseva (1980) where both use the term ‘grammatical transformations’ as cited in (Baker, 2005, p. 81). Moreover, Barkhudarov (1975, p. 223) lists four types of grammatical transformations in translation,
which are: ‘addition’, ‘omission’, ‘substitution’, and ‘transposition’. He claims that ‘addition’ is necessary to clarify elliptical expressions or information in the target text, later, Vaseva (1980) in his study on Bulgarian Russian and Russian Bulgarian translation, asserts that a translator use ‘addition’ to produce explicit information in the target text which is implicit in the source text, for example, articles are available in Bulgarian and unavailable in Russian and the possessive pronoun can be omitted in Russian while it is not possible to do that in Bulgarian.

3. Methodology
The data for this study are the English political texts and their Arabic version. The source texts are written in English language while the target texts are written in Arabic language. These texts are classified as (political opinion texts) since these kinds of texts provide space of presenting ideas unlike other types of political texts such as news where the writer only states the main idea/s. Besides, Arab readers seek to read the opinion and the analysis of western writers because they are not bias in their points of view. These texts have been sourced online from the year 2012 because many events have been taking place in this year specifically in the Middle East. Moreover, seven texts are collected to be analyzed (three of them are collected from ‘The Washington Post’ newspaper and four of them are collected from ‘The New York Times’ newspaper). The study will analyze “The New York Times” online newspaper, because it is the most popular American online newspaper website. Also, it will analyze ‘The Washington Post’ online newspaper because it is one of the leading American daily newspapers and the most widely newspaper published in Washington. The translated versions of English texts taken from “Asharq Al-Awsat”, the only Arabic newspaper owing the Arabic copyright of renowned international syndicates, and its staff are professional translators. Consequently, this study will make use of Halliday and Hasan (1976) model to identify cohesive markers, only focused on the grammatical cohesion since the grammatical markers or ties are easier to identify than the lexical ones, besides, their effects are clearer than that of lexical cohesion since they presuppose another item clearly for the interpretation unlike lexical ones which carry no clear reference for their potential cohesive function, Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 288). The study will focus only on the ‘References’ cohesive ties since they are the most used ties across languages. In addition, Nida’s (1964) translation techniques will be used to identify translation techniques which are used while translating the English grammatical cohesive markers into Arabic. The theories used are summarized as follow:

3.1 Halliday and Hasan (1976) Model
Halliday & Hasan refer to these cohesive items which show relations among text as ‘a tie’, (p. 3). Cohesive markers are clearly classified in Halliday and Hasan (1976) and summarized as follow: References: they are used to introduce the participants and to keep track of them throughout the text. “It provides a link with a preceding portion of the text”, (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 51, in Crane, 2006). Reference can be ‘Personal’, ‘Demonstrative’, or
'Comparative'. **Personal:** to use noun pronoun e.g. (I, me, you, we, us, they, them, he, him, etc.) or to use possessive determiners e.g. (mine, yours, ours, his, its one’s, etc.), Halliday & Hasan (1976, pp. 31-39) See table (1) below:

Table (1) Personal references in English (Halliday and Hassan 1976:38)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic category</th>
<th>Existential</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Modifier</td>
<td>Determiner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun (pronoun)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, me</td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you</td>
<td>yours</td>
<td>your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we, us</td>
<td>ours</td>
<td>our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he, him</td>
<td>his</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she, her</td>
<td>hers</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they, them</td>
<td>theirs</td>
<td>their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it, one</td>
<td>[its]</td>
<td>its</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Demonstrative:** to use locative references e.g. determiner as (this, these, that, those, the), and adverb as (here (now), here then). See table (2) below:

Table (2) Demonstrative references (Halliday and Hasan 1976:38)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic category</th>
<th>Selective</th>
<th>Non-selective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical function</td>
<td>Modifier/Head</td>
<td>Adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td>determiner</td>
<td>adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximity:</td>
<td>this these</td>
<td>here [now]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near</td>
<td>that those</td>
<td>there then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparative:** to use similarity or differently adjectives or adverbs to show whether two things are similar or different. Adjectives like (same, equal, identical, additional, similar, different, better, more, other, else...) adverbs like (identically, likewise, differently, otherwise, equally, less, so, such, more, similarly, etc.), Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 77). See table (3) below:

Table (3) Comparative reference in English (Halliday and Hassan 1976:39)
3.2 Nida’s (1964) translation techniques

