Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Interrelationship of Autonomy, Motivation, and Academic Performance of Persian L2 Learners in Distance Education Contexts

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Abstract—**Among various variables affecting the learning of a language, motivation and autonomy play salient roles. The present study aimed at investigating the possible relationship among autonomy, motivation, and academic performance of Persian L2 learners. To do so, 60 Persian L2 learners from Shahrekord Payam-e-Noor University were randomly selected to see whether or not autonomy, motivation, and academic performance are interrelated. Two questionnaires, one for autonomy and one for motivation, were employed to gather the required data. Analyzing the data through correlation and regression, the results revealed that there is a significant relationship between autonomy and academic performance, and also between motivation and academic performance. On the contrary, no significant relationship was observed between motivation and autonomy. The results of studies like the current one will help L2 teachers and curriculum developers make L2 learners more self-directed, motivated, and successful in conducting their own learning in distance contexts.**

Index Terms—**autonomy, motivation, academic performance, distance education**

I. INTRODUCTION

The growth of information and information communication together with social and economic changes people are encountering as well as lack of access to adequate educational systems have increased the need for distance education. Accordingly, different economical, societal, educational, and political changes have been recently made to prepare the necessary conditions for distance education. Such technological, societal, and economical changes have led to fundamental transitions in educational systems, and consequently, provided distance education with a new prominent situation.

Distance education was launched in Russia in 1850 and then in Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, and finally in other countries. The first Open University was established in the U.K. in 1969, and then other countries including Iran developed this system. As to the basic concept of distance education, the *Learning Circuits Glossary* states that it is an educational situation in which the instructor and learners are separated by time, location, or both. In distance education, training courses are delivered to remote locations via synchronous or asynchronous means of instruction, such as written correspondences, graphics, audio- and video-tapes, CD-ROMs, online learning, audio- and video-conferencing, interactive TVs, and also facsimiles. Greenberg (1998) also defined distance education as the use of many different technologies to provide opportunities for learners at distance to reach their classmates and to encourage their interaction. The authors of the current paper also define distance education as one kind of instruction in which teachers and L2 learners are separate from each other and different technologies like video, data, print, CD, and so on are used to fill in this gap.

The important point with regard to distance education is that it never precludes the use of the traditional classroom. Rather, there may be held some classes for L2 learners. But because the total number of these classes, in comparison to the traditional classes, is few, these classes' times are mostly devoted to meeting the L2 learners' problems and removing their weaknesses, not teaching the materials completely from beginning to the end. In addition, in distance education because final exams are constructed by specific experts from the whole materials, L2 learners should self-study the whole predetermined materials for final exams. But in traditional education, exams are prepared by L2 teachers. Therefore, if they have not finished teaching the whole material, the final exam will just be limited to that covered part of the material.

Based on what is mentioned above, separation of L2 teachers and learners is a main feature of distance education. This gap between L2 teachers and learners puts a high responsibility on the shoulders of L2 learners. Distance L2 learners must be more responsible for their own learning. The term "distance learner" itself invites an assumption that an L2 learner of this type is expected to have gained, to some extent, learner autonomy (Januin, 2007).White (2003)

also supports this claim by saying that distance or open learning leads to promoting learner autonomy. Moreover, distance or open learning involves a positive commitment to the widening access to education and the promotion of learner autonomy (Holmberg, 1986).

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The concept of learner autonomy has attracted much attention and interest within the context of L2 learning, especially in the last two decades. Holec (1980) provided the definition of learner autonomy as, "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). Some scholars like Benson (2001) who advocate for autonomy are concerned primarily with the ability to learn effectively in terms of personal goals. Little (1991) also asserts that L2 learners can communicate efficiently in their L2 if they have enough autonomy to fulfill different social, psychological, and discourse roles. Furthermore, as Little (1991) states, autonomy in L2 learning and autonomy in L2 use are nonseparable concepts. Little, then, provides three pedagogical principles toward learner autonomy:

1. Learner empowerment
2. Learner reflection
3. Appropriate target language use

Little (1991) defines the above concepts as follows:

Learner empowerment requires learners to assume responsibility for their own learning and what amounts to the same thing giving them control of the learning process. Learner reflection helps learners to think about their learning both at a macro level, for example, reviewing what has been achieved in a school year and at a micro level, for example, trying to work out why a particular learning activity was or was not successful. Appropriate target language use requires the teacher to manage classroom discourse in such a way that learners are able to use the target language for genuine communicative purposes from the very beginning. (p.25)

In line with the aforementioned importance of autonomy, Deci and Vansteenkiste (2004) posited that autonomy is one of the three basic needs that L2 learners must satisfy in order to achieve a sense of self-fulfillment. An L2 learner is autonomous, they argued, when he or she is fully willing to do what he or she is doing and when he or she embraces the activity with a sense of interest and commitment (p. 2). Competence and relatedness are two other basic needs: One possesses a feeling of competence when they confront and successfully overcome optimal challenges (p .66), and they experience relatedness when they love and are loved by others (p. 88). Paiva (2006) also stated that autonomy is a sociocognitive system closely related to the L2 learning system. Paiva further explained that it involves not only the individual's mental states and processes, but also political, social, and economical dimensions. It is not a state, but a nonlinear process, which undergoes periods of instability, variability, and adaptability.

As to the relationship between autonomy and academic performance, some studies like that of Hurd (2006) have dealt with this issue. Hurd studied the relationship between autonomy, motivation, and success in the distance context and found that motivation, tutor feedback, and personal responsibility play a crucial role in successful academic performance. She also found that L2 learners' confidence and self-regulation could cause an increase in the process of learning at a distance education context.

It has been repeatedly pointed out that motivation plays a significant role in L2 learning and teaching process. And, one reason of its significance has been noted to be the fact that positive and lasting results in L2 learning are largely dependent on the existence of positive attitudes, and active as well as desirable investment of L2 learners (Overholser, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2008). L2 learners' motivation is also very important in distance education. It plays a key role on one's capacity to cope with the challenges of distance learning experiences (White, 2003). Keller (1984, as cited in Crookes & Schmidt, 1991, p. 389) defines motivation as the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of the effort they will exert in that respect. A number of factors affect L2 learners' motivation in distance education: Loneliness, isolation, competing commitments, absence of the structuring aspects of face-to-face classes, and difficulty in adjusting to a distance L2 learning context are the salient ones (White, 2003). With more understanding about L2 learner's autonomy and motivation, L2 teachers and researchers can pinpoint more effective and suitable ways to train L2 learners to take more responsibility for their own learning and to cope with such loneliness and isolation of the learner and the teacher in such systems (White, 2003).

Regarding the relationship between motivation and distance learning, as White (2003) stated, changing the learning context may affect L2 learners' affective factors like motivation, empathy, and some other factors (White, 2003). In other words, L2 learners have to manage their environment, and instead of the teacher, they are faced with a lot of decision-making situations. They also need to take more responsibility in doing their own learning process, solving their problems, and identifying their outcomes. Besides, some studies revealed that L2 learners enter their courses of study with high initial motivation, but they cannot maintain that motivation up to the end of the course (Harris, 2003; Smith & Sal, 2000).

Several studies have explored the effect of motivation on academic performance. For example, White (1995) studied the importance of affective factors on success in distance language learning. Her sample included novice Japanese and Spanish learners who studied in a distance context. She concluded that affective factors like motivation play a key role in L2 learners' success in a distance context.

Roohani (2001) also studied the motivational variables (integrative and instrumental) towards learning English as a

foreign language among senior learners majoring in English at Shiraz State and Islamic Azad universities. The results indicated that the L2 learners at Shiraz State University were more integretively oriented as compared with their peers at Islamic Azad University. Moreover, a positive relationship was found between integrative motivation and proficiency level of the L2 learners.

To be specific about the Iranian context, learning English is an important issue in the educational system. Distance educational system can have facilitating or debilitating effects on the academic performance of Persian L2 learners in some aspects. One of the facilitating factors is learner autonomy. A teacher-centered education system, like that of Iran, may make many L2 learners alien to learning autonomy. L2 teachers in the traditional educational system in Iran take most of the responsibility, and most L2 learners are passive and are not responsible for the conduct of their own learning. Such learners encounter a lot of problems in distance education. They cannot be responsible for their own learning and may lose motivation to pursue higher education on a distance-learning system of education. Therefore, it is very important to consider the role of autonomy and motivation on L2 learners' academic performance success in the distance education for Persian L2 learners.

In light of the issues raised above, this study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between autonomy along with motivation and academic performance of Persian L2 learners. That is, the present study made an attempt to, first, explore if there is any relationship between L2 learners' grade point average (GPA) and their level of autonomy; second, if there is any relationship between L2 learners' GPA and their motivations; and finally, whether or not L2 learners' motivation and autonomy show any interrelationship.

Conducting studies like the present one can be a great help in a better and more effective teaching and learning of the English language. In other words, the results of studies like the current one may help L2 teachers and curriculum developers to make L2 learners more self-directed, motivated, and successful in conducting their own learning in a distance context. White (2003) argues that with more understanding about L2 learners' autonomy and motivation, L2 teachers and researchers are recognizing the importance of effective ways to train L2 learners to take more responsibility for their own learning and to cope with such loneliness and isolation of the learner and the teacher in such systems.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were 60 L2 learners from Shahrekord Payam-e-Noor University majoring in English Translation. They were 40 female and 20 male participants who were selected on the basis of their availability, whose age range was from 23 to 28. Table 1 summarizes the basic features of the participants with regard to their GPA:

TABLE 1.
COMPOSITION OF THE PARTICIPANTS WITH REGARD TO GPA

GPA	Frequency	Percent
15.32-18.37	22	34.3
14.20-15.31	18	31.8
12.34-14.19	20	33.3

B. Materials

In order to gather the required data, two questionnaires were employed. As to the first questionnaire, the Learner Autonomy Questionnaire developed by Kashefian (2002) was employed (Appendix A). This questionnaire consists of two main parts: The first part is related to the demographic information of the participants. And, the second part incorporates 40 items in a five-point Likert scale, all of which about the role of autonomy in L2 learning. As to the internal reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach alpha was used which turned out to be almost 0.72. For the validity, it was looked into by some professors of Shahrekord and Shiraz Universities and confirmed to be valid for the purpose of the present study. The second questionnaire (Appendix B) was the Motivation Questionnaire developed by Vaez (2008), which has two sections: The first part relates to the demographic information of the participants, and the second part consisting of 25 items is about motivation, of which 12 items are about integrative motivation and the rest are about instrumental motivation. Like the previous questionnaire, Cronbach alpha formula was used for its reliability which turned out to be 0.71. And for its validity, it was confirmed by some of professors of Shahrekord and Shiraz Universities.

C. Data Analysis

The questionnaires were given to the participants. Prior to the administration of the instruments, the participants were provided with sufficient information about the purpose of the study by the researchers. Besides, they were also assured on the confidentiality of the results and the point that their responses and performance would be just for the purpose of conducting a research. The participants were requested to answer the questionnaires during their regular class time and without any time limit.

Having gathered the data and in order to analyze them, the statistical program of SPSS, in general, and the Pearson-product moment formula, in particular, were run to investigate the probable relationship between motivation along with autonomy and the performance of the participants. Besides, in the case of the existence of the probable relationship between each pair of the variables, the Regression analysis was run to predict the variance in the dependent variable (i.e., GPA) from the variance in the independent variables (i.e., autonomy and motivation).

IV. RESULTS

First, the descriptive statistics of each of the understudied factors (i.e., GPA, autonomy, and motivation) are reported. The resulted descriptive statistics for the participants' academic achievement (i.e., GPA) shows that GPA ranges from a minimum of 12.3 to a maximum of 18.3, with a mean of 14.8 and a standard deviation of 1.2. The same statistics for the second variable of the study, that is, autonomy, indicates that the scores ranged from 70.0 to 164.0, and mean and standard deviation are 1.2 and 21.9, respectively. And finally, as to the descriptive statistics of the third factor of the study, that is, motivation, the table indicates that the scores ranged from 61.0 (the lowest score on motivation) to 100.0 (the highest motivation level). Standard deviation is also 9.0.

In order to find out the possible relationship between each pair of the variables and also to find out the strength of any linear relationship, Pearson correlation analysis was run. Table 2 reports the results of the correlation analysis between GPA and autonomy. It reveals a significant positive relationship between GPA and autonomy ($r = .54$, $p < 0.01$), meaning that the L2 distance learners who are more autonomous in English learning in Payam-e-Noor University can achieve better GPA in their studies. In addition, GPA and motivation have a positive significant relationship ($r = .385$, $p < 0.01$). In contrast, Table 2 also indicates that autonomy and motivation have a positive relationship but not significant ($r = .079$, $p > 0.01$). However, there are some other studies in which L2 learners' autonomy and motivation significantly correlate that are detailed in the following section:

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS FOR GPA, AUTONOMY, AND MOTIVATION

		GPA	Autonomy	Motivation
GPA	Pearson Correlation	1	.547**	.385**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.002
	N	60	60	60
Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	.547**	1	.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.547
	N	60	60	60
Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.385**	.079	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.547	
	N	60	60	60

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

With regard to the Regression analysis, because the correlation between autonomy and motivation was not significant, this procedure was used only for GPA (i.e., the dependent variable) and autonomy and motivation (i.e., the independent variables). Table 3 shows that the value of R2 (covariance) for autonomy is .41, meaning that autonomy and GPA share 41% of the variance between them:

TABLE 3.
MODEL SUMMARY GAINED FROM REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.646ᵃ	.41	.39	1.00

a. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, Autonomy

And finally, based on Table 4, Beta values indicates that one standard deviation unit change in the score for autonomy will result in 0.52 unit of change in GPA. However, one standard deviation unit change in the score for motivation will result in 0.34 unit of change in GPA. Thus, on the whole, it can be inferred that autonomy scores are better predictors of GPA than motivation:

TABLE 4.
COEFFICIENT TABLE

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.837	1.389		4.920	.000
	Autonomy	.031	.006	.520	5.127	.000
	Motivation	.050	.015	.344	3.392	.001

a. Dependent variable: GPA

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main objectives of this study were to explore the possible relationship among learner autonomy, academic performance, and motivation. It was noted that taking these variables into consideration will make a valuable contribution in the teaching and learning of every language. The study first revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between autonomy and GPA. This finding is in line with the reports given by Grove, Wasserman, and Grodner (2006, cited in Januin, 2007) who studied the relationship between GPA scores and autonomy. They found that there was a positive significant relationship between autonomy and GPA.

The study also indicated a positive and significant relationship between motivation and GPA. In line with this finding, White (1995) also concluded that motivation plays a crucial role in L2 learners' success in a distance context. Gardner and Lambert (1972) further noted that integretively oriented persons achieve greater L2 competence.

As to the relationship between motivation and autonomy, the study revealed a positive but nonsignificant interplay. However, there are some studies that show the opposite of this finding. For example, Wang and Palincsar (1989, cited in Januin, 2007) found a positive relationship between being responsible for learning and motivation. They showed that putting responsibility on the shoulders of L2 learners and making them able to choose their goals independently will increase their motivation, and they can achieve their goals better. Cotterall (1999) also asserts that motivation can be an antecedent factor of successful autonomous learning.

All in all, the findings present several implications in the field of L2 teaching and learning. Regarding the factors which are of high importance in this study, L2 teachers should pay more attention to learner autonomy. Measuring learner autonomy and motivation at the beginning of each semester in distance education contexts, L2 teachers may probably make L2 learners more responsible for their own learning, and L2 learners would be provided with more motivation for learning. Further, when L2 teachers try to foster learner autonomy, L2 learners will have a different view of the distance context; as a result, they will adjust their expectations based on their experience of the new learning context. Another equally significant implication is that based on the principles of autonomy, syllabuses of the distance universities may need to be examined and probably redesigned. That is, on the basis of the criteria which can encourage L2 learners to foster their autonomy, course books should ideally be reevaluated. The other point is that because in distance contexts L2 learners experience some difficult situations and in most of these situations they need to make decisions, it is better to put into practice some in-service training on learner autonomy.

And finally, as to the Iranian context, self-directed learning in distance universities and what is prevalent in high schools is considerably different. The teacher-centered educational system in Iran decreases learner autonomy. Controlling and monitoring L2 learners' learning is different at universities and high schools. This difference causes too many difficulties with regard to taking responsibility for learning at distance universities. Some L2 learners may lose their motivation, and some may have problems in planning and monitoring their own learning process. As a result, it is very important to adjust L2 learners to the distance universities system and make them prepared to cope with its challenges.

Like any other study, this study suffers from a set of limitations. The main limitation is probably about the participants. That is, in order to reach much more reliable findings and also to be able to generalize the obtained findings of the study, further studies with more participants from different contexts need to be achieved. Another limitation of the study again related to the participants is that only advanced Persian L2 learners took part in the present study, and there could be other studies with elementary and intermediate Persian L2 learners and also with L2 learners who are learning English as a nonacademic course to get information about the interrelationship of the variables of this study in these two levels of proficiency.

APPENDIX A LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE

Sex: ……….   Major: ……….   Marital Status: ……….

Grade: ……….   Age: ……….   Average: ……….

Directions: *Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the numbers which match your answers.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

I believe . . . . .

1	The teacher should offer help to me.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The teacher should tell me what my difficulties are.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The teacher should tell me how long I should spend on an activity.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The role of the teacher is to tell me what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The teacher should always explain why we do an activity in class.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The role of the teacher is to help me learn effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The teacher knows best how well I am.	1	2	3	4	5
8	The role of the teacher is to create opportunities for me to practice.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The role of the teacher is to set my learning goals.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The teacher should be an expert at showing learners how to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The teacher should give me regular tests.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I need the teacher to tell me how I am progressing.	1	2	3	4	5
13	It is important to me to see the progress I make.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I know how to check my works for mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Having my works evaluated by others is helpful.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Having my works evaluated by others is scary.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I have a clear idea of what I need of English.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I like trying out new things by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
19	My language learning success depends on what I do in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
20	My own efforts play an important role in successful language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I myself can find the best way to learn the language.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I know how to plan my learning.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I know how to ask for help when I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I know how to set my own learning goals.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I know how my language learning progresses.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I know how to study languages well.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I know how to study other subjects well.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I have the ability to learn a language successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
29	I have the ability to write accurately in English.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I have the ability to get the score I try for in my next English test.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I know how to find an effective way to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I know best how well I learn.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I have been successful in language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I have my own ways of testing how much I have learned.	1	2	3	4	5
35	I am average at language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Making mistakes is a natural part of language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Making mistakes is harmful in language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
38	It is possible to learn a language in a short time.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Learning a language takes a long time.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I am above average at language learning.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B MOTIVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: *Below are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by circling the number which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement.*

Gender: Male ◯   Female ◯   Age: ……….

The questions have a five-point answering scale. The numbers mean:

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1	Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be at ease with other people who speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to meet and converse with varied people.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Studying English can be important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate English arts and literature	1	2	3	4	5
4	Studying English can be important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	1	2	3	4	5
5	It is important to me to know English in order to know about English-speaking nations.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Studying English is important to me so that I can understand English pop music.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like it.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Studying English is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Studying English is important to me so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I would like to know more about native-English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The British are kind and friendly.	1	2	3	4	5
12	The Americans are kind and cheerful.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Studying English can be important to me because I will need it for my future job.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Studying English can be important to me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Studying English can be important because it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Studying English can be important to me because other people will respect me more if I know English.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Studying English can be important to me because I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Studying English can be important to me because I will learn more about what is happening in the world.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Studying English can be important to me because language learning often gives me a feeling of success.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Studying English can be important to me because language learning often makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Studying English can be important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Studying English can be important to me so that I can understand English-speaking films, videos, TV, and radio.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Studying English can be important to me so that I can read English books.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know new people from different parts of the world.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Studying English is important to me because without it one cannot be successful in any field.	1	2	3	4	5

In the end, if there is any point you need to add, you may use the following space (in Persian or English):

………

…………………………………………………………………………………………..……………………………………………………………………………

THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

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Oscillation between Modernism to Postmodernism in Shakespeare's *Hamlet*

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Abstract—**The universality and uniqueness of Shakespeare is his unyielding and resisting insistence on not surrendering to the fossilized logos and metanarratives. He has remained a genius, whose resisting and challenging views have surpassed time and place. This paper makes an attempt to show the dominant traits of modernism and postmodernism in *Hamlet*. The focal point of the study is to unfold the shift of modern and postmodern traits of the characters and as well as their oscillation between modern and postmodern world. By spotlighting Shakespeare's modern and postmodern notions in his *Hamlet*, the study wants to put on show the affinity of Shakespeare with the 20th and 21th century generations, who vacillate between modern and postmodern world.**

Index Terms—**modernism, postmodernism, oscillation, logos, metanarratives**

I. INTRODUCTION

Different researchers have worked on Shakespeare's tragedies, especially his well-appreciated *Hamlet*. The main focus of this paper is to analyze the selected situations of the leading characters namely Hamlet, Claudius and Gertrude in *Hamlet* in both modern and postmodern bedrocks. Before reaching this analysis, the researcher gives a brief introduction of Modernism and Postmodernism.