When translating to the target language, a translator should pay attention to produce an equivalence target text. However, as the differences between languages, equivalence sometimes does not exist in the target language, Nida (1964) proposed adjustment techniques to be used for this case, cited in in (Baker, 2005, p. 81). These techniques or procedures as follows: ‘additions’, ‘subtractions’ and ‘alterations’. These techniques are used ‘to adjust the form of the message to the characteristics of the structure of the target language’, to produce semantically equivalent structures, equivalent communicative effect and stylistic equivalences (Molina & Albir, 2002, p. 502). The three ‘adjustment of techniques’, (additions, subtractions and alterations) are summarized as follows, (Molina & Albir 2002, p. 502): (1) **Additions:** Nida (1964) proposed different reasons which oblige a translator to use this technique, some of these reason summarized as follows: to make an elliptical expression in the source language clear in the target language, to adjust grammatical structure of the target language, to amplify implicit element to explicit one, to connect using connectors, and to avoid ambiguity. (2) **Subtractions:** Nida (1964) stated the following reasons for using this technique in the target language as follows: to avoid unnecessary repetition and to specify conjunctions, adverbs and references. For instance, Nida suggests to use pronouns instead of God or to omit it because it appears 32 times in ‘the thirty-one verses of Genesis’, (ibid, p. 502). (3) **Alterations:** It occurs as a result of differences between languages and it takes three types: First: changes occur as a result of transliteration, that is, a new word is introduced from the source language because it doesn’t exist in the target language. Second: changes occur due to grammatical differences between languages, such as changes in grammatical categories. Third: changes occur due to ‘semantic misfits’, that is, there is no standard equivalent to the term exists in the source text. Hence, translator tends to use other techniques such as using a descriptive equivalent to solve this problem.
4. Data Analysis
This section explores the main translation techniques used to translate the References as a type of cohesive grammatical devices from English language into Arabic language using Nida’s (1964) translation techniques and how the difference in the technique might affect the meaning of the text.

4.1 Translation techniques used to translate grammatical cohesive devices:
4.1.1 Alteration
The results have revealed that there are incidences of this technique appeared in all reference cohesive devices when translated them into Arabic text. The following sub sections provide some examples

4.1.1.1 Personal reference
Seven types of this technique are appeared and classified in the following sub sections:

4.1.1.1.1 Alteration of a subject noun pronoun by an object noun pronoun
This translation technique means that there is a replacement of a subject noun pronoun in the ST by an object noun pronoun in the TT or vice versa. It occurs due to the grammatical differences between both languages. For example, as follows:

English text: “...and that is to signal to Iran’s people that the world approves of their country’s clerical leadership and therefore they should never, ever, ever again think about launching a democracy movement”

Arabic text: “لا وهو إرسال إشارة إلى الشعب الإيراني بأن العالم يوافق على القيادة الدينية، ومن ثم لا ينبغي عليهم ألا يفكروا على الإطلاق في تدشين حركة ديمقراطية

Back translation: “...And it is to send a signal to the Iranian people that the world approves the clerical leadership, and therefore, it is an obligation to them to never ever think about launching a democracy movement”

As noted in English text, the cohesive tie (they) that falls under personal reference is considered as a subject noun pronoun which refers back to the plural noun (Iran’s people). On the other hand, it is noted that while translating into Arabic text, the subject noun pronoun (they) is replaced by the object noun pronoun which is the suffix /-him/ (them) that attached the preposition على /ala/ عليهم /alay-him/. Therefore, there is a translation technique of Nida (1964) used in this example, namely, ‘Alteration’ technique. The reason of this alteration refers to the grammatical differences between Arabic and English. In English language, the auxiliary verb (should) follows the subject pronoun (they) in the sentence unlike Arabic language where the verb ينبغي /yanbaghi/ which is equal to (should) in verbal statement precedes the pronoun which is attached with a preposition to form (object
pronoun). Consequently, in the example ينبغي عليهم / yanbaghi alay-him/ the object pronoun /-him/ is a suffix that attaches with the preposition على /ala/ (to) to form an object pronoun /-him/ which means (them). With regard to meaning, the communicative meaning of the source text is already conveyed since the translator is aware of the grammatical differences both languages.

4.1.1.1.2 Alteration of a noun pronoun by a possessive pronoun

This translation technique occurs when there is a replacement of a noun pronoun in the ST by a possessive pronoun in the TT. For example, as follows:

**English text:** “Burns didn’t publicly mention military aid...The consensus is it should be continued for now, but some officials believe it should eventually be restructured, reduced and focused on missions ... American hardware.”

**Arabic text:**

ولم يشر بيرنز في تصريحاته إلى المعونة العسكرية... وهناك إجماع على ضرورة استمرارها في الوقت الراهن، وإن كان بعض المسؤولين يرون أنه لا بد في النهاية من إعادة هيكلتها وتخفيضها وتركيزها على مهم… باهظة الثمن.

**Back translation:** “But Burns didn’t mention the military aid in his declaration...Also there is a consensus on the importance of its continuity in the current time, but some officials believe that, ultimately, its restructure, and its reduction and its focus on missions ... too expensive, is an important issue”.

Here, the personal pronoun (it) classified under a noun pronoun which refers back to (military aid). Yet, it is noted that while translated into Arabic text, it is replaced by the suffix possessive determiner ها /-haa/ means (its) which functioned as a modifier for the noun استمرار /istimrar/ (continuity). Similarly, another noun pronoun (it) appears in the above sample, it is followed by three verbs which are: (restructured), (reduced) and (focused) and it refers to the same entity (military aid). It is also noted that this noun pronoun is altered by a possessive determiner ها /-haa/ (its) in Arabic text, functioned as a modifier of the three noun هيكلتها وتخفيضها وتركيزها /haykalati-haa/, /takhfeedi-haa/ and /tarkeezi-haa/ meaning as follow (its restructure, its reduction and its focus). The reason for this alteration can be implied from the English modal auxiliary verb (should) which must be preceded by a noun pronoun and followed by a verb unlike Arabic text in this example where the modal auxiliary verb (should) is translated as the noun ضرورة /darourah/ means (importance). Hence, as a result of this alteration, the noun ضرورة /istimrar/ with a modifier ها (its). In other word, the noun and its suffix pronoun together is considered as genitive in Arabic language. Besides, the second noun pronoun (it) has the same reason of alteration where إعادة /iadat/ (remaking) is a noun which is considered as a genitive that must be followed by nouns, which are: هيكلة /haykalati/، تخفيض /takhfeedi/ and تركيز /tarkeezi/. These nouns are attached with the suffix /-haa/ which is considered as a
possessive pronoun. Therefore, it can be found in this example that the translator is aware of the grammatical differences between English and Arabic language. Then, the ‘alteration’ technique used does not change the communicative message of the ST which is clearly transmitted into the Arabic text.

4.1.1.1.3 Alteration of a possessive pronoun by a noun
It can be found that the translator replaced a possessive pronoun in the ST by a noun in the TT in order to trace an important object or name. For example, as follows:

English text: “Bashir’s days may be numbered. Yet his removal would not end the conflict; it could even trigger a new civil war”.

Arabic text:
ما يؤشر على أن أيام البشير باتت معدودة. لكن إسقاط البشير لن ينهي الصراع، وقد يؤدي إلى اندلاع حرب أهلية جديدة.

Back translation: “That may mean Bashir’s days are numbered. But the removal of Al- Bashir would not end the conflict, and may lead to trigger a new civil war.”

Here, in the English text, the cohesive tie (his) is a possessive pronoun that falls under a personal reference refers back to the name (Bashir). However, when translated into Arabic text, the possessive pronoun (his) is replaced by the noun البشير /al-bashir/ (Al- Bashir). In other words, the phrase in Arabic becomes إسقاط البشير /isqat al-bashir/ means (the removal of Al- Bashir) instead of (his removal). Thus, it can be stated that, the translator uses ‘alteration’ technique in order to make focus on the name, which is, (Al-Bashir). The purpose of using name is to attract readers’ attention about an important event, which is, (the removal of Al-Bashir). Also, this text was written in the year (2012) where many events, namely ‘the Arab Spring’, have been taking place in some Arabian countries. The Sudan is one of these countries where people have protested against their president (Al-Bashir). Therefore, the translator uses the noun (Al-Bashir) to evoke Arab readers’ attention. In other word, by make use of ‘alteration’ technique, the communicative meaning of the ST is completely transmitted in the TT.

4.1.1.1.4 Alteration of a noun pronoun by a noun
This translation technique occurs by altering a noun pronoun in the ST by a noun in the TT. For example, as follows:

English text: “This does not augur well for Morsi’s presidency. In fact, he should be ashamed of himself.”

Arabic text: "إن هذا لا يعتبر بداية جيدة لرئاسة مرسي. الحقيقة أنه ينبغي على مرسي أن يخجل من نفسه”

Back translation: “This is not considered a good start for Morsi’s presidency. The fact is that Morsi should be ashamed of himself.”
Here, the cohesive tie (he) is a noun pronoun that falls under a personal reference refers back to the noun (Morsi). Yet, while translating into Arabic text, the noun pronoun (he) is replaced by the noun (Morsi). Therefore, an ‘alteration’ technique appeared in this example. This ‘alteration’ is ascribed to the fact that (Morsi) is a new president of Egypt; therefore, the translator keeps track of the participant using the noun (Morsi) instead of the personal reference (he). Besides, the target readers are Arab who cares about new political opinion issues and such this story (Morsi’s presidency) is an attractive event to follow. Besides, it is observed that, although Arabic text has a greater number of references than English text has, Arabic prefers the use of (nouns) rather than (pronouns) to present important participants or entities. In doing so, the aim is to evoke readers’ attention to an important idea.