II. MODERNISM

Literary modernism is a twentieth-century movement which takes new aspects of literature, as concerned with the changing situation of the society, into account. The exact period in which the movement appeared is much debated by critics. Brooker argues that some critics extend the period form 1880 to 1950, while some others divide the period and "give priority to the prewar years," or" post-war years". (1972, p.4) Some other critics believe that the movement started in 1890 and finished in 1945 when the Second World War was over. The debate over the beginning or end of modernism is not as significant as its literary ideology which is to be discussed in this research.

Modernism as a "creative violence" (levenson, 2002, p.2) deviates from the literary tradition and turns the holistic and taken-for- granted literary concepts into new internal and mental trends. The significant point to be made here is that "modernist" must be distinguished from "modern". Modern can denote anything done or produced at the contemporary period while modernist refers to specific experimental elements which flout the conventional literary forms. In modern writings, the historical period is emphatically implied, whereas modernist writings lay stress on the dominant techniques and approaches which are deemed to be the touchstones for putting pen to paper.

In the *A Dictionary of Literary Terms* by Cuddon the definition of modernism has been put forward as follows:

A very comprehensive term applied to international tendencies and movements in all the creative arts since the latter end of the 19th c. Professor Kermode has made a distinction between Palaeo-modernism and Neo-modernism. Paleo-modernism refers to early manifestations of new movements concluding, perhaps, c. 1914- 20, while neo-modernism refers to movements (like surrealism [q.v]) since that time. As far as literature is concerned modernism reveals a breaking away from established rules, traditions and conventions, fresh ways of looking at man's position and function in the universe and many (in some cases remarkable) experiments in form and style. (1977, p. 399).

The above-mentioned citation can be clarifying and revealing as to the hallmarks of the movement. The modernist movement is "a breaking away form established rules" of the previous eras and considers "man's position" and" function" from a view point which is quite bizarre to the eyes of traditionalists. Modernism as " the literature of technology" displays " introversion , technical display , internal self-scepticism " (Bradbury and McFarlane, 1991, pp. 26-27) to reflect " experiments in form and style" as man's roles and intellectuality change tremendously because of metropolitans and technological developments.

Another issue which instigated the modernist movement was the "nineteenth–century assumptions" which had established themselves as" dead conventions" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 1). Realism and naturalism were some of the touchstones by which the validity of literature was measured. But the modernists who regarded literature as a self-contained phenomenon reflecting the autonomy of the writer disagreed over the well-established rules of the Victorian

period and using experimental devices created new literary masterpieces based upon their own reflections and intellectualism.

They believed that ''modernization has changed the very nature of reality" and literature "has to change its very nature'' (Matz, 2004, p. 6) to dig up the unexcavated monuments of mind.

Modernism which breaks with the past cannot reflect and underpin the flavor of traditional literature. It is revolutionary by nature and creates experimental backgrounds for the disintegration of man's mind and situation to match the modern environment in which consciousness is widely changed. It can mostly be ascribed to the modern era and the peculiarity of contemporary literary analysis. Therefore, it is not historically bound up with any particular period and challenges the conventions. Its aim is paradoxically gained through the literary devices and figures of traditional literature.

A. Epistemological Level

Epistemology means the study or theory of the nature and grounds of knowledge especially with reference to its limits and validity. According to (Heumer, 2005, p. 27):

common sense, perception, the exercise of the five senses, is the chief means by which we know about the world around us. For this reason, a basic understanding of the nature of perception is important to epistemology. A theory of perception should answer such questions as: What is it to perceive something?, What sorts of things does perception make us aware of?, and How does perception enable us to gain knowledge of the world around us?

The alienation of modern man and his exposure to scientific development and new philosophical theories based on humanism made man wonder what the truth is and how he can achieve knowledge based on his limitations.

McHale talks about the epistemological doubts raised by modernist narratives and the kind of questions emphatically posed through these narratives. He says that:

Modernist fiction deploys strategies which engage and foreground questions such as …: "How can I interpret this world of which I am a part? And what am in in it?... what is there to be known? Who knows it? How do they know it, and with what degree of certainty? How is knowledge transmitted from one knower to another, and with what degree of reliability? How does the object of knowledge change as it passes from knower to knower? What are the limits of the knowable? And so on. (1983, p. 9)

The significant point to be made about the above-mentioned strategies is that the modernist narratives put these problems forward either directly through questions or they implicitly raise them through the structure of their narratives or other relevant techniques which on the surface seem irrelevant, but in a closer reading unravel their coherence and interconnectedness. The pattern may be implied through the symbols or images prevalent in the story or the underlying structure which points to the epistemological foregrounding of the text at hand.

Taking the epistemological level into account, Matz comes up with the following comments on modernist narrative:

Who is speaking, and how, and why? What aspect of mental life is explored by the writer's choice of narrative levels? And, perhaps most importantly, how is the writer developing a unique mode of narration by combining different levels- by finding some unique way to move up and down the scale that runs from the most inward narration to the most outward? (2004, p.58)

As we can see, Brain McHale and Jesse Matz have differently posed their questions, but the fact is that the essence is the same since the two critics have observed the roles of limitedness and validity in their hypotheses. The only problem we face is that they look at the issue from different perspectives. McHale has taken knowledge into consideration which is the source behind all information and Matz looks at "Narrative" and "narration" as the hallmarks for epistemological foregrounding.

McHale (1983) brings up the following themes as practical in foregrounding the epistemological dimension: ''Accessibility and circulation of knowledge, the different structuring imposed on the "same" knowledge by different minds; and the problem of "unknowability" or the limits of knowledge'' (p. 9).

These are conveyed through the following devices: The multiplication and juxtaposition of perspectives, the focalization of all the evidence through a single "center of consciousness"… virtuoso variants on interior monologue…, "impeded form "(dislocated chronology, withheld or indirectly- presented information, difficult "mind-style" and so on. (ibid)

The above-mentioned factors are remarkably fruitful in instigating the epistemological level of modernist narratives, but the question which remains is: Does modernism find any answers to the raised questions? The modernist novels are open-ended and inconclusive and do not come up with denouements as we see in realist novels. In other words, they rebel against the established realistic norms; however, they create some alternatives for the problems of uncertainty and doubt through aesthetic forms. They produce "a new realism based strangely on doubt about reality itself" (Matz, 2004, p. 33)

B. Stream-of- consciousness

In modernist narrative, "loss of order" "led to the belief in its recovery at a deeper level of the mind" (Waugh, 1984, p. 24). They turned from the objective descriptive world of realism to the subjective personal world of the author. In this way, the traditional narrative techniques could not work any more; Modernists turned to "stream of consciousness" as an experimental strategy to delve into the mind of man as the ocean of knowledge. "Now human consciousness and

especially artistic consciousness could become more intuitive, more poetic; art could now fulfill itself'' (Bradbury and McFarlane, 1991, p. 25)

Stream of consciousness is a phrase coined by William James in his book called *principles of psychology* (1890). Abrams defines it as follows:

Stream of consciousness is the name for a special mode of narration that undertakes to reproduce, without a narrator's intervention, the full spectrum and the continuous flow of a character's mental process, in which sense perceptions mingle with conscious and half-conscious thoughts memories, expectations, feelings, and random associations (1971, p. 202)

The mingling of "sense perceptions" "with conscious and half-conscious" elements of human understanding may seem bizarre at first glance, but at a deeper level, all these metal processes interact to discover the "Epistemological cause" (Bradbury and McFarlane, 1991, p. 25) of human consciousness.

Stream of consciousness as the interpretive strategy of artistic independence can take many forms here what Matz says can be of great help:

Stream of consciousness could take many forms. The main goal- the "unmediated" discourse of the mid itself-could be reached in different ways depending on the state of mind in question or a writer's theory about where to locate the mind's most basic activity stream of consciousness might mean a very random jumble of perceptions and imagings, or it might mean a very direct pursuit of some train of thought, as long as its narration proceeds as if unprocessed by any authorial intervention. (2004, p. 54)

Stream of consciousness includes interior monologue as a subcategory or "interchangeably". Interior monologue is concerned with that species of consciousness which undertakes to present to the reader the course and rhythm of consciousness precisely as it occurs in a character's mind (Abrams, 1971, p. 202)

Interior monologue is widely used in modernist narratives to foreground the epistemological level of characters' limitations (McHale, 1983: 9). This narrative strategy, the perceptions " would still not be wholly coherent, but they wouldn't descend so much into the irrational, the unconscious, or the nonverbal". (Matz, 2004, p. 56). The important point to be made here is that the writer "does not proceed" traditionally" with a view to bringing a continuity of exterior events to a planned conclusion" (Faulkner, 1977, p. 16). In this way, the traditional concepts of narrative and plot are shattered to reflect the epistemological complexities of modernist fictionalization.

C. Pessimism

The modernist narratives express a sense of pessimism in their attitudes throughout the narration. They mostly focus on this strategy because of their break with the previous pretensions of optimism. The role of urbanization and world wars can not be ignored in this regard. Urban life and the impact of world wars made life complicated and hard to tackle. In this period, the writers flouted the conventional strategies of narrative and characterization to flaunt the disintegration of modern man. The role of alienation, which is the result of the isolation of man form a society in which lack of communication is widespread, can remarkably be observed in the pessimistic attitudes of modernists.

Another key term closely related to pessimism in modernist narrative is paranoia. ''Paranoia, or the threat of total engulfment by some body else's system" is "keenly felt" by the modernist characters''. (Lewis, 2001, p. 129). Here the skeptical paranoid characters who test truths and inquire into fundamentals, express their dissatisfaction, with life which does not work a certain way as against the Victorian narratives. The modernist characters are agonized by dread that someone is patterning you life, that there are all sort of invisible plots a foot to rob you of your autonomy of thought and action, that conditioning is ubiquitous.

The pessimistic modernist writers thought that the society was trying to Rob them of their "autonomy" and they had been conditioned by the traditional narrative techniques which had made them turn into anti- traditionalists. They believed in a general pessimism about the world, and rendered a rejection of society's certainties, a sense that only the artist is tells the truth. The reactions of modernist characterization in the development of this strategy can be fully elaborated in Bellow's work which will be discussed later on in the application section of the research under discussion.

D. Irony

Irony is defined as: "a statement in which the meaning that a speaker implies differs sharply from the meaning that is ostensibly expressed" (Abrams, 1971, p. 97). In modernist narratives, the role that irony plays can be quite remarkable because its function determines the way narration is distinguished from previous conventions. In modernist narrative, we no longer rely on "unity of mood" which orientates the readers' expectations, the "irony" of narratives makes the structures of modern narrations shattered and unpredictable so that the reader faces "juxtaposition" and not "simple narration" (Faulkner,1977, p. 16).

In modernist narratives irony is used for different purposes, but one of the eye-catching justifications behind this technique is the epistemological level of modernism. Matz has more to say on that as follows:

And worst, if truth recedes entirely, if there is a great difference between lost truths and bad realities, irony results. Irony- the bleak difference between what is and what ought to be, the wry gap between what is said on the surface and what is really meant – is often the end-point of the modern novel, where questioning and skepticism lead ultimately to the dismal discovery that things are very much not what they seem (2004, p. 34).

In modernist narratives, "writers also test reality by showing how much it is 'subjective'" (p. 23). Since the autonomy of the writers and their independence is revitalized only through the ironic distance they keep from the Victorian and realistic narratology. In realistic narratology, the events are naturalized and the readers are conditioned to follow the chronological or logical chain of events without taking the individuality of the characters into account, but modernist outlook toward narratology is uniquely constructed owing to its attentiveness to irony as the shelter from the past and "novels" which are "self-conscious about fiction's function" show "a new realism" directed at changing man's perception (p. 36).

Modernist narratives aim at flaunting realism ironically to show "aesthetic truth" (p. 77) as the alternative to the socially accepted realities. They usually pose some epistemological questions using ironic structures and the solution as opposed to realistic narratives turns ironically unexpected; consequently, a new form takes the place of traditionally accepted doctrines. They ironically break with the past to replace their subjective, epistemological creeds which are based on the internal world of the characters.

III. POSTMODERNISM

According to Lewis:

The strains of silence in literature, from Sade to Becket, convey complexities of language, culture, and consciousness as these contest themselves and one another. Such eerie music may yield an experience, an intuition, of postmodernism but no concept or definition of it (2001, p. 146)

Postmodernism is a comprehensive concept which has been challenged and argued over in so many scientific, literary, philosophical, cultural fields. Some critics regard it as originating in architecture. Based on natural attributes, it can not be defined as stable and fixed. Concerning the historical evidence of its formation, the following quotation may prove beneficial:

As for postmodernism, Arnold Toynbee detected its beginnings in the 1870s, Charles Olson and Irvin Howre, though they mean different things by it, saw it as emerging in the 1950s; Fredric Jameson, in one account,' in the late 1940s and early 1950s' in other around 'the end of the 1950s or 1960s' Charles Jencks's as beginning on 15 July 1972 at 3.32 p.m. for other post modernism is phenomenon of the eighties (Brooker, 1972, p. 4)

Hassan in *Toward a Concept of Postmodernism* thinks that a "period" is generally not a period at all; it is rather both a diachronic and synchronic construct". He further points out that postmodernism "requires both historical and theoretical definition" (1988, pp. 149-150). He further on says that no specific date can be determined for its beginning; also, he mentions the following relevant comments, ''thus we continually discover 'antecedents' of postmodernism in Sterne, Sade, Blake, Lautréamont, Rimbaud, Jarry, Tzara, Hofmannsthal, Gertrude Stein, the later Joyce, the later Pound'' .(p. 150)

The above-mentioned quotation maintains the idea that postmodernism is not related to any specific period and as Hassan himself states, sometimes the "older authors are more postmodernist than younger authors" (ibid)

As was mentioned before, postmodernism is by nature indefinable; Nevertheless, critics have come up with different definitions about it. McHale believes that postmodernism, like Renaissance or Romanticism does not exist in the real world it is discursively made by readers and writers or literary historian; so as a discursive construct, we have:

John Barth's Postmodernism , the literature of replenishment; Charles Newman's Postmodernism, the literature of an inflationary economy; Jean-Francois Lyotard,s Postmodernism a general condition of knowledge in the contemporary informational regime; Ihab Hassan's Postmodernism, a stage on the road to the spiritual unification of Human kind; and so on.(1983, p.4)

Because of the mentioned qualities in postmodernism, critics such as Brain McHale and Linda Hutcheon emphasized a "poetics" for postmodernism. Hutcheon says that:

I see it as an on going cultural process or activity, and I think that what we need, more than a fixed and fixing definition, is a "poetics", an open, ever-changing theoretical structure by which to order both our cultural knowledge and our critical procedures.(1991, p.14)

Brooker in modernity *postmodernism* has come up with the following definition of postmodernism with the emphasis on its deconstructivity :

'Postmodernism' is too often associated with the merely stylistic features of self-conscious play and parody for it to serve the broader radicalizing purpose ascribed to it. In this mode postmodernism is generally explained as the result of psychic, technological and cultural worlds which have made any assumptions of a unified subjectivity and any reference to a 'real' rather constructed or simulated world impossible. (1972, p. 15)

As we can see here, some of the specific attributes of postmodernism in general have been brought up. The important point is that the disintegration of mind because of "psychic, technological and cultural worlds" cannot reflect reality as in realist and modernist modes and "reference" in postmodernism even to the created object is not possible. So non-referentiality as Ihab Hassan, proposes, has been presented.

Here, the definition of Lyotard concerning postmodernism can help us in the pursuit of this trend and its characteristics. In the postmodern condition, he defines postmodernism as "incredulity toward metanarratives" (qtd. in Malpas, 2003: 24). "a metanarrative sets out the rules of narratives and language games " (p. 24). The postmodernist

authors flout these metanarratives as ideologically constructed (Hutcheon, 1991, p. 104). So, postmodernism is "deconstructionist " (Hassan,1988, p. 151) by nature.

Postmodernism has some attributes similar to what we observe in deconstruction; They both target the metanarratives and demystify the ideological backgrounds behind the texts; But literary post modernist attitudes have "a desire to interrogate the nature of language, of narrative closure, of representation, and of the context and conditions of both production and reception" (p. 54).

The literary postmodernism lays bare "the process" of literary writing. The important point about postmodernism is that as "a contradictory phenomenon "it "uses and abuses, installs and then subverts, the very concepts it challenges" (Hutcheon, 1991, p. 3). Here, we encounter a big contradiction but it" is typical of postmodernist theory" because "the decentering of our categories of thought always relies on the centers it contests for its very definition". "There is no dialectic in the postmodern" (ibid) and the contradictions are paradoxically directed toward foregrounding metanarratives.

Postmodernism's contradictory nature leads us to another important concept put forward by Linda Hutcheon. "problematizing" postmodernism "raises questions about (or renders problematic) the common-sensical and the "natural" which appear in the form of metanarratives. It tries to problematize and make us question the norms, but it does not offer answers owing to its antitotalizing ideology". Offering answers is equal to making new "grand narratives which is against postmodernist poetics.

Back to postmodernist definition, Hawthorn in *A Concise Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory* comes up with the following description to define the indefinable postmodernism:

Postmodernism, then, can be used today in a number of different way: (i) to refer to the non-realist and non-traditional literature and art which takes certain modernist characteristics to an extreme stage: and (ii) to refer to aspects of a more general human condition in the ' late capitalist' world of the post 1950s which have an all-embracing effect on life, culture, ideology and art, as well as some but not all usages to a generally welcoming, celebrative attitude towards these aspects.(1992, p. 110)

Hassan in *Toward a Concept of Postmodernism* says that "postmodernism suffers from a certain semantic instability: That is, no clear consensus about its meaning exists among scholars" (1998, p. 149). This "semantic instability" has been one of the main reasons behind postmodernist similarity with deconstruction. Even, among critics and postmodernist philosopher, as was mentioned previously, no single description or theorization of postmodernism exists which more clearly proves the complexity and indefinability of the term. Later on, Hassan justifies the "semantic instability" of postmodernism as follows: (a)The relative youth, indeed brash adolescence.Of the term postmodernism and (b) its semantic kinship to more current terms equally unstable …this can make for inspired debates.(p. 149)

So, as we notice the newness and association of postmodernism, with other trends such as modernism, "avant-gardism" (ibid) and some literary movements which are simultaneously new, has complicated the maze of postmodernism as to its definition and theories.

Hutcheon in *A Poetics of Postmodernism* comes up with a very outstanding definition on postmodernism; She says that postmodernism is contradictorily dependent and independent from modernism and this characteristic as "typically contradictory" (1998, p. 18) to modernism shows the natural tendency of postmodernism because it is "perceived in terms of both continuity and discontinuity" to the previous trend (p. 149).