4.1.1.1.5 Alteration of a noun pronoun by a demonstrative reference

It is observed that there is a replacement of a noun pronoun in the ST by a demonstrative reference in the TT. In other word, there is an ‘alteration’ in terms of reference device’s type. For example,

**English text:** “Turkish-Iranian rivalry goes back centuries, to the Ottoman sultans and the Safavid shahs. It briefly subsided in the 20th century...”

**Arabic text:**

حيث يعود الصراع التركي - الإيراني إلى عدة قرون، وبالتحديد إلى أيام السلاطين العثمانيين والشاهات الصفويين وقد تراجع هذا التنافس لفترة وجيزة في القرن العشرين ...

**Back translation:** “As the Turkish-Iranian rivalry goes back to several centuries, and specifically to the Ottoman sultans and the Safavid shahs. However, this rivalry briefly subsided in the twentieth century.”

Here, the personal reference (it) in English text which is classified as a noun pronoun refers back to (Turkish-Iranian rivalry). Yet, when translated into Arabic text, the pronoun (it) is replaced by another cohesive tie to alter its function. That is, the pronoun (it) is altered by the demonstrative reference هذا /haadhaa/ means (this) which modifies the noun التنافس /al-tanafos/ means (the rivaly). Therefore, the demonstrative reference /hadhaa/ refers back to الصراع التركي - الإيراني /al-siraa al-turki al-irani/ (the Turkish-Iranian rivalry). Accordingly, an ‘alteration’ technique is used here by altering a personal reference by a demonstrative reference. However, both cohesive ties have the same function to trace an entity, which is, (the Turkish-Iranian). In other word, the translator used the demonstrative reference (this) to point out to a particular noun, which is, (the Turkish-Iranian rivalry). Besides, he or she emphasizes the noun (the Turkish-Iranian rivalry) that can be inferred from the use of the conjunction /wa/ means (and then) to provide a temporal relation between the two
sentences. According to Ryding (2005, p. 450) in order to assert and to confirm that an action has indeed happened, the particle قد/qad/ is used and is translated as ‘already’ or ‘indeed’ when used with the past tense. Ryding adds that، قد/qad/ may provide a ‘temporal relation’ when used as a ‘prefix’ with the particle /wa/ means (and) or /fa/ means (then). Therefore, in this example, it is noted that the translator connected the two sentences by the use of the conjunction /wa/ which provides a temporal sequence and the use of the particle /qad/ means (already). Consequently, both particles supply a confirmation of the communicative meaning of the past tense /tarajaa/ means (subsided) in English text by asserting that the action did indeed happen. Thus, the translator uses the noun التنافس/al-tanafos/ (the rivalry) with the demonstrative reference /haadhaa/ (this) instead of the noun pronoun (it) to emphasize the action. Since the translator is aware of the grammatical differences between English and Arabic, the output message of the ST is completely transmitted in the TT.

4.1.1.1.6 Alteration of a number

‘Alternation’ technique appears in replacing (a plural pronoun) in English text by a (dual pronoun) in Arabic text. For example, the plural noun (they) is translated as هما/humaa/ means (they two) in Arabic language, since Arabic language shows a duality of pronouns unlike English language. Also, another example appeared by the altering of the possessive plural pronoun (their) in English text by the suffix -humma/ means (their two) in Arabic text. In other word, the suffix /-humma/ is used to show the duality of the possessive pronoun where the suffix attached the noun حركتهم/ /harakata-humma/ means (‘their two’ movement). Therefore, each language has its own rules govern its structure and the translator is aware of these rules as a native speaker of Arabic language. The following detailed example provides more clarification:

**English text:** “The country needs a leader … who can take all those votes, all those hopes, and meld them into a strategy … clearly crave.”

**Arabic text:**
اذ تحتاج البلاد إلى زعيم ... يستطيع أخذ كل تلك الأصوات، وكل تلك الآمال، و (صهرها) معًا في استراتيجية تعمل ... بشكل واضح.

**Back translation:** “The country needs a leader...who can take all those votes, and all those hopes, and (meld it) together into a strategy...clearly way.”

Here, in English text, the cohesive tie (them) falls under a personal reference and categorized as an object plural noun pronoun which refers back to (votes) and (hopes). On the other hand, in Arabic text, the cohesive tie /-haa/ in صهرها/ /sahr-haa/ attached the verb صهر/sahr/ means (meld) and it refers back to الأصوات و الآمال/ /al-aswat/ and /al-amaal/ mean (votes) and (hopes). The suffix tie /-haa/ falls under a personal pronoun categorizing as an object singular pronoun that equal to (it) in English language. Consequently, it can be stated that an ‘alteration’ technique appeared by replacing an object plural noun pronoun
by an object singular noun pronoun. The main reason for this alteration in Arabic text is that, the feminine singular pronoun /-haa/ is used to refer to non-human plural nouns. Therefore, each language has its own rules govern its structure and the translator is aware of these rules as a native speaker of Arabic language.