One of the characteristics of postmodernism is "the presence of the past" (Hutcheon, 1991, p. 20). Here, this quality can, as far as literary postmodernism is concerned, be ascribed to the natural tendency of postmodernism itself. Because of holding modernism as the past event and postmodernism as the present event, we can say it sticks to both past and present and the former title is present in the latter one. Postmodernism "doesn't deny the past" but "questions whether we can ever know that past other than through its textualized Remains" .It "literally names and constitutes its own paradoxical identity "by" (" an uneasy contradictory relationship of constant slippage" , (*ibid*)

One of the clearest definitions of postmodernism has been presented by Lyotard as proposing that:

The postmodern would be that which in the modern invokes the unpresentable in presentation itself , that Which refuses the consolation of correct forms , refuses the consensus of taste permitting a common experience of nostalgia for the impossible , and inquires into new presentations – not to take pleasure in them , but to better produce the feeling that is something unpresentable. (qtd. in Malpas, 2003, p. 49)

Lyotard believes in the disruption of "established artistic structures" and "language games" by testifying to the existence of the unpresentable. By "unpresentable" he means not something which is missing from the "content of a work "but" a force that shatters ways of narrating or representing ". Postmodernism breaks "the rules" and regulations to which "viewers are used to and raises the ontological "question " of " what is art ?" or" what is really " in its structures (pp. 49-50)

Postmodernism is a phenomenon of vast interpretation and focuses on so many aspects. In different fields including literature, philosophy, social sciences, Arts, and so on what it tries to do is the portrait of all the artifacts as "Human constructs" (Hutcheon, 1988, p. 5) which are revised through its interpretive strategies as contradictory phenomenon in an interdisciplinary manner . The concept of originality in postmodernist literature will be discussed later.

Ontological Level

Brain McHale in Postmodernist fiction puts forward the ontological dimension as the "dominant" of postmodernist fiction. This mode of problematization is concerned with "modes of being" and the kinds of questions raised by this technique are so various. Postmodernist fiction, according to McHale "deploys strategies which engage and foreground":

Questions like the ones Dick Higgins calls "postcognitive" "which world is this? What is to be done in it? Which of my selves is to do it? "Other typical postmodernist questions bear either on the ontology of the literary text itself or on the ontology of the world which it projects, for instance: what is a world? What kinds of worlds are there, how are they constituted and how do they differ? What happens when different kinds of world are placed in confrontation, or when boundaries between worlds are violated?; what is the mode of existence of a text, and what is the mode of existence of the world (or worlds) it projects?; How is a projected world structured? And so on. (McHale, 1983, p. 10).

The philosophical preoccupations here do not rest at the level of epistemological knowledge as metanarratives: they problematize epistemological knowledge through "the mode of existence".

According to Brain McHale, the postmodernist writers come up with "a wide range of ontological attitudes or themes". The common ground of all these postmodernist writers is that they foreground the ontological concerns through "the same repertoire of strategies". McHale refers to an important point in the application of "ontology":

An ontology, writes Thomas Pavel, is" a theoretical description of a universe"… for the operative word in Pavel's definition, from my point of view, is the indefinite articled; an ontology is a description of a universe not of the universe; that is, it may describe any universe, potentially a plurality of universes. In other words, to "do" ontology in this perspective is not to seek some grounding for our universe; it might just as appropriately involve describing other universes, including "possible" or even "impossible" universes – not least of all the other universe or heterocosom, of fiction. (p. 27)

As we can see, Brain McHale does not believe in metanarratives or "grounding" for postmodernist ontology; so the worlds "in confrontation" do not come into any "dialects" (Hutcheon, 1988, p. x) ". For the real world to be reflected in the mirror of literary mimesis, the imitation must be distinguishable from the imitated" (McHale, 1983, p. 28).

One of the important reasons behind the ontological level of postmodernist fiction is that "the author as god" is shattered conceptually (29). This is mostly shown by comparing the world of the fiction to the real world in which "man's finite mind" can not understand the "unfathomable vast, ungraspingly complex universe. (p. 29).

Here, the artist who is faced with an "oppressive infinitude "(p. 30) is not able to act out the "author as god" (p. 29) anymore. The writer "makes his "(ironic) "freedom visible by thrusting himself into the foreground of his work (p. 30). Therefore, the writer "represents himself in the act of making his fictional world – or unmaking it "which ontologically foregrounds the narrative .consequently, we have the confrontation of different worlds layered upon one another. The important point to be made here can be quoted as, ''The artist represented in the act of creation or destruction is himself inevitably a fiction. The real artist always occupies an ontological level superior to that of his projected" fictional self and doubly superior to the fictional world'' (p. 30)

Here, according to McHale, "there is a possibility of "infinite regress "which undermines the sense of originality and uniqueness of literary works to foreground the ontological dimension.

The above- mentioned quality leads us to another term which is crucial in the formation of ontological foregrounding -"short circuit" which refers to the writer who "penetrates his own fictional world" and he may introduce" himself to his characters" some times even the author explains the roles "to the characters" (p. 23) consequently the ontological level of the author as maker of the fictional world" confronts "the level of fictional world "and what is produced is something like a " short circuit " but the point to bear in mind is that, ''as soon as the author writes himself into the text he fictionalizes himself, creating a fictional character bearing the name " Steve Katz" or " John Barth "… who is formally transworld – identical with himself'' . (p. 215)

Here, I would elaborate on "psychological conceivability" according to which "a second world is accessible if it can be conceived by inhabitants of the first world" to achieve this aim, the postmodernists use "transworld identity":

If an entity in one world differs from its "prototype" in another world only in accidental properties, not in essentials, and if there is a one-to-one correspondence between the prototype and its otherworld variant, then the two entities can be considered identical even though they exist in distinct worlds (p. 35)

This parallelism between the two worlds makes the texts psychologically conceivable. But there are other aspects along with the similar features which foreground the ontological level because they are bizarre in the eyes of readers as producers of meaning.

IV. COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MODERNISM AND POSTMODERNISM

Modernism and postmodernism have been critically analyzed by many critics. IHab Hassan, Brain McHale, Barry Lewis, Linda Hutcheon and other critics have some theorizations in this regard. The important philosophy behind their analyses is that they do not agree over the particulars, but the general notions are more or less similar; however no resolution is achieved as to the distinction between modernism and postmodernism. To elaborate more on the issue, I would cite Ihab Hassan's tabulation as quoted in *Toward a Concept of Postmodernism* (p. 152):

Modernism	Postmodernism
Romanticism / Symbolism	Pataphysics / Dadaism
Form (conjunctive, closed)	Antiform (disjunctive, open)
Purpose	Play
Design	Chance
Hierarchy	Anarchy
Mastery / Logos	Exhaustion / Silence
Art object / Finished work	Process/performance / happening
Distance	Participation
Creation / Totalization	Decreation/ Deconstruction
Synthesis	Antisynthesis
Presence	Absence
Centering	Dispersal
Genre/ Boundary	Text/ Intertext
Semantics	Rhetoric
Paradigm	Syntagm
Hypotaxis	Parataxis
Metaphor	Metonomy
Selection	Combination
Root/ Depth	Rhizome/ surface
Interpretation / Reading	AgainstInterpretation/Misreading
Signified	Signifier
Lisible (Readerly)	Scriptible (writerly)
Narrative / Grand histoire	Anti-narrative/ Petit Histoire
Master code	Idiolect
Symptom	Desire
Type	Mutant
Genital / phallic	Polymorphous / Androgynous
Paranoia	Schizophrenia
Origin/ cause	Difference- Difference / Trace
God the Father	The holy Ghost
Metaphysics	Irony
Determinacy	Indeterminacy
Transcedence	Immanence

V. *HAMLET* THE PLAY

The leading characters of Shakespeare's *Hamlet* oscillate between two worlds of modernism and postmodernism. Hamlet's mysterious character displays an impressive sense of modernism. His ironic and pessimistic comments highlight this sense of impression.

On the other hand we can see Claudius and Gertrude breathing in the land of postmodernism by breaking the shackles of modern restrictions.

A. *The Epistemological Preoccupations of Hamlet*

Hamlet is constantly involved in a struggle with himself to see if he can find answers to the questions raised by his troubled life. In the following dialogue between Hamlet and his mother, Gertrude, some philosophical questions concerning "cynicism" are problematically raised to foreground the epistemological preoccupations of Hamlet as the protagonist of the play:

Queen: Good Hamlet, cast thy nighted colour off, and let thine eye look like a friend on Denmark. Do not fore ever with thy vailed lids seek for thy noble father in the dust. Thou know'st 'tis common. All that lives must die, passing through nature to eternity.

Hamlet: Ay, madam, it is common.

Queen: If it be, why seems it so particular with thee?

Hamlet: "Seems, madam? Nay, it is; I know not 'seems.' 'Tis not alone my inky cloak, good-mother, Nor customary suits of solemn black, Nor windy suspiration of forced breath, No, nor the fruitful river in the eye, Nor the dejected haviour of the visage, Together with all forms, moods, shows of grief/That can denote me truly. These indeed 'seem,' For they are actions that a man might play; But I have that within which passeth show—These but the trappings and the suits of woe."(Alexander, 1951, p.1031, henceforth Alexander).

Hamlet is warning us that we cannot rush to hasty judgment about what is going on in his soul, because this reality cannot be expressed in any outward mode or manner. He is making an epistemological point, about the radical inaccessibility of other mind. He is hinting that he senses a mystery in himself—a profound elusiveness that can only be expressed by the unspecific word "something." Hamlet is insisting on his own transcendence of the aspect he presents to the world—that he is more than he seems. This retort epistemologically points to the suspension and bewilderment that Hamlet's character as a paranoid identity ascribes to himself.

This epistemological questioning in the form of a soliloquy gives more credence to Hamlet's paranoid character as a modern man:

O that this too too sullied flesh would melt, thaw and resolve itself into a dew, or that the Everlasting had not fix'd his canon 'gainst self-slaughter. O God! God! How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable seem to me all the uses of this world! fie on't, ah fie, 'tis an unweeded garden that grows to seed; things rank and gross in nature Possess it merely. That it should come to this! But two months dead - nay, not so much, not two -So excellent a king, that was to this Hyperion to a satyr, so loving to my mother that he might not beteem the winds of heaven Visit her face too roughly. Heaven and earth, Must I remember? Why, she would hang on him As if increase of appetite had grown by what it fed on; and yet within a month -Let me not think on't - Frailty, thy name is woman –a little month, or ere those shoes were old With which she follow'd my poor father's body, Like Niobe, all tears –why, she -O God, a beast that wants discourse of reason would have mourn'd longer - married with my uncle, my father's brother - but no more like my father than I to Hercules. Within a month, ere yet the salt of most unrighteous tears had left the flushing in her galled eyes, She married – o most wicked speed! To post With such dexterity to incestuous sheets! It is not, nor it cannot come to good. But break my heart, for I must hold my tongue. (Alexander, p.1032)

In this soliloquy Hamlet's attachment to logocentrism as a modern man is vividly displayed, as he realizes that committing suicide would be considered a sin in the eyes of the "Everlasting" God who with his "canon 'gainst (self slaughter!)'' would prevent him from reaching heaven.

Epistemological doubt as a dominant mode can be traced throughout the play; Hamlet is deprived of so many rights, encounters some mental, epistemologically posed questions which are typical of modern man.

The following monologue by Hamlet once again displays his logocentric attachment:

Now might I do it pat, now 'a is a-praying; and now I'll do't—and so 'a goes to heaven, and so am I reveng'd. That would be scanned: A villain kills my father; and for that, I, his sole son, do this same villain send to heaven.(Alexander, p. 1053)

B. Stream of Consciousness

This technique is mostly actualized in the form of interior monologue in this play. As was mentioned before, ''the modernist writers use interior monologue to foreground their epistemological bewilderment'' (McHale, 1983: 8). As we go through the context, Hamlet's mental involvements are artistically displayed. His sense of confusion is mostly reflected in the way he describes the external objects according to his internal world as the decision-making touchstone in the formation of his personality. Hamlet's everlasting soliloquy proves the claim:

To be, or not to be—that is the question; whether; tis nobler in the mind to suffer the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune, or to take arms against a sea of troubles, and by opposing end them? To die, to sleep—no more; and by a sleep to say we end the heart-ache and the thousand natural shocks that flesh is heir to. 'Tis a consummation devoutly to be wish'd. to die, to sleep; to sleep, perchance to dream. Ay, there's the rub; for in that sleep of death what dreams may come, when we have shuffled off this mortal coil, must give us pause…….(Alexander, p.1047)

As we can see, the interior monologue reflects the way Hamlet considers the inner world as the basis for designing the external world and his subjective perspectives in his judgment on facial descriptions. In this play; the role of interior monologue is multi-faceted. If you take Hamlet into account, you will see how the interior monologues question his personality and the concept of his paranoid self.

C. Pessimism

A sense of strong pessimism can be traced in Shakespeare's Hamlet, which is a dominant trait of modernism. The following dialogue can be an apt example:

Queen: What have I done that thou dar'st wag thy tongue In noise so rude against me?

Hamlet: Such an act that blurs the grace and blush of modesty; calls virtue hypocrite; takes off the rose from the fair forehead of an innocent love, and sets a blister there; makes marriage-vows a false as dicers' oaths. O, such a deed as from the body of contraction plucks the very soul, and sweet religion makes a rhapsody of words. Heaven's face does glow o'er this solidity and compound mass with heated visage, as against the doom—is thought-sick at the act. (Alexander, p. 1054)

The above dialogue shows the paranoid attitudes, which maintain Hamlet's pessimism towards his mother and the whole surroundings as well. But Hamlet's interpretation of "truth" does not go beyond the epistemological limitations nor does it lead to schizophrenia in which delusions about reality dominate the characters.

The ironic look at pessimism and its epistemological bewildering aspect reaches a point where "abandoning the intractable problems of attaining to reliable knowledge of our world" is dominantly observed and narratives "improvise a possible world" (McHale, 1983, p. 10).

D. Irony

Throughout the play, ironic structures are evident. Hamlet uses his ironic rhetoric as tranquilizers. The following dialogue can support the claim:

King: My cousin Hamlet; and my son—

Hamlet: A little more than kin, and less than kind.

King: How is that the clouds still hang on you?

Hamlet: Not so, my lord; I am too much in the sun.

Words are used as a double-edged weapon here, but a disguised weapon.

E. Stream of Narration as a Technique in Hamlet

Stream of narration is mainly concerned with narrative conventions. It defies linearity and foregrounds the ontological world of the text as producing different meanings and interpretations by the readers. It no longer admits the consciousness of the individual author as authentic, but through its discontinuous portrait of the narrative technique, helps the readers to produce a variety of meanings to denaturalizes "narrative continuity'. (Hutcheon,1988, p. 13)

Shakespeare starts describing something, chooses a key point in that matter, elaborates on that key point so that the reader's mind is distracted, then he goes back to the issue at hand. This is vividly displayed in Claudius' public appearance after his hasty marriage to Gertrude:

though yet of Hamlet our dear brother's death the memory be green, and that it us befitted to bear our hearts in grief and our whole kingdom to be contracted in one brow of woe, yet so far hath discretion fought with nature that we with wisest sorrow think on him together with remembrance of ourselves. Therefore our sometime sister, now our queen, th' imperial jointress to this warlike state, have we—as 'twere with a defeated joy, with an auspicious and a dropping eye, with mirth in funeral and with dirge in marriage, in equal scale weighing delight and dole—taken to wife. Nor have we herein barred your better wisdoms, which have freely gone with this affair along. For all, our thanks. Now follows that you know. Young Fortinbras, holding a weak supposal of our worth or thinking by our late dear brother's death our state to be disjoint and out of frame, colleaguèd with the dream of his advantage, he hath not failed to pester us with message importing the surrender of those lands lost by his father, with all bonds of law, to our most valiant brother. So much for him. (Alexander, p. 1030)

In *Hamlet*, since the shift from modernism to postmodernism is quite tangible, so different layers of narration are juxtaposed, so that no single, linear, logical sequence of events can be traced. The reader is in a constant mood of suspense and uncertainty; some times, we may confront a sequentiality, but we are disillusioned as soon as the narrative itself is fragmented- such handling of narrative triggers the sense of undecidablity in Derridean terms and points to the fact that narrative itself is something arbitrary and pluralizes its interpretations in various situations based on the layer surfaced through the viewpoints of thoughtful readers.

Conventional dialogs reflect harmonious minds and intellectual stability among readers. In postmodernist, dialogues based on traditional norms are regarded as ideologically constructed and can not reflect the disordered and chaotic situation of man. In describing Hamlet's dilemma, only a shattered and disintegrated rhetoric can fully transfer the sense of anxiety and disturbance to the readers.

Stream of narration shows that narrative techniques are not natural phenomena behind all literary masterpieces. In addition, one of the important functions of stream of narration in *Hamlet* is that it defies a specific plot, setting and characterization.

F. Fragmentation

In *Hamlet*, fragmentation as a postmodernist technique is obtained through a kind of schizophrenic dissociation of the thoughts and observations. This can be felt in Gertrud's attitude towards Hamlet:

Queen: Good Hamlet, cast thy nighted colour off, and let thine eye look like a friend on Denmark. Do not fore ever with thy vailed lids seek for thy noble father in the dust.Thou know'st 'tis common. All that lives must die, passing through nature to eternity.(Alexander, p. 1031)

It can be also very appropriately felt in Gertrude's following question to Hamlet:

Queen: What have I done that thou dar'st wag thy tongue In noise so rude against me? (Alexander, p. 1054)

It seems as if Gertrud is not aware of her own hasty marriage after the mysterious death of her husband who loved her a lot. She even does not seem to ponder over the agony that her sole son Hamlet is undergoing. The whole thing shows Gertrud's fragmented mind.

G. Logocentrism

Logocentrism is a term coined by Derrida to denote the philosophies that are based on the idea that meaning is immediate and stable and that words and signs communicate directly and naturally. This idea has come under attack from both modern and postmodern theorists who conceive meaning as socially, culturally and historically mutable (Malpas, 2005, p. 135).

Derrida's focus on logocentrism is decentring religion which is the chaotic focal point in Shakespeare's Hamlet. According to the practiced Christian principles during the renaissance a man could not marry his brother's widow. Hence, Claudius' marriage to Gertrude is an anti-logocentric act.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a number of modernist and postmodernist techniques were applied to Shakespeare's Hamlet to see how the shift from Modernism to Postmodernism can be accounted for in terms of contextual situations of the selected characters.

The use of irony in *Hamlet* makes us aware of what we regard as true and what the contextualized truth refers to; this

quality arouses the sense of epistemological questioning in the readers.

Pessimism as actualized in the form of paranoia is prevalent in the *Play*. This technique mostly reflects the situation of Modern man as dismal and pathetic.

Pessimism can be the offspring of modernization and technological innovations. The important point to be made here is that in *Hamlet* all the above-mentioned techniques are simultaneously existent in a chain-like manner. They eventually point to the dominance of epistemology in this masterpiece. They interact together to problematize what the modern man is looking for as the final limit of knowledge.

Stream of narration which can be the counterpart of modernist stream of consciousness defies any narrative regulation and clearly puts the concept of narration into question. It points to the fact that narratives are ideologically constructed and as Hutcheon has repeatedly emphasized the norms and authority are shown to be arbitrary .Therefore, the concept of denaturalization is brought up in this regard .Consequently ,stream of consciousness as proposed by modernism can not be objectively rendered through ideological narratives.

Fragmentation reflects the anxious, schizophrenic situation of especially Gertrude in the play. It also reflects the way postmodernists regard life. They believe that mental fragmentation defies ideological narratives; even in modernism, individualism itself is made out of a dominant ideology which is deconstructively demystified through the postmodernist fragmented narratives.

The study has made an attempt to show the comparative and contrastive features of modernism and postmodernism, which co-exist in Shakespeare's everlasting tragedy.

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Two Voices in Portraying Higgins in *Pygmalion*

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Abstract—Seen as a play in the stage of transition, *Pygmalion* marks Shaw's returning from his "discussion plays" to his earlier writings of the popular romance in his anti-romantic Shavian treatment. Portraying Higgins both as a man of great tradition who is distinguished for his intellectual superiority and a big child who can never free himself from maternal ties, Bernard Shaw makes the play a romance in a sense that differs from the normal expectation of the genre as its subtitle suggests.

Index Terms—power of speech, two voices, man of tradition, childish willfulness, romance

Seen as a turning point in George Bernard Shaw's life and work (Bloom, 1987), *Pygmalion* occupies a special position in Bernard Shaw's plays, marking a transition and change in style, and a turning from his former "discussion plays" to the writing of the popular romance mingled with his anti-romantic Shavian treatment. How to understand Higgins, the title character Pygmalion in the work, has always been the focus of critics' interpretations. Following a traditional approach, critics like Michael Holrayd try to illustrate the meanings of the play by alluding to the author's own biographical experience and his relationship with women, especially his mother and Mrs. Patrick Campbell, the actress whom he loved. John A. Bertolini, however, intends to connect Shaw's plays with the playwright's obsessed feeling towards the great tradition of literature he had inherited. According to Bertolini, "Higgins is a figure of himself [Shaw] as a playwright trying to master his own derivativeness specifically from Shakespeare" (Bertolini, 1991, p.101). The famous critic Harold Bloom lays special emphasis on the importance of myth in *Pygmalion*—not only the myth of Shaw's "Pygmalion and Galatea, but also that of Adam and Eve" (Bloom, p.20). Another different opinion can be found in Tracy C. Davis, who sees Higgins's teaching of Eliza in *Pygmalion* as a kind of colonizing attempt at home and their relationship as one of "master and slave, and colonizer and colonized" (Davis, 1998, p.225). Of course, there are also some feminist critics like J. Ellen Gainor who explore the meaning of the play by examining Shaw's mother/son relation and his paternal voice in his plays.

As readers, we may find that what Shaw employs in portraying Higgins is a kind of double-voices. He makes this professor of phonetics both a man of the great tradition who is distinguished for his intellectual superiority, and at the same time a big child who can never free himself from maternal ties with women. And as many critics have noticed, the play fails the genre of romance, which has been mentioned as its subtitle, because no traditional romantic love story takes place after all in the end of the play. Nevertheless, the playwright's two voices in portraying Higgins make the play end in romance in another sense, which might be even more charming than the traditional one of marriage or happy union.

In the preface to *Pygmalion*, Shaw states that "The reformer England needs today is an energetic phonetic enthusiast: that is why I have made such a one the hero of a popular play" (Shaw, 1992, p.151). So the role that Shaw essentially sets for Higgins is one of the elite of the society, a man of the great tradition of science, language and poetry. The opening scene of the play has made this point quite clear: under the portico of St. Paul's Church, all the characters are peering out gloomily at the rain, only one man has his back turned to the rest and is "wholly preoccupied with a notebook in which he is writing busily" (Shaw, 1992, p.159)[1]. This note taker is Higgins. The notebook in his hand not only makes him coolly detached from the scene of triviality around him, but also makes people immediately associate him with the "copper's nark," the reporter of criminals and the legal voice of society. And a few minutes later, he does prove this superiority of authority identified with him by his unusual knowledge of the origins of all the people there: "I can place any man within six miles. I can place him within two miles in London. Sometimes within two streets" (p.168). Therefore, the fundamental role that Higgins plays in *Pygmalion* is a possessor of knowledge: as he himself proudly declares, it is "phonetics. The science of speech. Thats my profession: also my hobby," and "I do genuine scientific work in phonetics, and a little as a poet on Miltonic lines" (pp.167-9). With the words of "science" and "poet" spoken, Higgins defines an exclusive world belonging to the male tradition originated from Shakespeare and Milton, the great masters of the human speech, which makes humans human and superior to animals.

It is this power of speech that serves as Higgins's standard to measure his relationship with the people around him. When the play begins, Higgins and Pickering are totally strangers. But with the revelation of their common interest in language, one as the student in Indian dialects and the other as the author of Higgins's Universal Alphabet, they immediately recognize each other as intimate friends belonging to the same "Empire." And Higgins's house in Whimpole Street also becomes Pickering's where they two can do their join research together. Later, we find a similar story happening between Higgins and Eliza's father. When Higgins sees Dollittle at first sight, his tone of talking to him

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[1] Subsequent documentation of quotations from this play will be in-text notes with pages within parentheses.

is the same rude and bullying one as to Eliza. But he soon discovers that "this chap has a certain natural gift of rhetoric," a potential oral power that can make him to "choose between a seat in the Cabinet and a popular pulpit in Wales"(p.193). This discovery at once wins from the arrogant professor a modest respect to the dustman—which is shown in the offer of the ten pounds and the quite flattering line said by him: "Pickering: if we listen to this man another minute, we shall have no convictions left"(p.194).

If the power of speech is the thing that enables Higgins to recognize a fellowship with the two male figures, it is also the thing that lets him trample Eliza to dirt from the start. A funny scene in Act I is that while Higgins and Pickering are busy acclaiming a warm friendship, the flower girl keeps on pitying herself aside by murmuring, "let him mind his own business and leave a poor girl"(p.168). The ironic contrast between the two gentlemen's self-absorbed talk and the girl's nursing of her injury forms a highly comic scene, but what is more important here is that it also shows vividly the fact of the men's total neglect of Eliza's existence and a suggestion of her unworthiness of any notice. Actually, for her failure in a proper speech, Higgins not only rejects her right to share the same roof with him—ordering her to "cease this detestable boohooing instantly; or seek the shelter of some other place of worship"(p.168)—but also suggests an absence of the power of reason and a sound human soul in her. So, Higgins feels perfectly justified in treating her roughly as an inferior creature: "That's all you get out of Eliza. Ah-ah-ow-oo! No use explaining. As a military man you ought to know that. Give her orders: that's what she wants"(p.183). He even tells her that "A woman who utters such depressing and disgusting sounds has no right to be anywhere—no right to live. Remember that you are a human being with a soul and the devein gift of articulate: that your native language is the language of Shakespeare and Milton and The Bible…."(p.168)

This self-consciousness as a privileged inheritor of the divine human knowledge makes Higgins feel instinctively identified with the great tradition of "Milton and The Bible," and naturally assume the roles of a God-like figure in front of Eliza: as a teacher, a paternal father, a commander, and above all a Maker. Appearing as a note taker in the opening scene, Higgins seems to be God taking down the "crime" of the poor girl, her blasphemy against "the divine gift of articulate speech" given by Him. Ever since then, Higgins has been trying to silence her, ordering her to "shut up" or "cease this detestable boohooing instantly". After he decides to bet with Pickering, "in six months—in three if she has a good ear and a quick tongue—I'll take her anywhere and pass her off as anything", that is, to be a creator to give her a new life, he begins to assume the right as a strict father: "If I decide to teach you, I'll be worse than two fathers to you " (p.177). Significantly here, Higgins sees this work of teaching Eliza as one similar to that in the Bible, and his fascination with the prospect of teaching her lies chiefly in the great pleasure as a Maker. Actually the very value of Eliza in his eyes lies in her lowness and her humblest position of "dirt" which is the very material for the creation: this is why he exclaims excitedly that "Shes so deliciously low—so horribly dirty"(p.177). Later, he tells his mother that the whole experience of teaching Eliza has filled his life, and that "you have no idea how frightfully interesting it is to take a human being and change her into a quite different human being by creating a new speech for her"(p.212).

Regarding himself as a teacher and creator, Higgins naturally takes the privilege of dominance over Eliza as granted. As J. Ellen Gainor once said, in *Pygmalion,* Shaw "associates power to command (politically or socially) with language" (Gainor, 1991, p.217). Higgins believes that by giving Eliza knowledge, he has given her part of the life that naturally and exclusively belongs to men. So when he discovers her leaving his house after the embassy ball, his response is not an anxiety about her safety, but resentment at her ungratefulness and the inconvenience it brings to his life. As he tells his mother later, he immediately gives Eliza's name to the police, setting them after her as if "she is a thief, or a lost umbrella, or something" (p.228). In fact, Eliza might indeed stand as a "thief" in his eye: departing without telling hime, she has taken away some valuable property of his, i.e., his originality: "You will jolly soon see whether she has an idea that I havnt put into her heads or a word that I havnt put into her mouth" (p.236). Firmly convinced that it is he who has "created this thing out of the squashed cabbage leaves of Covent Garden" (p.236), he thinks that she has neither the right to arrange her own fate, nor the right to encourage Fred's love to her. The very idea of marrying her to such a useless chap as Fred is totally unbearable to Higgins. He is annoyed with the possible marriage between them not because he is concerned with her happiness, but because "I'm not going to have my masterpiece thrown away on Freddy." So, if she marries, as a masterpiece by him, she shall marry the Lord of a British Empire, "the Governor-General of India or the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland…or somebody who wants a deputy-queen"(p.247).

The interesting thing is that no matter how brilliant Eliza turns out to be and how dependent Higgins becomes on her in life, he never thinks of himself as a possible choice for the girl. The image that Shaw portrays of Higgins is a self-centered and self-absorbed man who shows no interest in any other things but those that can be studied as a scientific subject. In dealing with women, Higgins never allows himself emotionally involved: he is, as Eliza says, a cruel tyrant, a man with no feeling. To her protest, his response is "The question is not whether I treat you rudely, but whether you ever heard me treat anyone else better" (p.242). To him, the beautiful landscape he sees outside his mother's house was no better than "a frozen desert "; in the same way, the best looking women in the world are to him but "blocks of wood." Throughout the play, he never regards Eliza as a human being worthy of any respect or special interest; instead, he calls her a baggage and guttersnipe, and threatens to throw her out, wrap her in brown paper, wallop her and put her in the dustbin, and once even lays a rough hand on her. He never bothers about her feelings or personality: to him, she is either useful or of "no use." Even when she turns out to be "a genius" in his scientific field, she is still but a parrot in his eyes.

Finding that he can not live without her in the house, he is willing to invite her to join him and Pickering as "three old bachelors", to adopt her as his daughter, to settle some money on her, or arrange her to marry Pickering, but by no means would he marry her himself. In his world of male egoism no woman is allowed to intrude. The laboratory in the play seems to a reflection of Higgins's personality, in which woman is either an object of his scientific game or a housekeeper, but never a sharer of his real life like his male companion Pickering. So when his mother says that he has "spoiled that girl" in the end of the play, Higgins makes no protest, but "rattles his cash in his pocket; chuckles; and disports himself in a highly self-satisfied manner"(p.249)—because he knows perfectly well that he has never spoiled Eliza and that she is still the girl fetching his slippers while he, "jingling his money and his keys," will be forever the lord.

But in *Pygmalion,* while making Higgins a bullying voice of the male tradition, Shaw also portrays him as a big boy whose daily life depends wholly on the female figures, one who is careless and willful, and who stubbornly refuses to grow up. In Shaw's words, he is, "but for his years and size, rather like a very impetuous baby 'taking notice' eagerly and loudly, and requiring almost as much watching to keep him out of unintended mischief"(p.172). In the play, Higgins frequently swears and throws things around, just like a "boy" who can't behave himself and needs to be scolded now and then to be "nice". To Higgins and Pickering, the housekeeper Mrs Pearce is like a nurse and a mother. In Act II when Higgins leave his hat, overcoat and boots lying about in the living room and Pickering reminds him that Mrs Pearce might be annoyed the next morning, Higgins answers carelessly that she will "put them away all right. She will think we were drunk" (p.218). Actually, part of Eliza's attraction to him lies in that she is an extension of Mrs Higgins's role as a mother and Mrs Pearce's as a nurse: "shes useful," and she can find his things, remind him of his appointment and make his life pleasantly convenient.

Moreover, just as what Eliza calls him, a bully and a tyrant, Higgins impresses people with his childish willfulness. In Act II, Shaw writes, "to Higgins, the only distinction he makes between men and women is that when he is neither bullying nor exclaiming to the heavens against some featherweight cross, he coaxes women as a child coaxes its nurse when it wants to get anything out of her"(p.174). So, in the play, Higgins can intrude into his mother's at-home day, and imposes, in spite of her strong protest, his game of the "phonetic job" on her. And whenever he is scolded, he looks resentful and impatient and refuses to be "lessoned." In Act II, when Mrs Pearce urges him not swear, he denies at first the fact of "having ever uttered it," and then, when being cornered with evidence, he tries to escape into his male concept of superiority by saying that "Oh, that mere alliteration, Mrs Pearce, natural to a poet"(p.186). When finally the older lady goes further to urge him not to wipe his fingers on his dressing-gown, he loses all his patience to pretend to obey, and yells like an unreasonable child to her "Oh very well, very well: I'll wipe them in my hair in future"(p.187). Here we must admit that Higgins's willfulness partially comes from his mother's petting of him. In the play, Mrs Higgins is indeed quite a sensible woman, but she is never sensible enough to treat her middle-aged son as an adult. Although she seems to be fair to Eliza, she is still unhappy with the girl's refusal to buy the things as Higgins orders, so she says that "I'm afraid you've spoiled that girl, Henry. But never mind, dear: I'll buy you the tie and gloves"(p.249).

Nevertheless, Higgins's role as a child mainly results from his own choice, i.e., from his refusal to grow up in spite of his fascination with his male dominance in another respect. The fact is that audience may find two kinds of discourses used by Higgins in the play. For the most time, he speaks in the rhetoric identified with such masters as Shakespeare and Milton, and knows how to benefit himself and justify his irresponsible treatment of Eliza by using the concept and ideology in the tradition. But now and then, audience may notice that he would fall into the discourse of the child in talking. For example, in Act II, he tells Eliza that if she does not behave well, he will throw her out of the window, wallop her with a broomstick and put her in the dustbin. This style of speech betrays, of course, his paternal dominance over the girl, but the exaggerating tone in his speech also suggests the childish aspect in his character. In fact, to this big "boy," life is nothing but an interesting and absorbing experiment, a "game" that gives him great fun. In the scene of his seducing Eliza to stay in the room with a piece of chocolate and popping the half piece into her mouth in Act II, he is acting more like a boy treating a pet than an adult dealing with a fellow being. To Higgins, teaching the girl is a thrilling scientific work as well as an exciting game of betting. No matter how desperately Mrs Pearce and Mrs Higgins try to let him realize the destructive result the experiment might bring to the girl, he simply refuses to see anything in it. So it is no wonder that Mrs Higgins will call him "you silly boy," and him and Pickering "you two infinitely stupid male creatures"(p.212): picking up the girl like a pebble on the beach and throwing her out after the game, they two are indeed no better than a pair of senseless babies playing with a live doll.

But Higgins's resistance to grow up can best shown in his determination to be a bachelor. He enjoys playing the role as a male lord, but he does not like to take the responsibility as an adult. In Act II, when Mrs Pearce asks him what kind of dresses Eliza can use, Higgins becomes most impatient and then begins to complain to Pickering:

You know, Pickering, that woman has the most extraordinary ideas about me. Here I am, a shy, different sort of man. Ive never been able to feel really grown-up and tremendous, like other chaps. And yet shes firmly persuaded that I'm an arbitrary overbearing bossing kind of person (p.187).

Maybe this paragraph explains why Higgins can "never fall in love with anyone under forty-five" (p.201). As he declares that women upset everything, loving and marrying a young woman would mean, to him, an emotional demand which he can never spare—"I shall never get into the way of seriously liking young woman: some habits lie too deep to be changed" (p.201). His interest in Eliza lies only in her practical use to him, and he refuses to bother about any feeling

in that "business." So when Mrs Pearce reminds him of his responsibility for that girl afterwards, he firmly cleans off his own hands in it: "when Ive done with her, we can throw her back into the gutter"(p.181). And later, when Eliza complains of his coldness and asks for "a little kindness" from him, he declares proudly that by no means will he change himself: "If you cant stand the coldness of my sort of life, and the strain of it, go back to the gutter"(p.246). He is a man who has known too well the sweetness of being a willful child to give it up: under the shelter of being universally "frank" to everyone and under the excuse of the glorious coldness of "Science and Literature and Classical Music and philosophy and Art," he has found a good way to enjoy the benefit of being a male without being responsible for it. So he is willing to offer Eliza a paternal protection and an economic support, but by no means will he sacrifice his male emotion, not to mention a marriage. In this respect, his determination to be a bachelor is not so much a refusal to enter the symbolic stage of maturity as a decline to compromise his male egoism. His obsession to be a big child is nothing but another form of patriarchal pride. He does turn out to be exactly what Eliza says about him: "youve no feeling heart in you: you don't care for nothing but yourself," and "you are a motor bus: all bounce up and go, and no consideration for anyone"(p.242).

From the analysis above, people can see that Higgins has been made a double character by Shaw: spiritually a dominant giant, but emotionally and psychologically a spoilt child. And it is these double voices that lead the play to an ambiguous ending in the sense of marriage. As a big child, he asks Eliza back to his house; but as an unyielding man, he refuses to compromise his male egoism. So, although the final decision of returning to Higgins or not seems lying in the hands of Eliza's choice, nevertheless, she has no real choices. On the one hand, Eliza condemns Higgins of being unkind to her and declares her independence by saying that she will rebel him by marrying Fred and become a creator herself by making something out of the young man. But on the other hand, Eliza's words demonstrate that she knows too well that she has no way to attach any extraordinary hope to be an intellectual equal to Higgins. Even when she declares that she will advertise and be a teacher herself, she is perfectly aware of the intruding nature of her action and her situation as "a child" who has "forgotten her own language" and lost her way in "his" country. As she tells Higgins:

I know I'm a common ignorant girl, and you a book-learned gentleman; but I'm not dirt under your feet. What I done (*correcting herself*) what I did was not for the dresses and the taxis: I did it because we were pleasant together and I com—came—to care for you... (p.246)

From this paragraph, we can see that although she insists on his respect for her, she is unconsciously playing the role of his pupil by frequently correcting her grammar mistakes. Higgins knows this well too: "Let her go. Let her find out how she can get on without us. She will relapse into the gutter in three weeks without me at her elbow" (p.238). Listening to their dialogue, audience may feel that her resentment against Higgins's coldness does not originate from a real rebellion, but a secret and hopeless desire of love that might even unknown to herself.

The sequel, arranging a marriage between Eliza and Fred, seems giving a final word to the whole unclear situation and Higgins's character who proves to be an unyielding man after all. But in fact, the double voices are still there, which eventually turn the play into a "romance" in another sense. In the sequel, readers find that Eliza does marry Fred after her "own" choice, but she does it only to find herself in an even more embarrassing state: now the couple has to make a living solely by relying on Pickering's financial aid and Higgins's intellectual support. And readers also find that Higgins assumes once again his former roles as a teacher as well as a big child. Just like in the former experience of teaching Eliza to speak, now he is found throwing himself into the task of teaching her to write with the same stormy intensity and concentrated patience. In return, he has the chance to be near to the "voice and appearance" he has grown accustomed to, because it "is astonishing how much Eliza still manages to meddle in the housekeeping at Wimpole Street in spite of the shop and her own family" (p.261).

Critics like J. L. Wisenthal point out Shaw's counterpoint use of the genre of romance because "the marriage between Higgins and Eliza, which the genre calls, has failed to occur" (Wisenthal, 1991, p.162). But in fact, in spite of the failure of a marriage between the two protagonists, the play still turns out to be a romance, not in the ordinary sense of marriage, but in the two emotional lives that Higgins's double characters arouse in Eliza. This mood has been subtly suggested in the end of the play, and is shown explicitly in the sequel. In the sequel, the unique relationship between Higgins and Eliza is finally made clear: in the everyday life of the "business," Higgins is still a spoiled child, who willfully "storms and bullies and derides"(p.262), and the man whom Eliza dislikes and stands up to ruthlessly; but, in the more private world of her imagination, he is the man whom she loves and whose "indifference" represents all the manly qualities she admires. As Shaw writes, while Eliza nags Higgins on the faintest provocation," at the same time, "She has a sense, too, that his indifference is deeper than the infatuation of commoner souls. She is immensely interested in him. She has even secret mischievous moments in which she wishes she could get him alone, on a desert island...." (p.262) Here Higgins's "indifference" that infatuates Eliza is the aspect that makes him a man of the paternal intelligence and the perpetual lord that she worships and loves in her fantasy world. It is in this respect that *Pygmalion* comes out eventually another romance.

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Speech Act of Correction: The Way Iranian EFL Learners Correct their Teachers

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Abstract—**The major aim of this study was to explore how Iranian EFL learners correct their teachers when they make mistakes in class. A sample of 180 English learners from different language institutes took part in this research and completed a questionnaire which proposed a situation in which a teacher makes a mistake and the learners' reaction is investigated. Based on the frequency or percentage of the options selected by the participants, it was confirmed that age, gender and level of proficiency do not have any profound effect on teacher correction, i.e. no matter what the gender, age or proficiency level is, Iranian EFL learners tend to be implicit in their reactions to teachers' mistakes and prefer to remove a harsh tone by adding a softener. Moreover, the results obtained from Iranian EFL learners were compared to those of Americans and Japanese and it was confirmed that their corrective behavior is similar.**

Index Terms—**corrective feedback, speech act, teacher correction, cross-cultural comparison**

I. Introduction

One of the salient objectives in ELT classrooms is to enable learners to communicate in the target language. This aim is not fully achieved unless the sociocultural context of the second language is also taken into consideration, because learning isolated words and phrases will never serve the communicative purpose (Cohen, 1996).