4.2.1.1.7 Alteration of a pronoun type
This alteration occurs when one type of personal pronoun in the ST is replaced by another type in the TT. For example, as follows:

**English text:** “My favorite election story was told to me by an international observer...**His** voting station had just closed and as the polling workers...counting station.”

**Arabic text:** 
"وقد حكى لي أحد المراقبين الدوليين... حيث كان مركز الاقتراع الذي كان هذا المراقب مكلفا بمراقبته قد أغلق أبوابه للتو، ولكن بينما كان الموظفون... لمحطة الفرز المركزى.”

**Back translation:** “And one of the international observers told me...where the voting station that this observer is responsible to monitor it had just closed, but while the polling workers...counting station.”

Here, the cohesive tie (his) in English text is a personal reference that falls under a possessive determiner and it refers to the noun (an international observer). On the other hand, it is noted that, this device is altered in Arabic text by another type of personal reference. That is, instead of translating (His voting station), the translator adds more details which is ‘مركز الاقتراع الذي كان هذا المراقب مكلفا بمراقبته’ /markaz al-iktiraa alazi kan haadhaa al-morakib mokalafan bimorakabati-hi/ means (the vote center that this observer is responsible to monitor it). Therefore, the translator uses the suffix /-hi/ that attached the genitive noun ‘مراقبة’ /murakabati-hi/ representing an object noun pronoun (it). Also, it is noted that the demonstrative reference ‘هذا’ /haadha/ is used to refer back to ‘أحد المراقبين الدوليين’ (an international observer). Thus an ‘alteration’ technique is used in this example resulting from the addition of more details in Arabic text than in the ST.

4.1.1.2 Demonstrative reference
The analysis reveals that there are 5 types of ‘alteration’ technique used while translating these demonstrative references into Arabic. These types are summarized in the following sub sections:

4.1.1.2.1 Alteration by changing ‘a scale of proximity’
This translation technique occurs when a demonstrative reference that shows near proximity is replaced by another one that shows far proximity, or vice versa. Moreover, it is noted that Arabic language tends to use near proximity when presenting the idea unlike English language that tends to use far proximity. The reason for this ‘alteration’ refers to the
type of political text (opinion text) where the analyst of such text aims to state his or her points of view by reporting events indeed occurred. Also, this ‘alteration’ is ascribed to the duration of the written political texts which is (year 2012) where many political issues are still taken place in the Middle East. Therefore, using near proximity, (this) and (these), supports the idea that these events are current and important ones. For example, the English demonstrative reference (that decision) is translated into Arabic text as /haadhaa/ which means (this). Another example as follows:

**English text:** A successful walk along this tightrope could preserve Egypt as a core U.S. ally and peaceful neighbor of Israel while transforming it into a functional democracy — something that would make both those roles more stable.

**Arabic text:**
والنجاح في السير على هذا الخيط الرفيع من الممكن أن يحافظ على مصر حليفة أساسية للولايات المتحدة وجار مسالمة إسرائيل مع تحويلها إلى نظام ديمقراطي فعال، وهو أمر سيجعل كلا من هذين الدورين أكثر استقراراً.

**Back translation:** And the success to walk along this tightrope could preserve Egypt as a core U.S. ally and peaceful neighbor to Israel, besides transforming it into an effective democratic system, and this is something that would make these two roles more stable.

In English text, the demonstrative reference device ‘those’, refers back to the following two roles: ‘Egypt as a core U.S. ally and peaceful neighbor of Israel’. This demonstrative device is used to refer to a far proximity, nevertheless, while translating to Arabic text it altered by another demonstrative device that refers to a near proximity as /haadhayni/, means ‘these two’, beside, altering the plural demonstrative reference by a dual demonstrative reference.

### 4.1.1.2.2 Alteration by a noun

It is observed that this type of ‘alteration’ occurs when a translator replaced a demonstrative reference in the ST by a noun in the TT. For example, it is noted that the adverb demonstrative reference (here) in English text is replaced by the noun مصر /misra/ (Egypt) in Arabic text. Another example appeared in the replacement of the definite article ((the) country) which refers to (Sudan) by the name السودان /al-sudan/ (Al-Sudan). Therefore, it can be found that translators prefer the using of noun to trace the name of Arab countries. Hence, an ‘alteration’ technique is used to evoke readers’ attention of events taking place in Arab countries.

### 4.1.1.2.3 Alteration of a demonstrative reference’s type

This technique used when one demonstrative reference in English text is altered by another type of demonstrative reference in Arabic text. The results have revealed that this kind of ‘alteration’ rarely happened. One of the examples cited is the replacement of the adverb demonstrative reference (here) by the determiner demonstrative reference (this).
(here) refers to (Omar Abdel Aziz School) is translated into Arabic text as هذه الزيارة /haadhihi al-ziyara/ means (this visit). In other word, the translator used another demonstrative reference /haadhihi/ (this) refers back to the visit of the place.