A major field of discourse which has been applied to second language acquisition is 'speech acts'. Since learners are obliged to utilize speech acts in nearly all interactions, they must be taught not only how to produce but also how to interpret and comprehend a speech act utterance; if not, they may know well what someone says, but not be able to understand it (Johnstone, 2008). However, performance of speech acts, frequency of their use and strategies applied for realizing them all vary greatly among different cultures; so, both sociolinguistic and sociocultural ability of learners must be given heed to by EFL/ ESL teachers in language classrooms to foster communication. One of the speech acts which requires to be investigated and has been left somehow untouched is 'the speech act of correction'.

Therefore, in this study we are about to explore how Iranian EFL learners correct teachers if they make a mistake and whether they differ in their speech acts if their age, gender, proficiency level or culture change.

II. Theoretical Framework

As James (1980) states, the teacher's role is to monitor and assess learners' performance to know why errors are committed and then to provide corrective feedback- that is responses to learners' produced utterances which "repair" or "call attention" to their errors (Brown, 2007, p. 379). As brown argues, for the corrective feedback to be efficacious, it must be 'optimal' i.e. when there are too many corrections, learners may make no more attempts to communicate, and when there are very few corrections, it may lead to fossilization. Therefore, in order to make the best out of correction, Vigil and Oller (1976), offered a model known as 'Communicative Feedback Model' which helps teachers in approaching learners' errors in language classrooms.

Learners consider correction as a source of improvement (Chaudron, 1988), but it is the teacher who determines what is the best type of correction, when is the most proper time for that, and whether to correct or not. There are different types of correction (Brown, 2007; Celce-Murcia, 2001):

a) Explicit/ Direct: When the teacher indicates an error and supplies the correct form (Brown, 2007);

b) Implicit/ Indirect: When the teacher points out the problem and asks the learner to correct it if possible (Richards & Schmidt, 2002);

c) Self-correction: It helps learners in "pushing their output in the direction of improved accuracy" (Swain, 1985, as cited in Celce-Murcia 2001, p. 274);

d) Peer-correction: When other learners cannot understand or when they see someone 'gets stuck' (Paulston & Bruder, 1976);

e) Recast: When the teacher repeats learners' ill-formed utterance with a minute change in form (Brown, 2007);

f) Clarification request: When the learner is asked to repeat or reformulate (Brown, 2007);

g) Metalinguistic feedback: When the teacher gives comments and information or asks questions (Brown, 2007);

h) Elicitation: When the teacher gives a prompt to help learners self-correct (Brown, 2007);

i) Repetition: When the teacher repeats what the learner had said with a change in intonation (Brown, 2007).

Whatever the type of correction will be, students will respond in different ways; their reaction to the received feedback from teachers is called 'uptake' (Richards & Schmidt 2002). As Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.49) put it, uptake is "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance". Therefore, when a learner produces an erroneous utterance, the teacher provides feedback and the learner responds to it; this may also be applicable to teachers being corrected by learners.

Besides copious research done on speech acts in English, there are various cross-cultural studies which aimed at comparing and contrasting English speech acts with those of other languages such as Persian, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, and Turkish. Speech acts such as request (e.g. Kılıçkaya 2010, Jalilifar 2009), compliment (e.g. Grossi 2009, Tang & Zhang 2008), apology (e.g. Shariati & Chamani 2009, Afghari 2007), refusal (e.g. Chang 2008, Ken, Lin & Tseng 2006), complaint (e.g. Young 2008, Umar 2006) and disagreement (e.g. Guodong & Jing 2005) have been dealt with so far.

To know how teachers treat learners' errors is of paramount importance. Piles of studies are available which investigate teachers' corrective feedback either to find a relationship between learners' errors and teachers' response or to pinpoint a correlation between error correction and accuracy, motivation or acquisition. For instance, observing patterns of error treatment in ESL classrooms, Panova and Lyster (2002) tried to find a relationship between feedback type and learners' response. Many researchers highlighted the type of correction favored by teachers and learners and concluded that teachers prefer indirect correction (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001). Some other studies examined correction in writing such as Vickers and Ene (2006) who concluded that self-correction is the best in writing since it leads to greater grammatical accuracy.

In nearly all studies on correction or corrective feedback, it is brought into focus that error correction has a social dimension, which means any criticism or praise will both be public (Allwright, 2005). Therefore, according to Szextay (2004), teachers need to think deeply when they correct a learner in order not to make them feel "absolutely stupid" and to "maintain rapport".

All the mentioned points depend on the speech act of correction used by teachers when correcting a learner or vice versa. However, to our knowledge, only one study was done to analyze the speech act of correction in depth, more significantly to compare it with correction in another culture and focus on *learner correction* as well. Takahashi and Beebe (1993) examined American and Japanese performance of the speech act of correction with unequal power status. They studied the use of positive remarks and softeners to make each speech act less face-threatening and to make communication smoother. In fact, they were about to observe the effect of power and distance of addresses on subjects' choice of expression, and to compare them in two different languages.

Before dealing with the methodology they adopted and the results they obtained, it is necessary to define some key terms used in their research. They clarified the distinction between *softeners* and *positive remarks* which seems to be blurred.

As Takahashi and Beebe (1993, p. 144) state, positive remarks include praise, compliments and positive evaluation; grammatically speaking, a positive remark is "a preceding adjunct which is phrasal and separate from the main body". (e.g. It was a good presentation, but …)

Softeners, on the other hand, are "down-toning devices integrated in the main body of speech acts". In fact, softening devices are categorized into three groups (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993, p. 142):

1) *Softeners* (e.g. I believe, I think, You may have …)

2) *Questions* (e.g. Did you say …?)

3) *Expressions to lighten the gravity of the mistake or to defend the interlocutor* (e.g. You made one small error in …).

Takahashi and Beebe (1993) selected two different power relations, higher to lower and lower to higher and through discourse completion tasks, compared American and Japanese in these two situations. They concluded that in the first situation (higher to lower status), 64% of Americans speaking English preferred correction with at least one positive remark. e.g. That was very good, but I believe …

English speaking Japanese never prefaced their responses with positive remarks except 23% who used something resembling them. e.g. Your idea is fine, but I think the …

Japanese using Japanese used even fewer positive remarks. e.g. Wait a second, the date is incorrect …

Therefore, they concluded that the three groups are arranged as follows:

AE> JE> JJ

AE: Americans using English

JE: Japanese using English

JJ: Japanese using Japanese

They claimed that the Japanese use less positive remarks because it is verbal and they show no interest in verbal expressions by nature. The tone also varied between them; the Japanese used an authoritative tone and more directives.

In the second situation (lower to higher status), however, the results were totally reversed:

JJ> JE> AE

Takahashi and Beebe (1993) concluded that: first, the Japanese who use English transfer some style shifting patterns from their L1. Second, using a positive remark when correcting someone of lower status is an American pattern and the Japanese rarely use it.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As it was mentioned, it seems that a great deal of research has been carried out in other realms of speech acts including refusals, requests, apologies, compliments, complaints etc. However, the speech act of *correction* had remained somehow untouched, excluding merely one research done by Takahashi and Beebe (1993).

Moreover, there are plenty of studies (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002; Vickers & Ene, 2006) which studied the issue of corrective feedback, all focusing on types, time and methods of correction, or the relationship between correction and learners' performance in the four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening). However, none of these studies highlighted the *speech act* through which a teacher or a learner corrects and whether it makes any changes if they add softeners and positive remarks or not.

Therefore, paucity of research in this realm makes this particular study significant with the chief purpose of delving into ELT classrooms to discern how EFL learners correct their teachers, whether the speech act of correction differs when changing the power status changes, whether males and females apply the same speech acts for correction and to compare Iranians' performance with that of Americans and the Japanese to figure out sociocultural differences if there are any.

IV. METHOD

A. Setting and Participants

A community sample of 180 EFL learners participated in this study, comprising 90 males and 90 females aged between 15 and 45 i.e. 90 teenagers and 90 adults. They were all EFL learners studying in language institutes in Mashhad, a city in Iran with different social economic backgrounds.

In this study, age, gender, proficiency level and culture are the four variables whose effects were to be observed. First, to determine the role of proficiency level in the speech act of correction, the sample comprised EFL learners of three different levels- starter, intermediate and advanced. Second, the present study seeks to figure out whether age plays any crucial role in the corrective behavior or not; so among the participants 90 are adults and 90 are teenagers. Third, a salient point to be investigated in this research is the role of gender in the use of speech act of correction; hence, the participants are 90 males and 90 females. At the end, how culture makes differences in the speech act of correction is momentous to the researchers. However, since there is no access to participants of a different culture, the results are compared to those of Takahashi and Beebe (1993) as to compare and contrast Iranian, American and Japanese learners.

B. Instrumentation

As Cohen (1996) believes, one of the straightforward methods for gathering data on speech acts is through discourse completion questionnaires which will gather a lot of data at full pelt.

Participants in this study were required to complete a questionnaire which was designed based on the guidelines provided by Takahashi and Beebe (1993) and personal teaching experiences. There is a situation where a mistake is made by the teacher and the participants must pen how they would respond to it. Six options ranging from implicit to explicit were provided to aid the participants, and a space to write their opinions if it they were not included (See Appendix).

The content validity of this questionnaire was substantiated through a pilot study in which 60 EFL learners took part. On the recommendations of an expert in this field and based on the feedback received from participants, questions were revised and ambiguities were removed.

C. Procedure

The process of data collection started in October (2010), beginning of a new semester in language institutes, and ended in December (2010) after 3 months. The designed questionnaire was distributed among 180 EFL learners in different language institutes. Their classes were interrupted for 5 minutes by kind permission of their teachers; some instructions and needed guidance were provided by the researchers before responding. Then the participants had about 3 minutes to read the situation and options and to decide on their responses. The questionnaires were collected afterwards to be analyzed.

The options selected by the respondents were transformed into tables displaying the frequency and percentage of each, and the tables were analyzed qualitatively through comparing and contrasting the options. Three tables were

compiled, each focusing on one of the variables under study. The participants of each group – males and females, adults and teenagers, starter, intermediate and advanced learners – were compared and the results were discussed.

At the end, Iranians' performance was compared to that of Americans and Japanese to figure out whether sociocultural differences bring about variations in the speech act of correction.

V. RESULTS

In situation 1, learners are asked to pen what they would say if a teacher makes a mistake in answering a question. Considering the participants, there are three different variables to be examined (gender, age, proficiency level) and in this situation, six options to be checked off. The options contain both implicit and explicit answers and for the first part of the analysis, we are to demonstrate whether females' and males' teacher-correction differs, and if it does what the differences are. Which group tends to correct more explicitly/implicitly is to be investigated here.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ANSWERS TO EACH OPTION CONSIDERING GENDER

Variables / Options	A		B		C		D		E		F	
male	7	3.8%	22	12.2%	11	6.1%	0	0%	43	23.8%	14	7.7%
female	4	2.2%	31	17.2%	15	8.3%	3	1.6%	33	18.3%	16	8.8%

As it is indicated in Table 1, most of males (23.8%) and females (18.3%) preferred option 'E':
I think the answer is (c), am I wrong?
This option seems not only to be implicit but also contains 'softeners' or 'down-toning devices' such as "I think" (Takahashi & Beep, 1993, p. 142). Hence, we can infer that both male and female EFL learners prefer to correct implicitly and at the same time they tend to remove a harsh tone through the application of hedges.

The second most favored option is 'B'; 12.2% of males and 17.2% of females selected this option which is again an indirect reply and just casts doubt on the provided answer, but does not propose any answer:
Are you sure (b) is correct?
The least number of participants opted for options 'A' and 'D'. Among males merely 3.8% selected option A and no one checked off option D; among females 2.2% opted for A and 1.6% for D. That being the case, 3.8% of males and 2.2% of females tended not to correct at all. And interestingly, no males and 1.6% of females (the least percentage) went for 'D' which seemingly taunts the teacher with his/her failure:
You mean (c), don't you?
According to Table 1, there is no meaningful relationship between gender and teacher correction; both males and females were of the same opinion in responding to the situation, though the frequencies of responses differ. Therefore, the results are summarized as follow:

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ANSWERS TO EACH OPTION CONSIDERING AGE

Males	E >B >F >C >A >D
Females	E >B >F >C >A >D

Variable / Options	A		B		C		D		E		F	
adult	2	1.1%	13	7.2%	9	5%	2	1.1%	25	13.8%	7	3.8%
teenager	3	1.6%	23	12.7%	5	2.7%	0	0%	22	12.2%	7	3.8%

Since the second variable under study is age, we were to examine whether or not it played any crucial role in the way learners correct teachers. As demonstrated in Table 2, option 'E' is again selected by most of the participants (13.8% adults and 12.2% teenagers). It is concluded that no matter what the gender or age is, Iranian EFL learners tend to be implicit in their reactions to teachers' mistakes and prefer to add a softener as well.

The percentage of teenagers opting for options 'B' and 'E' is almost the same though there is merely a minute difference ('B': 12.7% and 'E': 12.2%). Therefore, there is no clear-cut distinction between adults and teenagers in selecting 'E' and 'B'. However, the next favored option by adults is 'C':
Isn't it (c)?
This seems to be the most straight-forward reaction which is not prefaced with any kind of softeners; 5% of adults preferred this option which is almost double the percentage achieved by teenagers, 2.7%. Hence, it is inferred that comparing adults and teenagers, adults seem to react in a more forthright manner.

Option 'F' is selected by exactly the same number of adults and teenagers (3.8%) though considering rank, it is the fourth for adults and the third for teenagers:
I'd go to the teacher after the class and say: why wasn't part (c) correct?
An issue similar to 'delayed correction' is involved here. However, when teachers apply later correction, they are to prevent interruption caused by correction, so when the focus is on fluency, they prefer delayed correction. In this

situation, learners are about to correct teachers and those who select this option are the ones who have at least the intention of correction but postpone it to a later time after the class.

Among adults, the same number of participants opted for options 'A' and 'D' (1.1%), while in teenagers 1.6% selected 'A' and no one checked off option 'D'. That being the case, 1.1% of adults and 1.6% of teenagers tend not to correct at all. And interestingly no teenagers and 1.1% of adults (the least percentage) go for 'D' which taunts the teacher.

The summary of the results obtained thorough Table 2 is provided below.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ANSWERS TO EACH OPTION CONSIDERING LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY

Adults	**E** >B >C >F >A / D
Teenagers	**B** >E >F >C >A >D

Variable Options	A		B		C		D		E		F	
starter	2	1.1%	16	8.8%	9	5%	2	1.1%	31	17.2%	10	5.5%
intermediate	3	1.6%	23	12.7%	5	2.7%	0	0%	22	12.2%	7	3.8%
advanced	6	3.3%	14	7.7%	12	6.6%	1	0.5%	23	12.7%	13	7.2%

Casting a look at Table 3, we deduce that again almost the highest frequency in each level belongs to option 'E' (17.2 % starter, 12.2 % intermediate, 12.7% advanced). No matter what the *gender*, *age* or *proficiency level* is, Iranian EFL learners tend to be implicit in their reactions to teachers' mistakes and prefer to remove a harsh tone by adding a softener. Overall, the three null hypotheses are confirmed.

Moreover, the second favored option is similarly 'B' in all three levels except among intermediate learners who selected 'B' slightly more than 'E' which is not a noteworthy distinction (12.7% 'E', 12.2% 'B').

The third selected option with high frequency is 'F' in all levels (5.5 % starter, 3.8 % intermediate, 7.2 % advanced). This indicates that at any proficiency level, learners mostly prefer to be indirect at the first onset (option E), or to cast doubt on the provided answer in an implicit way (option B), and if not, they are inclined to postpone the correction to a later time (option F).

The rest of the options are in the same sequence as before and therefore the same discussion is applicable. Here are the summary of the results considering the proficiency level of learners:

Starter	**E** >B >F >C >A / D
Intermediate	**B** >E >F >C >A >D
Advanced	**E** >B >F >C >A >D

VI. DISCUSSION

Based on the analysis of the data, age, gender and proficiency level do not have any profound effect on teacher correction, i.e. no matter what the *gender*, *age* or *proficiency level* is, Iranian EFL learners tend to be implicit in their reactions to teachers' mistakes and prefer to remove a harsh tone by adding a softener. Besides being indirect, most learners prefer to add hedges such as 'I think' to their responses, and they very rarely taunt the teacher with his/her failure.

The obtained results are greatly dependent on the educational context in which learners are acquiring English. In Iran, there is a depersonalized and formal relationship between teachers and students, for instance, learners are seldom called by their first names especially at the school and university, and they almost never call the teacher by first name either. The teacher has a formal dominant role in class and as a result, the power status plays a crucial role in every aspect. Moreover, due to the existence of religious views, teachers' job in Iran is considered equal to that of prophets, and therefore teachers are considered to be very scared and highly respected. Overall, there may sometimes be a friendly relationship between a teacher and a learner, though it is often a formal and distant one.

The results of the current study confirm those of Takahashi and Beeb (1993). They studied the speech act of correction among three groups of participants and concluded that all three groups of participants preferred to preface their responses with softeners and hedges, though the percentage of the used softeners differs among them: JJ >JE >AE (Takahashi & Beeb, 1993). Hence, Iranian EFL learners, Americans using English, Japanese using English and Japanese using Japanese are the same in correcting teachers: they all prefer to add softeners when they correct, demonstrating that there is a universal trend among English learners. There exist some differences as well, for instance, from 180 participants of our study, merely 11 participants (6.1%) preferred not to correct the teacher; however, 40% of JJ, 20% of JE and 13% of AE opted out in that study (Takahashi & Beeb, 1993).

The results of this study suggest several implications; first, it will bring about consciousness raising of teachers by making them aware of teacher correction and will also let them know that there might be cross-cultural differences of correcting teachers. Second, this study examined whether sociocultural differences affect the speech act of correction or

not. Hence, it will be of great importance to cross-cultural studies which aim to compare different cultures and figure out the sources of cross-cultural miscommunication or failure. Moreover, materials developers can benefit from the findings of the current research. A multitude of books are published on the subject of correction every now and then, each devoting a whole chapter to correction, mentioning which errors to correct and which ones to ignore, but never focusing on learner correction.

Considering the interlocutors, there are three types of correction which can be done by learners: *teacher correction*, *peer correction* and *self correction*. In this research, we examined the first type among Iranian EFL learners and compared them with other groups. More studies are needed to investigate learners' reactions in other two situations as well.

APPENDIX

Female ○   age ………
Male   ○   Level ……...

What would you do/say in this situation?

You are a student in an English class. Your teacher makes a mistake in answering a question related to a reading text; instead of (c) he/she says (b).

A) I would probably say nothing. □
B) Are you sure (b) is correct? □
C) Isn't it (c)? □
D) You mean (c), don't you? □
E) I think the answer is (c), am I wrong? □
F) I'd go to the teacher after the class and say: *why wasn't part (c) correct?* □

Something else: …………………………………………………………………………………………………….

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Analysis of Complimenting in L1 vs. L2 Written Discourse: A Case Study of Iranian Students Writing Review Letters

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Abstract—The present study was carried out to compare and contrast complimenting as used in L1 (Farsi) and L2 (English) writings of Iranian students in a foreign language learning context. For the purpose, sixty five university senior students majoring in English and taking the specialized course called "essay writing" were selected for the study. First, they were instructed how to write review letters on their classmates' essays in both L1 and L2 and then their letters were analyzed on the basis of the framework provided by Johnson and Roen (1992), and Chafe and Danielwicz (1987). The results indicated that Iranian students (female and male) did not make significantly different uses of L1 and L2 complimenting in terms of form and strategies. Also, the gender of the addressees was not accommodated to by the addressors differently as regards the use of form and strategies of complimenting in L1 and L2. The results suggest that L1 and L2, if used under some formal class based conditions, tend to become maximally similar, showing no transfer of L1 potentiality into L2.

Index Terms—L1, L2 learning politeness, complimenting, face threatening act, written discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

While Iranians naturally acquire Farsi as their L1, they learn English (L2) as a foreign language, having no social function as such. Learning a language in the classroom is almost largely considered to be different from naturalistic learning. The two kinds of learning diverge on psycholinguistic, educational, and sociolinguistic grounds. The difference largely relates to the presence of L1 knowledge. In other words, adults learning L2 seem to carry over their L1, say, pragmatic patterns to L2 environment. In this line, some studies in Iran (Yeganeh, 1996; Shams, 1997; Yarmohammadi, 1995) have shown male and female divergences in the use of L1 (Farsi) complimenting. Salmani-Nodoushan (2007) has also demonstrated that conversational strategies used in Persian are sex dependent. This study is thus an attempt to reveal whether Iranian male and female students of English language also function differently in L1 and L2 context. This will cast light over the role L1 can have in learning another language especially in a context where L2 is just formally taught and learned and has no social function. To make it clear more, we may maintain that this study can illuminate the competing roles these two variables, i. e., L1 and classroom context, can play in learning a foreign language as regards the use of complimenting as a pragmatic issue.

II. BACKGROUND

As communication subsumes a lot more than culturally neutral information, there is a need to raise L2 learners' consciousness in characteristically distinct features of two languages. One important interface of L1-L2 is the use of politeness strategies. Brown and Levinson's (1989) sociolinguistic theory of politeness incorporates all that is referred to as mutual respect. In Brown and Levinson's term, paying a compliment is a positive politeness strategy that addresses the hearer's positive face. Having borrowed "face", they define it as something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction. Wierzbicka (1991) defines politeness, as a person's effort to respect other's right, autonomy and privacy. Politeness strategies, according to her, are context-specific and may vary drastically from one culture to another. The significance of this aspect of language renders it essential to be studied further.

In regard to the learners of a second language, Kasper (1992) asserts that learners' pragmatic knowledge of native language and culture can exert influence on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information. Farerch and Kasper (1984) view pragmatic knowledge as a part of language user's communicative competence to perform and understand intentionality under contextual and discoursal constraints. Pragmatic knowledge of L1 influencing L2 performance can be diverse (Odlin, 2003) and under certain conditions where there is little interlingual convergence can cause misinterpretations and misunderstanding (Bu, 2010). Among the pragmatic knowledge studied, complimenting is believed to be one particular case which is characteristically distinct across different cultures. This is to verify the fact that learning a language is a lot more than form which involves special pragmatic features playing a crucial role in communication (Hymes, 1974; Labov, 1970).

More specifically, complimenting as a politeness strategy is defined by Holmes (1988) as '... a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for something good (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and hearer (p. 446)'.

A good number of studies have so far attempted to clarify the structural and functional nature of the phenomenon 'complimenting' (Johnson & Roen, 1992; Iwai & Rinnert, 2002; Mojica, 2002; Huth, 2006; Karimnia & Afgari, 2010). Some of these studies which have focused on foreign language learning (e.g., Huth, 2006; Bu, 2010; Karimnia & Afgari, 2010) have documented that L2 learners often go their own way and display L1 dependent orientations. Despite a good number of studies around, it seems that they have not been able to reach consensus as to the nature of complimenting.

Complimenting is used both in spoken and written modes. These two modes, however, differ on some grounds, e.g., in the manners of production and the forms of the two modes. Though spoken mode is usually given the priority in language learning, the written mode also enjoys a special position among educated people. And since writing manifests one's particular personality, and leaves recorded signs, it is believed to be highly important among academics. Thus, this study aims to probe into complimenting in written mode. Different genres of written mode abound. But one, which best serves the purpose here is letter genre. Chafe and Danielwicz (1987) consider this genre 'as the continuum between conversational, spoken language, and highly formal, academic written language (p. 7)'. The rhetorical situation in composing a letter shares certain characteristics with conversational situations such as real, known, directly addressed audience with whom the writer interacts on a regular basis. It also shares characteristics with more formal academic writing situations such as serious topics for an academic purpose, time to deliberate and to select a more varied and adequate vocabulary and complex structures. Thus, letter genre seems appropriate for the purpose. However, what distinguishes this study from other studies is the particular role "instruction" can play in learning a foreign language in general and sociolinguistic patterns in particular. In relation to instruction three positions can be reviewed. The first position believes that formal instruction may affect the learner's knowledge of only some aspects of language (Felix, 1981; Krashen, 1982). Some other aspects are believed not to come under the influence of instruction. The second position claims that instruction can help with the achievement of proficiency (e.g., Celce-Murcia, 1992), correcting errors and focusing on specific aspects of language and only with early stages of language acquisition (Higgs & Clifford, 1982). The third group finds instruction essential in the process of second language acquisition. They think instruction can help speed up the rate of acquisition and the development of variational features of L2, which lead to acquisition (Ellis, 1990). As shown in the above positions, almost all studies so far available have dealt with non-pragmatic aspects of L2. Since the pragmatic side is associated with the notion of appropriacy for interpersonal communication, it is necessary to direct some studies in this way to unfold the functioning mechanisms involved. Moreover, as L1 is learned naturally and L2 just in the classroom, the study can elucidate the interaction between the two.

Complimenting as one pragmatic feature plays an important role in the establishment of rapport between people, in particular of different cultures. And as Iranian learners of English language learn their L2 in the classroom with no native speakers' interaction and also only by Iranian teachers, this study attempts to cast light over the way they would incorporate this important sociolinguistic feature in their language. Therefore, the study seeks to explore:

1. if Iranian learners of English (male and female) organize their L1 and L2 differently in terms of form and strategies of complimenting; and

2. if Iranian English learners realize their L1 and L2 differently with different audiences (male and female)?

III. METHOD

A. Subjects

The subjects of this study comprised 65 male/female university senior students selected from among 86 students. In order to keep the students' L2 proficiency level constant so that it would not affect their performances on the letters, they were given a TOEFL test. Then the letters written by those students whose test scores were not at the extreme ends of the score continuum were selected for the study. Each subject under this study had a score within the range of one SD above and below the mean score. The mean score and the SD for the TOEFL test were 45.35 and 12.5, respectively (out of 100). Thus, 65 subjects out of 86, whose L2 scores were within the range of 32.84-57.83, were selected. The subjects were all majoring in English at Kashan University, Iran, and they were taking "essay-writing" as one of the required courses for completing their studies for BA in TEFL. They had already taken some skill courses in reading, writing, grammar, and oral skills as well as some content courses in linguistics, language teaching, and English literature during a period of about three and a half years. All the subjects were native speakers of Farsi.

B. Data Collection

The data came from a setting where the activities were taken to be part and parcel of the classroom and the requirement of the course. The students were required to write an English essay on a topic every week. The teacher corrected and commented on the papers. After midterm they were required to read their classmates' papers and write an English letter to the writer of the essay, commenting on the essay. Before embarking on the main job, the teacher gave them a sample letter. The sample letter included all necessary steps to be taken in writing the review letters. To do the task, the students' essays were randomly distributed among class members. Then, they were guided to read their peer's papers, evaluate them, write comments on the papers, and finally write an English letter to their partners (on the basis of

Roen & Johnson's model, 1992). One week after the English letters had been written, they were required to write a Farsi letter to the same partners. They were asked to do two things in their letters: (1) explain what they liked about the paper; and (2) suggest ways that the essays could be improved. They were also asked to take the following points into account while writing the letter: to write about (1) the paper under review (the product); (2) the writer of the paper (the addressor); (3) the acts undertaken in writing the paper (the process); (4) the impact of the paper on the reader (the rhetorical effect). The official teacher of the class undertook the responsibility and implemented the plan. The researcher had no intervening role in this respect. To avoid 'observer's paradox (Labov, 1970) and to obtain objective data without injecting self into the data which may confound the results, the teacher stayed out of the students' sight.

C. Data Analysis

The subjects' review letters (both L1 and L2) were analysed based on the model provided by Johnson and Roen (1992), and Chafe and Danielwicz (1987). The classification of elements for the analysis is as follows:

1. Form of compliment: positive evaluative terms (P.E.T.): This part included all those terms which attribute some credit to an addressee, e.g., your first paragraph sounds *"interesting"*.

2. Discourse strategies: In this part, discourse strategies are particularly the complimenting strategies used to build up the whole text. They are classified as follows: (1) compliments redressing specific criticisms and suggestions; this strategy involves pairing a compliment (CL) with a specific face-threatening act (FTA) to soften the force of FTA, e.g., *your opinions are good; however, you need to elaborate more.* (2) Compliments redressing global FTA; this strategy involves the establishment of rapport with the addressee by the use of opening or closing positive politeness strategies, e. g., (*opening the letter) I would like to tell you that I enjoyed your letter.* (3) Framing strategies; this is the opening and closing discourse strategies (politeness strategies) taken together. In this case, a letter opening with positive comments followed by a global FTA, and ending with positive comments is said to have a framing strategy (CL➔Global FTA➔CL).

The letters were thus analyzed for the above mentioned categories and their frequencies were determined for further evaluation.

IV. RESULTS

On the basis of the above-mentioned classification adopted from Johnson and Roen (1992) and Chafe and Danielwicz (1987), the data were extracted and then subjected to different statistical operations, including the calculation of means and mean ranks, comparison of mean ranks, comparison of frequencies (x^2) and calculation of the degree of variation (SD) of each category among male and female subjects.

A. Analysis of Form of Compliments

The analysis involved counting up the number of positive evaluative terms (P.E.T) used by every writer within his/her text both in L1 and L2. This measure is more sensitive than using the syntactic criteria because it gets more directly at the positive evaluation that is at the heart of complimenting (Johnson & Roen, 1992). Table 1. Displays that women used a mean rank of 35.01 evaluative terms per text in L2 and 36.02 in L1, and men used a mean rank of 30.65 and 32.07, respectively in L2 and L1. Although the mean and mean rank of positive evaluative terms used by women is slightly more in both languages, the statistical analysis revealed no significant difference between male and female subjects as addressors across the two languages. Also, both women and men used more evaluative terms in their L1, but they are not statistically different from their L2. The only important point is that women have shown more variations in their use of such terms, with the case being more salient in L1 (SD=2.06)

TABLE I.
MEAN FREQUENCY AND MEAN RANK OF PET AS USED BY THE GENDER OF WRITER

Writer	N	L2 Mean	L2 SD	L1 Mean	L1 SD	L2 Mean Rank	L1 Mean Rank
Female	35	3.97	1.44	4.02	2.06	35.01	36.02
Male	30	3.56	1.19	3.7	1.7	30.65	32.07
L2 P: 0.3404 P< .05							
L1 P: 0.45							
L2 & L1 P: 0.38							

There was also an interest in how the writers varied their language use for different audiences. As shown in table 2, female subjects writing to their own sexes used most P.E.T in both languages though to a slightly more degree in L2. In the same way, male subjects, though a bit less than female, used more evaluative terms when writing to their own sexes. Also, the addressees received more evaluative terms when addressed by their own sex. It must be noted in total this was used more in L2. However, the differences among the four mean ranks both in L1 and L2 and for the two together were not significant.

TABLE II.
MEAN FREQUENCY AND MEAN RANK OF PET AS ADDRESSED TO DIFFERENT ADDRESSEES

Writer/Addressee	N	L2 Mean	L2 SD	L1 Mean	L1 SD	L2 Mean Rank	L1 Mean Rank
Female-Female	18	4.44	1.58	5.05	1.8	41.39	43.2
Female-Male	17	3.44	1.12	3.72	2	28.26	30.01
Male-Male	17	3.76	1.20	4.01	1.5	33.24	36.08
Male-Female	13	3.30	1.18	3.4	1.2	27.27	28.3
L2 X^2:6.13 P<.05 Sig: 0.1053; L1 X^2:7.22 P<.05 Sig: 0.121; L2 and L1 X^2:6.24 P<.05 Sig: 0.8.76							

To sum up, it is evident that the greatest amount of complimenting (P.E.T.), though statistically not significant, was offered by women writers to women addressees. Male writers offered the least amount of complimenting to the female writers in both languages. The important point is that the writers accommodated to their own sexes more than the opposite sex. This finding can be explained by the fact that in Iran opposite sex interaction is very limited or better say not permitted.

B. Analysis of Strategies of Complimenting

Complimenting strategies in this study refer to the ways through which the writers construct their whole texts. As mentioned before, compliments are used to address both specific FTAs (criticisms and suggestions) and to address the global FTA (the act as a whole). In this part, the two strategies and their proportions of use along with gender differences in using them as employed by the subjects are presented.

1. Compliments redressing specific criticism and suggestions

Writers of letters most frequently relied on "good news/bad news pairing strategy" to redress specific (or local) FTAs. This strategy involves pairing a compliment (CL) with a specific (FTA) to soften the force of the FTA (CL+FTA). This good news bad news pairing strategy (CL+FTA), as shown in table 3, was used by women slightly more than by men in both languages. This was slightly more for females in L1. However, the statistical analysis revealed no significant difference. On the whole, male subjects made less use of this strategy irrespective of the addressee. Nonetheless, male subjects treated the opposite sex (female) more delicately whereas female subjects again kept off the opposite sex, and accommodated to their own sex more. It is noteworthy that female subjects acted more softly while either writing to female or to male subjects in both languages.

In sum, it can be inferred that the pattern of use for this strategy may explain the fact that women try to be more positive and less outspoken than men. Of course, men at the same time attempt to act more cautiously when addressing the opposite sex. However, statistical analyses of L1, L2, and both languages showed that the differences were not significant.

TABLE III.
FREQUENCY OF LOCAL STRATEGY AS USED BY GENDER OF WRITER AND ADDRESSEE

Writer/Addressee	N	L2 %	L1 %
Female-Female	18	77.7	88.8
Female-Male	17	64.7	76.47
Male-Male	17	58.8	70.50
Male-Female	13	61.53	76.92
Total Female	35	71.42	82.8
Total Male	30	60	73.3
Total	65	66.1	78.4
L2 X^2: 1.74, Sig:7.81, p<. 05; L1 X^2: 1.95, Sig:8.7, p<. 05 L2 & L1 X^2: 2.8, Sig:8.1, p<. 05			

2. Compliments redressing the global FTA

To construct the texts at the most global levels, writers in addition to using local strategies to mitigate specific criticisms, used this particular compliment strategy as well. As writing a letter with comments and suggestions constitutes a potential global FTA, writers have to take an interpersonal rhetorical stance to redress the global FTA (Johnson & Roen, 1992). To redress the global FTA, and build rapport, most writers use the strategy of opening the letter with one or more compliments; others frame the letter by both opening and closing it with compliments.

In this study, as table 4 shows, while most of the writers opened their letters with compliments (78%) some more closed their letters with compliments (84.6%) in L2. This was slightly more in the case of L1 for both opening and closing the letters, with closing compliments outweighing the opening. Although male subjects used specific complimenting strategy less than with women, they used the global strategy slightly more than women (66.6%). This case is again occurring more with L1 writers (73.3%). This may account for the fact that men are more globally oriented, and feel that once and all they can soften their harshness. Thus, for men opening or closing the letters with compliments rather than being concerned with every specific suggestion or criticism would suffice to sound interpersonally appropriate.

Table 4 shows that females, irrespective of their addressors, received this strategy more (both in L1 and L2 opening and closing compliments) than did the male addressees. Furthermore, women received more of this strategy from men

(84.6%) in L2 opening and 92.3% in closing. The situation was similar in L1 as well. However, women accommodated to their own sex more than the opposite sex, though the difference is very slight across the two languages.

Finally, it can be concluded that with regard to the global strategy, male used slightly more of this strategy, indicating that men are more globally rather than locally oriented in addressing others appropriately. Moreover, women, contrary to men, again accommodated to their own gender more than they did to men. The general pattern across the two languages is almost identical, with a slight increase in the use of compliments in L1.

TABLE IV.
FREQUENCY OF GLOBAL AND FRAMING STRATEGIES AS USED BY GENDER OF WRITER AND ADDRESSEE

Writer/Addressee	N	Opening strategy		Closing strategy		Framing strategy	
		L2 %	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %	L2 %	L1 %
Female-Female	18	77.7	88.8	83.3	88.8	66.6	72.2
Female-Male	17	76.4	88.23	82.3	88.1	64	70.5
Male-Male	17	76.4	76.4	82.3	82	58	64.7
Male-Female	13	84.6	84.6	92.3	92	76.6	84.6
Total female	35	77.1	88.6	82.8	88.5	65.7	71.42
Total male	30	80	80	86.6	86.6	66.6	73.3
Total	65	78	84.6	84.6	87.6	66.15	72.3

3. Framing strategy

The discourse strategy of both opening and closing with one or more compliments is a "compliment framing strategy" through which writers choose to enclose the FTAs with positive comments (CL+FTA+CL) (Johnson & Roen, 1992). Results of this strategy (See Table 4) display that male subjects used slightly more of this strategy (66.6%) as compared with female subjects in L2. The same pattern is also observable for L1. With regard to the gender of the addressee, female subjects received this strategy more than did male addressees in both languages. It must be noted that female subjects received more of this strategy when addressed by male subjects in both languages. While men used framing strategy more when addressing female subjects, female subjects did not receive them similarly. Female subjects again kept away from the opposite sex and accommodated to their own gender more. All in all, despite the fluctuations among the writers in using the global and framing strategies, the statistical analysis disapproved of any significant difference between them (X^2:0.42; Sig:3.84; p<.05). Considering the gender of the addressees, it is also revealed that fluctuations in the use of the global strategy (the total of the opening, closing and framing strategies) are not statistically significant (X^2:0.87; Sig:7.81; p<.05).

In summary, the analysis of complimenting discourse strategies in letters across L1 and L2 provided evidence that gender of writer and addressee play a minor role in selection of both local and global strategies. In regard to local strategy (CL+FTA), more writers used this strategy for a female addressee. In other words, female addressees received local strategy more than did the male addressees. Furthermore, female subjects received this strategy from their own sex more than they received from male subjects. On the global level, men used this strategy (CL+FTA+CL) more than women did. But again it was female subjects who received strategy more, both from the opposite sex and from their own gender, indicating that females are treated with more respect. Though statistical analyses revealed no significant difference in use of these strategies by different subjects, the findings very roughly and marginally indicate some way that L1 (Farsi) is more comfortably used in providing compliments in the review letters. This can be partly due to the possible better command of the writers over L1.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this research demonstrate a uniform pattern of gender based complimenting use both in terms of forms and strategies across both Farsi as writers' L1 and English as their L2. The patterns of language use reported in here suggest that both gender of the writer and that of the addressee play a minor role in complimenting in written discourse. This finding very clearly goes contrary to the findings of the study by Salmani-Nodoushan (2007), which attests to the sex dependency of the complimenting strategies in Farsi. It was also found that when men and women learn or produce a language in formal context and under similar conditions of classroom, they produce the same type of discourse, i.e., their discourse becomes maximally alike in both their native and non native language. In general, the points may show that classroom conditions can just let out certain semantic fundamentals which prevail in all languages (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 2004; Wierzbicka, 2007) as L2 socio-pragmatic norms find a little chance to be materialized and L1 has to be formally used. In line with Huth (2006), the results may also lead us to gather that L1 and L2 interaction in the context of classroom has got its own inherent social nature.

Also, the results can be accounted for in a number of ways as follows. The first thing is that these students functioned in an Iranian context where all the participants were Iranians. Thus, it is not surprising to discover that they abide by some formal social rules promoted in Iranian contexts especially at the universities. As is known well, university students are strongly recommended, as is the case in the society, to avoid social interactions with the opposite sex. Of course this is expected to yield results different from what we have reached. But, as already claimed (Felix, 1981), instruction is not supposed to bear the same result as social interaction and it can affect only specific features of language. Instruction may thus affect the process (Higgs & Clifford, 1982) or linguistic proficiency but not the

pragmatic issues (Celce-Murcia, 1992). Another point is that the teachers were also all Iranians who could very restrictively approach their students only through the intermediary of the books, and the classroom did not provide the latitude for stronger social relations. Anyway, the findings of this study, however, do not verify the position taken by Towell and Hawkin (1994) and also by (Huth, 2006) that L1 transfer of properties in the area of discourse and functions of language into L2 is unavoidable.