4.1.1.2.4 Alteration by a pronoun
This type of ‘alteration’ occurs when a demonstrative reference in English text is replaced by a pronoun while translating into Arabic text. For example, as follows:

English text:
“...an Egyptian woman... shouted: “Please, never leave that box alone. This is our future.

Arabic text:
ركضت امرأة مصرية... صاحت بهم: "من فضلكم لا تدعوا أعينكم تغيب عن هذا الصندوق، فهو مستقبلنا.

Back translation: “An Egyptian woman ran...shouted over them: “please, don’t leave your eyes away of this box, it is our future

In this example, in English text, the cohesive tie (this) falls under a demonstrative reference and it refers back to (box). On the other hand, it is noted that when translated into Arabic text, the translator replaced the demonstrative reference (this) by a personal reference هو /huwa/ means (it) which is used to refer back to الصندوق /al-sondoq/ (the box). In other words, ‘alternation’ techniques in used in this example by make use of replacement in the reference type. However, this kind of alteration doesn’t change the communicative meaning since the altered word /huwa/ (it) has the same function of tracing the object, which is, (the box). Besides, it is observed that Arabic language tends to refer to participant/s or object/s by means of personal references rather than demonstrative references.

Another Example, as follows:
English: Is Morsi nonaligned in that choice?

Arabic: هل مرسي غير منحاز في اختياره؟

Back translation: Is Morsi nonaligned in his choice?
Here, in English text, the cohesive tie (that) classified as a demonstrative reference refers back to (attending the Nonaligned Movement’s summit meeting in Tehran).Yet, it is noted in Arabic text that the translator used a personal reference /-hi/ which is considered as a suffix that represents a possessive determiner of the noun اختيار /ikhtiyar/ (choice) and it refers back to (Morsi). That is, an ‘alteration’ technique is used in this example by replacing the demonstrative reference in English text by a personal reference in Arabic text. However, this replacement doesn’t affect the output meaning of the sentence. Besides, the whole text is about (Morsi’s choice) which is (attending the Nonaligned Movement’s summit meeting in
Tehran) and there is not any other choices mentioned in the text. Thus, the translator is aware about conveying the same idea of the ST without any ambiguity.

4.1.1.2.5 Alteration of a number
This translation technique occurs when a singular demonstrative reference is altered by a plural one and vice versa. For example, as follows:

**English:** Does America have an interest in the internal fights taking place in these countries still quaking from the Arab uprisings?

**Arabic:** فهل أميركا لها مصلحة في الاقتتال الداخلي الجاري في هذين البلدين الذين ما زالا يهتزان بفعل الثورات العربية؟

**Back translation:** "Then, does America have an interest in the internal fighting occurring in ‘these two’ countries that are still quaking from the Arab revolutions?

Here, the English cohesive tie (these) falls under a demonstrative reference and it refers back to (Egypt and Libya). It is noted that, while translated into Arabic, the plural demonstrative reference (these) is altered by the Arabic demonstrative reference هذين /haadh-ayni/ which means (they two). In other words, هذين /haadh-ayni/ represents a dual demonstrative reference and it is a genitive followed by the dual noun /al-balad-ayni/ means (two countries). Therefore, an ‘alteration’ technique occurs in this example by replacing a plural demonstrative reference in the ST by a dual one in the TT. Then, it can be held true that, this ‘alteration’ is used for grammatical reasons since there are structural differences between Arabic and English language. Another example as follows:

**English:** “Let’s return to the main trigger for these events.”

**Arabic:** فلنعد إلى الحافز الرئيسي لهذه الأحداث:

**Back translation:** “Let us return to the main trigger for ‘this’ events.”
It is noted that the demonstrative reference (these) refers back to (Egypt and Libya events). Yet, while translated into Arabic text, the translator makes a replacement by altering a plural demonstrative reference (these) by a singular demonstrative reference هذى /haadhihi/ (this). Moreover, this ‘alteration’ technique is ascribed to the structural differences between both languages. Ryding (2005, p. 315) states that it is possible to identify number and gender in Arabic demonstrative and the plural demonstrative is only used when it refers to human beings. He adds that, if the writer refers to non-human plurals, then the feminine demonstrative /haadhihi/ is used. Consequently, in this example, the singular feminine demonstrative is used in Arabic text because the demonstrative reference refers back to non-human (Egypt and Libya events).
4.1.1.3 Comparative reference

Two types of ‘alteration’ technique are used while translating English comparative reference into Arabic text. These two types are classified in the following sub sections:

4.1.1.3.1 Alteration by superlative

It is noticed that this technique is used when a comparative form in English text is altered by the superlative one in Arabic text. For example, the English comparative reference (more) which refers to (the first message) is translated as الأكثر /al a-kther/ means (the most) in Arabic text. Here, the prefix /al-/ is used in Arabic language for superlative form. In consequence, an ‘alteration’ technique is used where the comparative form (more) is altered by the superlative one الأكثر /al a-kther/ (the most). Yet, it is noted that this alteration does not affect the meaning of the ST since the translator aims to assert the importance and the superiority of (the second message).