Next point worth attention is that the results testify that the Persian writers of English make every attempt to remain polite, thus avoiding FTAs, which is almost generally the case in lots of world languages (e.g., Salamani-Nodoushan, 2008; Alfattah & Ravindrantha, 2009). Moreover, the results support Johnson and Roen's (1992) and Poynton's (1989) claims that gender differences are less likely to occur in written discourse due to greater formality of the academic setting, the seriousness of topic, the written modality and the situational equality of the participants. In other words, gender differences may melt away when equality is achieved. As Poynton (1989) suggests 'the greater equality between interactants, the more likely they are to behave linguistically in parallel or symmetrical ways (p. 790)'. Though Poynton (ibid) refers to the finding in L1, we can generalize his idea to L2 and claim that equality in teaching and learning situation as well as in the type of activity disallow the transfer of L1 functional properties into L2. Beyond it, L1 is also modified so as to meet the formal demands of the classroom conditions. The immediate implication of this study is that gender differences may be more matter of upbringing and social and situational pressures than that of the genetic tendencies.

It must be noted that this study analyzed the forms and strategies of complimenting quantitatively rather than qualitatively. It is already accepted that a high quality language of respect and compliment can securely balance out the limits of quantity, thus breeding more satisfaction on the part of the addressee. This is to say that depth of emotions and affections in the words could certainly make a difference and a frequency based positive term and strategy cannot be considered anything more than suggestive.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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A Pragmatic Research Report on Compliment Speech Act

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Abstract—**This paper aims to raise second language cross-cultural pragmatic awareness by analyzing the complimenting speech act of Chinese EFL learner. The result necessitates a detailed explanation of the strategies that the learner makes use of when performing the speech act in different contexts of situations. The findings will provide very essential pedagogical implications in second language teaching, avoiding miscommunication as much as possible so as to reach the purpose of communication.**

Index Terms—**complimenting, speech acts, pragmatic awareness**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Goal of the Project

The paper seeks to investigate complimenting realization patterns in English of a Chinese EFL learner by means of statistical data as well as some prior theories so as to achieve two aims: what language forms do Chinese learners of English use to perform the speech act of compliment; in what way do they realize the English speech act of compliment? The result necessitates a detailed explanation of the strategies that Non Native Speakers (NNS) makes the use of when performing compliment in different contexts of situations.

According to Austin (1962), when we speak a language, we do not say the words for no purpose, actually, we use it for doing things as well. However, the thing that an utterance does in one language may be different from another language due to culture diversities.

Complimenting is a very common expressive speech act according to Searle (1975) which can be used to anyone, everyday and in many circumstances. As Holmes (1988) noted, a compliment is "a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for some good (possession, characteristic, skill, etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer" (p.485). It serves many functions, starting a conversation, keeping the conversation go smoothly, making a positive comment to someone for the purpose of maintaining solidarity among people. What a pity if we fail to achieve the above purposes by misusing compliments, which will lead to a breakdown of successful communications.

In fact, the speech act is composed of two parts: how to make compliments and how to respond to compliments. This paper deals with the former due to the length limitation.

By nature, this is a pragmatic attempt to find out the pragmatic strategies in a specific speech act. Therefore, the results and findings will provide some pedagogical implications in improving our ability of using English, avoiding miscommunication as much as possible so as to reach the purpose of communication.

B. Literature Review

Generally speaking, there are many studies done in compliment responses which are far more than realization patterns. The following are some relevant literatures with the latter, Nessa Wolfson and Joan Manes are main contributors in this field.

Wolfson (1983) summarized some major topics for complimenting. It falls into two major categories: appearance/possession and ability. One of the most striking aspects of American English compliments is the overwhelming number of compliments on personal appearance, most particularly clothes and hairdos. In addition, by far the most frequent types of compliments are those on addressee's skill or effort: such as a well-done job, a skillfully played game, and a good meal.

Moreover, Wolfson (1988) explained the most frequent exchanges of compliments are found between moderately close people. That is to say, very close people like family members do not exchange compliments as frequently, nor do those of slight acquaintance. It appears that women often had to exercise explicit compliments in order to get sufficient attention, on the contrary, males are not always been complimented (p.137).

In addition, one of the most striking features of compliments is remarkably formulaic. Formulaicity in speech is presumed to be a universal phenomenon, sometimes even native speakers do not aware it.

Manes & Wolfson (1981) gathered six hundred and eighty-six compliments through observation of everyday interactions. The semantic, syntactic and discourse features of compliments formulae are examined, 97% of them consists the following nine patterns, which can be used as analytical framework in the data analysis part (p.120-121).

    1. NP {is, looks} (really) ADJ PP
    2. I (really) {like, love} NP
    3. PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP
    4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP
    5. You V (NP) (really) ADV PP
    6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP
    7. What (a) (ADJ) NP!
    8. ADJ (NP)!
    9. Isn't NP ADJ!

Among these nine types, 80% of compliments in data are adjectival type, such as type 8, 3, 1, 4, and 6. Among them, 72% adjectives make up only five frequently used responses (nice 22.9%, good 19.6%, beautiful 9.7%, pretty 9.2% and great 6.2%). Besides adjectives, verbs are also used to carry positive semantic evaluation, such as type 2 and 5.

Politeness Principles has gained a lot of attentions. Brown & Levinson's (1987) Face Threatening Acts (FTAs), is considered as the most powerful theories to explaining the realization of speech acts. Leech's Modesty Maxims (1983), is shown to be the most adequate model to analyze the data. He proposed that it is customarily more polite to find a compromise between violating the Modesty Maxim and violating the Agreement Maxim in English speaking societies. Gu (1990) compared western notion of face and politeness to Chinese ones, he pointed out four politeness maxims which are typical in Chinese cultures, attempted to demonstrate culture--specific and language –specific.

Chen (1993) found that American compliments and Chinese compliments use largely different politeness strategies: "the American English speakers' strategies are mostly motivated by Leech's Agreement Maxim, whereas the Chinese are motivated by his Modesty Maxim. This difference is then related to differences of social values between the two cultures, particularly in their respective beliefs about what constitutes self-image"(p.49).

Han (1992) did a comparative study on compliment speech acts in Korean and in English interactions. The act was realized and responded quite differently across cultures.

To sum up, this part reviews what favorable topics are in complimenting and its social distributions as well as its linguistic patterns. The findings provide me the sources for designing questionnaire (see Appendix) in present study. It also informed that the same complimenting speech acts will realize differently due to different cultural backgrounds and different language using rules. Communicative competence is the utmost goal for an EFL learner. To learn a foreign language well means not merely to master the pronunciation, grammar, words and idioms, but also to see the world as native speakers of that language see; to learn the ways in which their language reflects the ideas, customs, and behavior of their society; and to learn to understand their language of the mind. It is a very challenging job for teachers intensifying teaching on both linguistic and culture perspectives.

My research will shed new lights on the understanding complimenting realization patterns and its pragmatic strategies which are very important for us to improve our communicative competences.

II.   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A.   Description of the Informant

The learner providing data on the performance of complimenting speech act is one of the non-English major freshmen in my home university in China. His major is electronic business. He had eight years of English learning experience. He loves studying English very much and his language proficiency is high according to the college entrance examination. He seldom uses English after class and he had no any experience of cross-cultural studies.

B.   Questionnaire Design

In order to achieve the goals of this paper, a questionnaire is designed. First part of it is to introduce the task requirement and to gain general information about the informant. The major content part of the questionnaire, as I mentioned before, which is grounded on the research of Wolfson (1983) and Manes and Wolfson (1981). It is proved to be reliable in eliciting compliments under study considering distance (D) and ranking of imposition(R) factors. Compliments on a dress, a hairdo, ability and skill are four situations which we often do compliments among Chinese people in private or in public.(See the appendix attached)

C.   Data Collection

The instrument used is a discourse completion test (DCT), originally developed for comparing the speech act realization patterns of native speakers and learners (Blum-Kulka, 1982). The test consists of incomplete discourse sequences that represent socially four differentiated situations. Each discourse begins with a short description of the situation, notifying the speakers' relations to each other, followed by an incomplete dialogue, in which three empty lines are left for the participant to fill in.

The informant was told to read the four situations carefully, ask questions about the task if he cannot understand the literal meaning before started and then elicit his natural response answers to each situation. He was not informed to fill in a compliment speech act. He had to decide what are proper for the blanks in his real situations.

Data were then transcribed and analyzed based on the analytical framework from Manes and Wolfson (1981), which

is explained in Literature part of this paper.

III. ANALYSIS

The learner provided 12 sentences altogether in 12 blank lines. Among them, 10 are considered as compliment patterns referring to the analytical framework with two exclusions.

The data reveals the learner was fully aware of the need of complimenting acts in the blanks. He used very direct compliment in most cases, type 3. "PRO is (really) (a) (ADJ) NP" accounts for 75% of data (e.g. it is so nice) which indicates the informant favors ADJ pattern in complimenting; "Thank pattern" and "wish pattern" are also provided; "beautiful" and "good " two most frequent adjectives; the main pragmatic strategies he employed included:

1). Upgraders. The learner uses interjections "oh" before compliment in situation one. e.g. "Oh, it's looks very good" and "Oh, it is a pop skirt"; he also upgrades the degree of compliments by emphasizing the key noun phrase; e.g. "It's the fish flavors very delicious."

2). Grounder. The learner offered a reason before compliment in situation three. e.g. "You won this competition glad to you";

3). Suggested devices. The learner offered some suggestions to avoid direct compliment; e.g. "You can wish it very good." and "Eating it feeling very good."

4). Sensitive to D factor. Unlike situation one, two interlocutors in situation two are not so familiar with each other, the informant uses the same pattern of compliments as the former but omit the interjections "oh". e.g. "It's very beautiful." instead of "Oh, It's very beautiful." In grammar, an interjection is used to express a strong feeling, and there is not so strong feeling between non-familiar speakers.

5). Gender difference awareness. The informant is reluctant to give compliments on males in situation three and four that is why data in these two cases are not so formulatic, even including the one to express wishes. e.g. "I wish you have a good time." and "You can wish it very good."

6). Unconscious to R factor. The informant seems to compliment every topic successfully except some unclear expressions. That is to say, no topic seems to be difficult for him to make a compliment.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. What could Account for the Informant's Pragmatic Behavior?

It is very disappointed that although the learner had learnt English for eight years, his language proficiency as well as pragmatic competence remains at the primary level referring to the data.

At first, there are many grammatical mistakes in the data, such as word choice, sentence structure, run-on sentence, punctuations which indicates that the informant don not grasp English language knowledge at a high level though his entrance score is quite satisfactory. Besides, the restricted compliment realization pattern (i.e. Type 3. account for 75%) further showed that he does not acquire enough language knowledge about how to compliment others. And the data he provided are very short and merely no modification, which according to Takahashi and Beebe (1993) is very typical of second language learners who are lacking in fluency and proficiency in the target language.

On the other hand, the informant himself has inadequate awareness of culture differences. The data which are out of formula and the ones which slightly aware that there is D, R between interlocutors can offer some evidence; moreover, the informant uses very few politeness strategies on complimenting also indicates that his poor understanding of pragmatic knowledge.

B. Suggested Pedagogical Implication

The above discussion provides evidence to increase learner's communicative competence from grammatical competence, strategic competence and sociolinguistic competence (i.e. pragmatic competence) three aspects (Canale & Swan, 1980).

1).The improvement of grammatical competence requires EFL teachers to reconsider our cultivation goal of English courses. Can all of the students have solid control of English knowledge? The problems associated with existing text selections and teaching methods mean that the stated course aims are rarely fulfilled.

Input courses, like listening and reading can be exposed to students anywhere and anytime with diversity styles; more practical courses, like writing, translation, and speaking offered to students to practice in order to reinforce their language abilities. The materials for teaching should be authentic and up-dated. Besides the texts for the aim of passing certain kinds of examinations, teacher should choose more authentic supplementary materials to motivate students to learn more. Traditional grammar approach of teaching should be challenged; Teaching is the main means for gaining knowledge. The way of traditional teaching should be converted into communicative teaching based on real tasks—focus on meaning. The role of a teacher should be changed to counselor and helper whereas students are actors and speakers. They will be more active if they take the central role in class.

2). The improvement of strategic competence requires more exposure to the target English and intercultural communications. When EFL learner study a foreign language, one big problem is that they do not have enough exposure to target language. In Chinese context, mother language is the most influential element that makes effective

communication a dream beyond reach. Pragmatic failure emerged due to the miscommunication of pragmatic transfer, especially negative transfer of L1. Enhancement of cultural sensibility plays an important role in improving EFL learners' strategic competence. Moreover, Social changes and the cross-cultural communication threaten to intensify the awareness of culture. Increase the possibility of cross-cultural experiences is an effective way to provide with the learner for more opportunities to observe native speakers' pragmatic behaviors, and it helps to decrease students' pragmatic failures so as to achieve successful communication.

3). the improvement of sociolinguistic competence (pragmatic competence) requires explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic knowledge.

The aim of second language learning is to use the language appropriately in different contexts, so meta-pragmatic competence should be put forward. According to Kasper (2001), pragmatic competence can be taught in classroom. Therefore, explicit teaching of Speech Act Theory and how to use these acts should be given to the students. Some theories on pragmatics strategies such as Leech's politeness principle as well as Brown & Levinson's face view, Gu's model of politeness need to be expounded in order to make the learner aware there are great differences in realizing speech acts as requesting, complimenting, and apologizing in Chinese and English contexts. These theories are well-accepted as the overriding communication principles and that they reflect the characteristics of Anglo-Saxon culture. When the learners are conscious of such culture differences, implicit teaching is necessary, their pragmatic competence can be raised gradually through practicing.

To sum up, pragmatics should be taken into one required course for EFL learners because "In order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well developed"(Kasper, 1997, p.2).

C. Limitations of this Study

Under-effective DCT: DCT has its own disadvantages which the informant was imposed a lot to give her compliments. No matter he likes or not, she must elicit natural, spontaneous responses from the four situations.

Insufficient situations: more situations should be added to the questionnaire that can elicit compliments in English speaking countries

Small sample: investigation on one person is too limited. The data we get is typical on this informant which does not mean the whole English major students are in this case. Hundreds of sample can offer reliable data in this empirical study.

On the whole, this study aims to raise cross-cultural pragmatic awareness by analyzing complimenting speech acts, further researches can be done to explore classroom pragmatic implications, speech acts in particular in Chinese EFL contexts.

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Is Debate a Useful Strategy in Enhancing the Reading Comprehension and Critical Thinking of Iranian EFL Learners?

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Abstract—Thinking critically refers to investigating the thinking process in order to explain understanding and making decisions that are more intelligent. Debate is one of the most essential strategies which can effectively promote critical thinking in a classroom. The aim of the present study was to investigate the impact of debate as a critical thinking strategy on reading comprehension ability as well as critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners. To achieve this goal, 55 learners at intermediate level were selected based on convenient sampling. The administration of the TOEFL test enabled the researchers to select 40 students whose scores on language proficiency fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean. Subsequently the two homogeneous groups were randomly assigned to a control and an experimental group. In the experimental group debates were used as the main strategy of the class whereas the control group followed the traditional reading procedures. The statistical analysis of the participants' scores on a reading comprehension test and Honey's critical thinking questionnaire (2005) through MANOVA indicated that the strategy had a significant impact on the reading comprehension and critical thinking abilities of Iranian EFL learners.

Index Terms—reading, critical thinking, language proficiency, critical pedagogy, debate

I. INTRODUCTION

Thinking, as a remarkable process in every day life, helps people solve their problems, make decisions, and achieve the goals that makes their life purposeful. To think critically is a natural human ability that supports discovering the waythinking operates (Chaffee, 2009). According to Santrock (2008), thinking has different functions including reasoning, forming concepts, thinking critically and creatively, making decisions, and solving problems. As Chaffee,(2009) argues, the main purpose of thinking critically is to make "more intelligent decisions" and a critical thinker is a person who has the ability to take a deep cognisance of the outside world, can make wise judgments, and reflect upon "important ideas" (p.43).A critical thinker tries to solve complex problems in different ways by asking important questions, gathering relevant information, determining findings, and communicating effectively (Paul & Elder, 2006). Halpern (1996) defines critical thinking as the application of cognitive skills or strategies to enhance the chance of appropriate outcome.

The most efficient and developed vehicle for carrying out the process of thinking is language. For Mangel (2005), language is placed under the element of thought. Halpern (1996) seeslanguage as a medium to express one's thoughts and signifies comprehension as the most critical reason for language use.

Language skills in general and reading skill in particular, as Mangel (2005) argues, involve comprehension and thus stimulation of thinking. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) critical thinking strategies in language teaching are considered as a level of reading comprehension or discussion skills when the learner is able to question and evaluate what is read or heard. MCPeck (1991) considers solving problems, evaluating what has been read, and integrating understanding with knowledge of the world as the various goals of reading. Farr and Conner (2004) believe by modeling, coached practice, and reflection, it is possible to teach students strategies that can help them think while they are reading.

In language teaching, reading is recognized as an activity that engages students more actively with materials in the target language and encourages a deeper processing of it, since it is considered to be a communicative process which conveys meaning from writer's to the reader's mind (Nuttal, 1996). Consequently, teachers employ several techniques and strategies through which they can maximize their learners' abilities in language learning.

One of the strategies which can effectively promote critical thinking and thus, can be used as a teaching tool in the classroom is debate. Through investigating arguments, debate allows students to enhance critical thinking (Roy &Macchiette, 2005). Oman (2010) maintains that critical thinking through debate can provide a healthy atmosphere in

which learners find the opportunity to talk, learn from each other, and come up with creative ways to justify their argument without any personal attacks in the classroom. Maiorana (1992) believes that debate as a teaching tool helps students develop specific skills including analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating arguments. Additionally, the debate process incorporates critical thinking and a plethora of other skills including listening, researching, problem solving, reasoning, questioning, and communicating. Sidhu (2008) claims that classroom teacher can promote language proficiency by using debate as a critical thinking strategy. He also adds that "Objectives such as critical thinking, problem solving, enhancing self-esteem, and the art of communication are all merged in every aspect of debate-from its preparation to its presentation"(Sidhu, 2008, p.1)

Critical thinking as a common feature in the L2 classrooms has strong pedagogical support although there is relatively little empirical research in this field. Mendenhal and Johnson (2010) found that using a variety of learning strategies supported learners in fostering critical thinking and critical writing. Moreover, in his study, Lodewyk (2009) showed that learners were capable of making reasonable judgments when they were engaged in critical thinking strategies such as decision making, problem solving, and debating. Scott's (2008) case study on the perceptions of the students learning critical thinking through debates revealed that debate as a critical thinking strategy could help students with analyzing and presenting arguments.

Yet, there are some researchers who question the efficacy of debate in classroom environment. Hill (1993) maintains that although critical thinking is assumed as an educational outcome acquired by participating in competitive debate, there is not sufficient research finding to prove that participating in competitive debate boosts development of critical thinking ability to any significant degree. Willingham (2007) argues that teaching critical thinking skills is too demanding, and only confuses students; he believes that possessing knowledge on the relevant content and thinking about it continuously are two crucial factors in ability to think critically. Case studies conducted by Yadav andBeckerman (2009) on teaching critical thinking and problem solving students to the undergraduate students of science education do not clearly signify whether the teaching method has the desired impact on the students'critical thinking in pathology courses.

Nevertheless, the present study examined the role of using debate as a critical thinking strategy on reading comprehension ability and also its effect on the development of the critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners. In order to achieve this goal the following research question was proposed:

Q: Does debate as a critical thinking strategy have any statistically significant impact on the development of critical thinking and reading comprehension abilities of Iranian EFL learners?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 40 Iranian intermediate EFL learners aged between 18 and 25 years who were taking a reading course at Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch. The learners were selected based on convenient sampling and were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups.

B. Instrumentation

To homogenize the participants of the study regarding their general language proficiency, the standardized TOEFL test was used. Also, the reading section of the TOEFL test was utilized as an independent test to signify whether there was any significant difference in terms of the reading ability of the learners prior to the study. The TOEFL test consisting 55 multiple choice items on the English structure and reading comprehension was piloted with a group of 30 students similar to those of the target sample before the main administration. The item facility (IF) and item discrimination (ID) of the items were calculated and the items with appropriate range of IF (beyond 0.40) and ID (items with facility indexes between 0.63 and 0.37) were selected. Following the piloting process and discarding the malfunctioning items, 46 multiple choice items were selected for inclusion in the test. Afterwards, the internal consistency of the test was calculated through Kudar-Richardson Formula (KR-21), the result (r=0.78) indicating a relatively high reliability index.