4.1.1.3.2 Alteration by synonym

It is observed that this technique is appeared when a comparative reference in English text is translated into Arabic text by its relevant synonym. In other words, the translated word in Arabic is not considered as a comparative reference in Arabic language since the comparative reference has a definite structure in Arabic language which is formed by the prefix /a-/ . For example, the English comparative reference (similar) is translated into Arabic text by the word مماثلة /momathila/. In Arabic, the translated word /momathila/ serves as an adjective which is equal to (similar) in English, nonetheless, it doesn’t have a comparative form of Arabic language which is the prefix /al-/ . Another example as follows,

**English text:** The Sudanese Air Force killed the founder and leader of Justice and Equality in a night raid last December, so the movement has a **more** immediate motivation to depose Bashir’s government: revenge.

**Arabic text:** وكانت القوات الجوية السودانية قد قتلت مؤسس وقائد حركة العدل والمساواة في هجوم ليلي في ديسمبر كانون الأول الماضي، ومن ثم فلدى الحركة دافع إضافي مباشر للتخلص من حكومة البشير، وهو الثأر.

**Back translation:** And the Sudanese Air Force killed the founder and the leader of Justice and Equality movement in a night attack in last December, and so the movement has an extra immediate motivation in order to get rid of al-Bashir’s government. It is revenge.

Here, in English the comparative device ‘more’ refers back to previous paragraph as the movement, now, has more motivation than before after the killing of (the founder and leader of Justice and Equality. It is noted that, the comparative reference (more) is altered, in Arabic, by synonym /idaffi/ means ‘extra’ to semantically provide similar meaning but syntactically change the word form since /idaffi/ is considered an adjective in Arabic which is not serve as comparative device, namely, (ism al-tafiil). Therefore, the translation technique used is ‘alteration’ by a relevant synonym that semantically conveying the same
meaning of the ST, even though, the translated word does not have a comparative form in the TT.

4.1.2 Subtraction

It can be found that some of English cohesive devices are omitted when translated into Arabic text. The following subsections illustrate this technique which is appeared while translating the three types of reference device.

4.1.2.1 Personal Reference

It is noticed that a ‘subtraction’ technique occurs when a personal reference in the English text is omitted while translating into Arabic text. For example, as follows:

**English text:** The Kurds, who have until recently despised the Sunni Arabs for their persecution of the Kurds under Saddam Hussein, are now making amends. They are also closely aligning with Turkey to balance Iranian influence inside Iraq.

**Arabic text:** يعمل الأكراد الذين كانوا يكرهون العرب السنة بسبب اضطهادهم لهم في عهد صدام حسين على إصلاح علاقاتهم مع السنة، كما يؤيدون المواقف التركية لمواجهة النفوذ الإيراني داخل العراق.

**Back translation:** The Kurds, who despised the Sunni Arabs because of their persecution to them under Saddam Hussein’s era, are now making to improve relations with the Sunni. Also, aligning with Turkey’s to Iranian influence inside Iraq.

Here, the cohesive tie (they) in English text falls under a personal reference and it refers back to the noun (the Kurds). Yet, when translated into Arabic text, this noun pronoun is omitted and the sentence translated without a subject. However, semantically the meaning is still understandable in Arabic sentence since it is possible to determine the doer of the action or the subject from the Arabic verb. That is, the Arabic verb يؤيدون /yoayidoon/ which means (aligning) identifies the number (plural), the gender (male) and the tense (present). Therefore, the ‘subtraction’ technique used does not affect the communicative meaning of the TL since the translator is aware of the grammatical differences between Arabic and English language.

4.1.2.2 Demonstrative Reference

This translation technique is rarely used since there are few occurrences appeared in the analysis. For example, the definite article ‘the’ in (the Egyptian soldiers), which is classified under a demonstrative reference refers back to ‘16 Egyptian soldiers’, is omitted when translated into Arabic text. This omission occurred as this information is previously mentioned and there is no need to repeat it. Therefore, ‘subtraction’ technique does not change the communicative meaning of the output message in Arabic text.
4.1.2.3 Comparative References

This ‘alteration’ technique occurs when the comparative reference in the ST is omitted in the TT. For example, as follows:

**English:** Many see Morsi’s move to control the SCAF ... as finally giving Egypt’s revolution the chance to remove key remnants of the Mubarak regime and fulfill its promise. Others, particularly non-Islamists, are more prone to see recent actions as the Muslim Brotherhood removing any checks on its power.

**Arabic:** وينظر كثيرون إلى خطوة مرسي باتجاه السيطرة على المجلس الأعلى للقوات المسلحة... باعتبارها أخيراً فرصة للتثورة للتخلص من فلول نظام مبارك وتحقيق مطالبها. وبيرى البعض الآخر، خاصة غير الإسلاميين، الخطوات الأخيرة باعتبارها دليلا على تخلص جماعة الإخوان المسلمين من أي رقابة على سلطتها

**Back translation:** Many see Morsi’s move to control the SCAF... as finally giving Egypt’s uprising the chance to get rid of the Mubarak regime’s remnants and to achieve its demands. But others, particularly non-Islamists, see the recent actions as the Muslim Brotherhood get rid of any control on its power.

Here, in English text, the cohesive device (more) falls under a comparative reference (presupposed that non-Islamists are more prone than ‘Many’). However, while translating into Arabic text, the translator omits this reference, which means there is a ‘subtraction’ technique. Yet, it is noted that, the meaning in Arabic text does not change when omitting the comparative reference and the message of the ST, which is, (there are two points of view by two different groups) is conveyed. Besides, the translator adds the adversative conjunction /wa/ which means (but) in this example, followed the first opinion to assert that there is another different opinion. Therefore, Arabs’ readers could easily identify the idea since the translator adopts a ‘subtraction’ technique where the English comparative reference does not have essential function if translated into Arabic sentence. However, by means of compensation in the sentence such as the use of adversative conjunction /wa/, the communicative meaning is properly transmitted.

4.1.3 Sustaining

There is a new technique appeared while translating English reference cohesive devices into Arabic text, which is, ‘sustaining’. This technique means that there is an equivalent meaning and function of the ST grammatical cohesive markers when translated into the TT. The following sub sections illustrate some examples in which the translator makes use of this technique.

4.1.3.1 Personal Reference

The analysis revealed that almost English personal references are translated into Arabic text by their equivalent meaning in Arabic text. In other words, the English personal references
are translated into Arabic by make use of the same grammatical category. For example, (i) the English noun pronouns are translated by the noun pronouns in Arabic text e.g. the personal reference (they) is translated into Arabic as هم /hum/ (a plural noun pronoun in Arabic which means (they) in English). (ii) The English possessive determiner (their) is translated into Arabic as /-hum/ (a suffix that attached the noun representing a plural possessive determiner).

4.1.3.2 Demonstrative Reference
It is noticed that, some demonstrative references have what is equal to them in Arabic text in terms of number and proximity. For example, the English demonstrative reference /that/ translated into Arabic as تلك /tilka/. Both devices (/tilka/ and (that)) are singular and represent a far proximity. Also, the English demonstrative reference (this) is translated as هذه /haadhihi/. Both devices (/haadhihi/ and (this)) are singular and represent a near proximity.

4.1.3.3 Comparative Reference
The analysis revealed that some of the English comparative references are translated into Arabic text by their comparative reference’s structure in Arabic language. For example: the cohesive devices (better and more), which falls under comparative reference, are translated into Arabic text by make use of the comparative reference أفضل وأكثر /a-fdal wa a-kther/ means (better and more). In other words, the prefix /a-/ is used to form an adjective comparative device in Arabic language, which means, the translated words agree with the source words in terms of structure. Therefore, the translator conveys the original message of the ST.

5. Conclusion
To sum up, cohesive markers help to make the whole text united and texture. However, translating these cohesive markers form the SL to the TL may be problematic to some translators since there are certain strategies they must follow to produce the same message of the SL. In other words, if they may not translate these cohesive markers correctly, the communicative meaning of the SL would be affected. Therefore, this study aimed to find out these cohesive markers and identify the translation techniques used for translating the cohesive markers from the SL into the TL. The source texts are political ones taken from The New York Times and The Washington Post online articles, and their translated Arabic versions are taken from the online Arabic newspaper, namely, Asharq Al-Awsat. To identify cohesive markers used in both texts the researcher made use of Halliday and Hasan (1976) model of cohesion, besides, Nida’s translation techniques (1964) was adopted to identify the translation techniques used to translate English grammatical cohesive markers into Arabic text. This study revealed that only two of the translation techniques of Nida (1964), which are, ‘Alteration’, and ‘Subtraction’ are used in translating the English reference cohesive devices in order to adjust the meaning in the Arabic text. This study contributes to the field of English-Arabic translation since the data used are related to (Political Opinion
Texts) which is not tackled in previous studies. Besides, it extended another one translation technique which is: ‘Sustaining’. Furthermore, the researcher cited some classifications under each translation technique of Nida (1964). Hence, the suggested model for translating references as a type of grammatical cohesive devices from English into Arabic language is shown in the table (4)

Table (4) the suggested model for translating grammatical cohesive devices from English into Arabic

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References


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