Furthermore, a reading comprehension test was given to the participants of both control and experimental groups as the posttest to measure their reading comprehension after the treatment. The test was developed based on Longman's complete course for the TOEFL test. The readability of the reading passages in the posttest was computed through Microsoft Office Flesch Reading Ease and contrasted with the participants' text book. The average readability of the selected texts (70.1) was close to that of the pretest (73.8).

The IF and ID of each item was calculated and the malfunctioning items were discarded. Subsequently, the test consisting of 26 multiple choice type items were piloted with a group of 30 students similar to those of the target sample and its reliability was estimated (r=0.94) and was administered as the posttest in both experimental and control groups at the end of semester.

The third instrument used in the study was a critical thinking questionnaire constructed by Honey (2005). This questionnaire was piloted with a group of 30 students similar to those of the target sample before the main administration. The internal consistency of the questionnaire calculated through Cranach's Alpha (r=0.78) indicated internal consistency of the questionnaire. The questionnaire including 30 Likert type questions each followed by five

alternatives including Never(1), Rarely(2), Sometimes(3), Often(4), and Always(5)was used to measure the critical thinking ability of the participants before and after the treatment. Each testee's score could range from 30 to 150.

C. Procedure

Initially, in order to check the homogeneity of the two groups, 55 learners in two intact classes took the standardized English proficiency test. Afterward, those students whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation below and above the mean were considered as the participants of the study. The rationale behind the administration of the TOEFL test was to ensure that there was no significant difference in terms of the language proficiency of the participants prior to the study.

Subsequently, a reading pretest was given to both the experimental and control groups to measure their reading comprehension ability before the treatment (k=26, r=0.68).In the next step, the participants in the experimental and control groups were asked to fill in Honey's (2005) critical thinking questionnaire.

D. Instructinal Materials

The course book used in this text was *Reading for Ideas, Reflective Reader* (Shokouhian, FotovatAhmadi, &Khoii, 2006) containing eight units, each unit beginning with a reading passage and then moving on to some comprehension questions, true false questions, and tests of vocabulary.

E. Treatment

The treatment took 15 sessions each session lasting for 90 minutes. The process of teaching in each of the groups was as follows:

F. Experimental Group

The participants in the experimental group had eight texts to work on through debate and discussion. Each session started with a warm up. The teacher introduced the topic of the reading to the students, and tried to teach the unknown words to the studentsthrough discussions. At this stage, the teacher posed some questions and about 10 minutes were allocated tobrainstorming and discussing ideas. Then the students began to talk together and with the teacher to negotiate ideas. At this stage, the teacher presented the necessary words to the learners through discussion, and asked the students to read the text and answer the reading comprehension questions. Moreover, the teacher posed some further questions based on the topic of the reading passage and the students were asked to discuss them in groups. During the group discussions, the students were asked to present their ideas, and provide a summary of the reading text at the end of the class.

G. Cotrol Group

The participants in thecontrol group studied the same reading texts as the experimental group. However, the variable of discussions was eliminated in this group. The teacher presented a general warm up on the topic of the reading without posing any further questions for discussions before the reading. Then, the teacher asked one or more students to read the texts loudly, while the teacher presented the meaning of the unknown words to the students. After presenting the reading and the meaning of the new words, the students were asked to answer the questions following the text as well as to present a summary of the reading passage. No discussions were used after correcting the reading comprehension questions.

H. Administering the Reading Posttest

After the treatment, the reading comprehension posttest as well as the critical thinking questionnaire was administered to the participants in both groups. In order to test the null hypothesis, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run as the study aimed to examine the impact of debate as a critical thinking strategy (independent variable) on the learners' reading comprehension and critical thinking abilities (two dependent variables).

III. Results

Prior to the study, the TOEFL test was piloted at Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch with a group of 30 examinees whose characteristics were similar to those of the target group. The purpose behind piloting the test was to estimate its reliability and to discard the inappropriate items. The reliability index of the TOEFL test (r= .82) showed a high value. Table 1 below shows the descriptive statistics on the TOEFL proficiency test.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON PILOTING THE TOEFL TEST

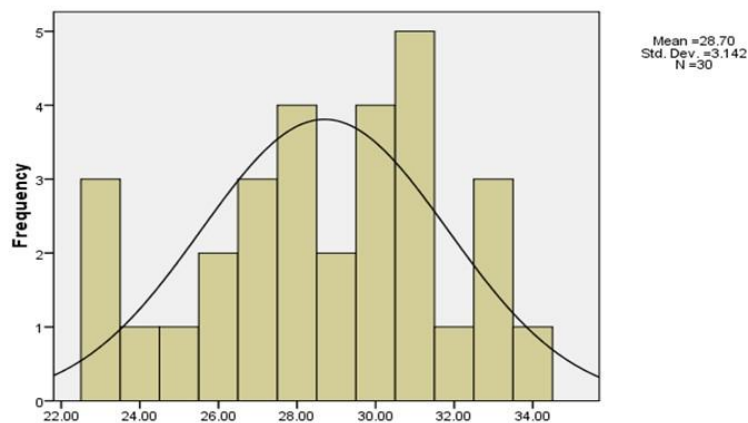| Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	V	Skewness	
								Statistics	Std. Error
Piloting TOEFL test	30	11	23	34	28.70	3.14	9.87	-0.325	0.427

Figure 1. The Distribution of the Participants

At the next step, the reading comprehension section of the TOEFL test was administered to a group of 30 examinees at Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch with characteristics similar to those of the target group. The purpose behind piloting was to examine the test's reliability and to discard the malfunctioning items. Table 2 illustrates the results of the descriptive statistics. The reliability index of the reading posttest (0.94) showed a high value.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PILOTING THE READING POSTTEST

| Group | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD | V | Skewness | |
								Statistics	Std. Error
Piloting Group	30	10	20	30	26.13	3.08	9.49	-0.248	0.427

Furthermore, the questionnaire was piloted with the same group before the main administration and its reliability was calculated through Cronbach's Alpha (r=0.78) which signified the reliability of the questionnaire. Table 3 illustrates the results of the descriptive statistics for piloting the questionnaire.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON PILOTING CRITICAL THINKINGQUESTIONNAIRE

| Group | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD | V | Skewness | |
								Statistics	Std. Error
Piloting Group	30	65	65	130	1.0093	19.39	376.34	-0.224	0.427

The modified version of the TOEFL was given to 55 intermediate EFL learners in two intact classes at Islamic Azad University, North Tehran Branch. The objective was to examine the homogeneity of the two groups prior to the advancement of the study. A cut-point of one standard deviation above and below the mean was set and 40 learners (each group consisting of 20 students) whose proficiency scores were within this range were selected as the participants of the study. The results of the skewness analysis, as it is signified in table 4, obtained by dividing the statistic of skewness by the standard error revealed that the assumption of normality was observed in the distribution of the scores (0.87 for the experimental group, 1.61 for the control group, both of the indexes falling within the range of -1.96 and +1.96).

Subsequently, an independent samples t-test was run to check whether there was any significant difference between the means of the two groups. As illustrated in Table 5, the two groups turned out to have homogeneous variances, $F=0.19$, $p=0.892$(one- tailed). Therefore, with equal variances assumed, the t-test results indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the TOEFL test, $t(38)=2.28$, $p=0.743$(two –tailed) and thus, the two groups were proven to be homogeneous belonging to the same population. Finally the two classes were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups of the study.

TABLE 4.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE TOEFL TEST

| Groups | N | Range | Min. | Max. | Mean | Std. Deviation | Variance | Skewness | |
								Statistics	Std. Error
Control Group	20	10	23	33	28.55	3.11	9.73	0.446	0.512
Experimental Group	20	15	19	34	28.200	3.56	12.69	-0.826	0.512

TABLE 5.
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE *T*-TEST THE PROFICIENCY TEST

	Levene's test of Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means			
			T observed	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
qual variances assumed	F observed	Sig.	0.331	38	0.743	0.350
	0.19	0.892				

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE READING PRETEST

Groups	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
								Statistics	Std. Error
Experimental Group	20	9	13	22	16.65	2.56	6.55	0.309	0.512
Control Group	20	8	12	20	15.80	2.37	5.64	0.369	0.512

The reading comprehension section of the TOEFL test served as the pretest of the study. Reading pretest was given to both the experimental and control groups to measure their reading comprehension ability before the treatment. In addition, the reliability index of the reading test (r=.68) showed a high value. The above table describes the descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups in the pretest. As it is demonstrated, there is no difference between the pretest mean scores of control and experimental groups, and two groups are homogeneous. Table 7 signifies the descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups in the posttest.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING POSTTEST

Groups	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
								Statistics	Std. Error
Experimental Group	20	8	18	26	22.90	2.77	7.67	0.314	0.512
Control Group	20	13	13	26	18.60	4.14	17.20	0.552	0.512

TABLE. 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CRITICAL THINKING PRETEST (EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS)

Groups	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
								Statistics	Std. Error
Control Group	20	63	60	123	89.450	4.125	18.45	0.247	0.512
Experimental Group	20	60	78	138	15288	4.77	252.20	-0.451	0.512

Table 8 describes the descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups in the critical thinking pretest. Table 9 describes the descriptive statistics of the control and experimental groups in the critical thinking posttest.

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CRITICAL THINKING POSTTEST (CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS)

Groups	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
								Statistics	Std. Error
Control Group	20	65	55	120	87	21.17	448.421	0.240	0.512
Experimental Group	20	72	55	127	88.35	21.36	456.55	0.173	0.512

Within subject factors including pre and posttests on reading as well aspre and posttest on critical thinking questionnaire are demonstrated in table 10 below. Besides, Table 11 shows between subject factors including control and experimental groups.

TABLE 10
WITHIN -SUBJECT FACTORS

Factor 1	Dependent Variable
1	Pretest Reading
2	Posttest Reading
3	Post Critical Thinking Questionnaire
4	Pre Critical Thinking Questionnaire

TABLE 11
BETWEEN- SUBJECT FACTORS

	Value Label	N
Groups 1.00	Experimental	20
2.00	Control	20

The discriptive statistics for both of the groups on reading and critical thinking questionnaires are shown in Table 12 below:

TABLE 12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL READING AND CRITICAL THINKING PRE AND POST TESTS

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pretest reading experimental	16.65	2.56	20
Control	15.80	2.37	20
Total	16.22	2.47	40
Posttest reading experimental	22.90	2.77	20
Control	18.65	4.10	20
Total	20.77	4.07	40
Post critical thinking experimental	112.1	15.88	20
Control	89.45	18.45	20
Total	100.7	20.50	40
Pre critical thinking experimental	88.35	21.36	20
Control	87.00	21.17	20
Total	87.67	21.00	40

It was necessary to check for *Homogeneity of intercorrelations* to see if for each of the levels of the between-subject variable (i.e. type of treatment) the pattern of intercorrelation among the levels of within- subjects variables (i.e. reading and critical thinking) were the same. To test this assumption, Box's M statistic with the more conservative *alpha* level of .001 was used with the hope that the statistic would not be significant (i.e. that the p level would be greater than 0.001). In other words, Box's M statistic tested the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables were equal across groups. Table 13 displays the result and indicates that this assumption was met (Sig=0.009).

TABLE 13.
BOX'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES

Box's M	26.660
F	2.360
Df1	10
Df2	6903.58
Sig.	0.009

A look at the Multivariate Tests table also indicated that there was a change in the reading performance and critical thinking of the participants. There was an indication that the two groups were different in terms of their reading performance and critical thinking ability. These findings are illustrated by Wilks' Lambda values and the associated probability values given in the column labeled Sig. in Table 14.As the table displays, the value for Wilks' Lambda for debate is 0.963, with a Sig. value of 0.000<0.001. Since the value for *p* is lesser than 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant effect for debate. This suggests that there was a change in the reading comprehension and critical thinking abilities of the participants of the study after the treatment. Thus, the main effect for debate was significant. The eta squared value for debate (Table14) is 0.963showing a large effect size (utilizing the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen, 1988, pp.284-7, 0.01=small effect, 0.06= moderate effect, 0.14= large).

TABLE 14.
MULTIVARIATE TEST

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig	Partial eta Squared(η^2)
Debate Pillai's Trace	0.963	316.543	3.000	36.00	0.000	0.963
Wilks' Lambda	0.037	316.543	3.000	36.00	0.000	0.963
Debate Pillai's Trace Wilks' Lambda	0.455	10.00	3.00	36.00	0.000	0.455
Group	0.545	10.00	3.00	36.00	0.000	0.455

TABLE 15.
TESTS OF WITHIN AND BETWEEN SUBJECTS' EFFECTS

Source dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Partial eta Squared
Groups Pretest reading	7.22	1	7.225	1.185	0.283	0.030
Posttest reading	180.62	1	180.625	14.718	0.000	0.279
Post critical thinking	5130.22	1	5130.225	17.312	0.000	0.313
Pre critical thinking	18.22	1	18.225	0.040	0.842	0.001
Error Pretest reading	231.750	38	6.099			
Posttest reading	466.350	38	12.272			
Post critical thinking	11260.750	38	296.336			
Pre critical thinking	17194.550	38	452.488			
Total Pretest reading	10769.000	40				
Posttest reading	17911.000	40				
Post critical thinking	4226.15	40				
Pre critical thinking	324689.000	40				

As can be observed in table 15, the Sig. value in the pretest reading is 0.283>0.05, so it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the reading pretest (f=7.225).The partial eta squared value for group in this case is 0.030 which is a small effect. Nevertheless, the Sig. value in the posttest reading is 0.000 and thus it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the reading posttest (f=180.62). The effect size, using eta squared is 0.279which indicates a relatively large effect size, which means that debate by itself accounted for almost 28% of the overall variance which is a large effect size.

Moreover, the Sig. value in the pretest critical thinking is 0.842> 0.05, showing that there is no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the critical thinking pretest (f=18.225). The partial eta squared value for group in this case is 0.001which signifies a very small effect size. However, the Sig. value in the posttest of the critical thinking is 0.000<0.05, signifying that there is a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in the critical thinking posttest (f= 180.62). The effect size computed through eta squared is (η^2=0.313) illustrating that 31% of the overall variance is due to the independent variable (debate).

TABLE 16.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	sig	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	508277.025	1	508277.025	1733.496	0.000	0.979
Groups	2117.025	1	2117.025	7.220	0.011	0.160
Error	11141.950	38	293.209			

As can be observed in this table, the *p* value is 0.000<0.05 and thus, there is a significant difference between the two groups; that is, the control group, who didn't received the treatment and the experimental group, who received the treatment. Hence, it can be concluded that debate had a significant impact on the learners' reading and critical thinking abilities (f=7.22; p<0.05).
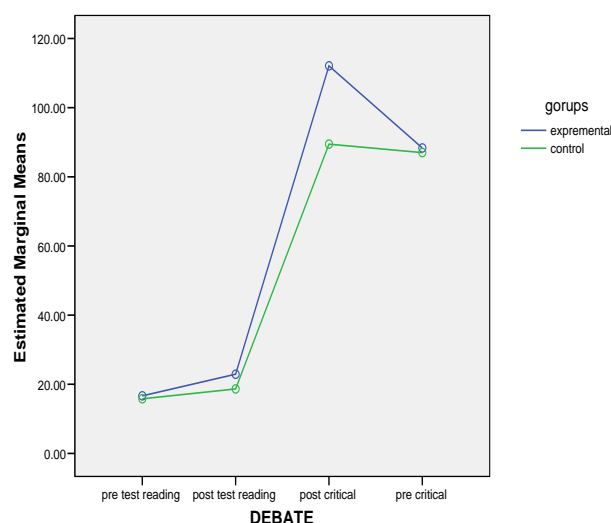

Figure2. Estimating Marginal Means

The result shows that there was no significant difference between the two groups' pretest scores, and both had the same means. However, there were significant differences between the posttests of the two groups; the mean of the experimental group being higher than the mean of the control group.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to explore the effect of debate as a critical thinking strategy on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. It was found that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' performances on the posttest which could be due to the intervention in the experimental group. The results of the study, could lead the researchers to conclude that using debate as a strategy can improve the reading comprehension and critical thinking of the participants of the study.

The results of the study showed that English classes could help students improve their thinking skills. Since critical thinking strategies are demanding and difficult to learn, it is quite possible to facilitate their learning by getting students involved in language skills such as reading. As Snow (2002) maintains, writers cannot possibly make all the information explicit in the text so they rely on the readers to make necessary inferences in each case. Therefore, readers may not grasp the intended points without appropriate thinking strategies. By encouraging students to discuss different aspects of the reading material, they reflect on it, make judgments, and finally defend their position. Moreover, the finding of this study is in line with Freely and Steinberg (2000) who highlight the importance of debates as a strategy which contributes to enhancing critical thinking. Through debates learners try to combine the academic content to their life experiences and hence, improve their language skill as well as improve their critical thinking ability.

V. CONCLUSION

The finding from this study provides some implications for language teachers, learners, and teacher trainers. Debate as a critical thinking strategy enhances learners' inferential abilities and also fosters their deep understanding of the written text. It enables them to grasp and examine the potential implications within the text and read between the lines and also it helps learners to challenge the source of the knowledge and even themselves. Practicing critical thinking changes the learners from passive receivers of the new materials in to critical thinkers.

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The Effect of Exploiting Corpora in TEFL Classroom: A Case Study

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Abstract—This paper is an attempt to study the integration of data-driven corpus-based methodology in an inductive and learner-centered way in TEFL classes. More concretely, it evaluates a potential strategy of having Iranian EFL students appeal to a large target language monolingual corpus searching a certain grammatical pattern. The results reveal the high effectiveness of corpus consultation as a supplement to conventional language learning tools such as grammar textbooks, dictionaries and the like. The results also made clear that the effect of corpus on students' self-learning increases as their level of language proficiency enhances. The total improvement of the students on using corpora has been gained as 18.4% which is promising in its own status.

Index Terms—corpus linguistics, corpus-based learning, language learning, monolingual corpus, TEFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

We live in a world in which information technology is rapidly finding its way into our working as well as private lives. However, the way in which such information is gathered and stored is important as it needs to be processed and interpret into knowledge. As a result, the users of this technology require developing new strategies for constructing the knowledge. Computer software for language studies are among the very supportive tools in exploiting technology in this respect.

During recent years, computer assisted language learning (CALL) methods have been taking advantage of different types of corpora and concordancing in solving lexical, grammatical, stylistic, and some other linguistic problems. Corpus linguistics has provided linguists as well as language teachers with new insights into language structure and use making extensive use of corpora.

EFL students living in countries where English is not widely spoken do not normally have the opportunity to meet native speakers of English in order to improve their language abilities, recognize language patters and correct their errors. Moreover, non-native speakers of English desire their English to be as close as possible to the norms of English. This obstacle can be partly removed by extensive reading referring to a rich language exposure such as corpora. Extensive reading (Nation, 1997; Susser & Robb, 1990) is believed to facilitate language learning, because it exposes learners to real language use in context, and in amounts far larger than the short texts and dialogues usually preferred for the presentation of new language items. Extensive reading is also regarded as an effective way to help language learners develop intuitions as native speakers do (Krashen, 2004).

Using corpora in the form of concordances is of great benefit to a variety of users including students of English, teachers, translators, linguists, and any individual involving reading, writing, speaking and analyzing English or having any kind of question about the way English works. These users are not often able to find the appropriate answer to their questions in grammar textbooks and traditional dictionaries.

Concordances are one of the tools frequently used in corpora analysis. A concordance is a list of queried keywords (search items) which are centered and highlighted in context in which they occur. In a concordance one can see not only the search item(s) along with the corresponding occurrence frequencies but also the right and left context surrounding the search item(s). The relative frequencies of search items in the corpus are very helpful in analyzing linguistic data in terms of typicality, accuracy, and some other qualities. One of the first language teachers who used concordancers in language classes was Tim Johns (Johns, T. 1997). He later developed Data Driven Learning (DDL) concept. In DDL procedure students are asked to answer their language questions by analyzing the data produced by the concordance lines which are condensed exposures to different language patterns. And this is exactly the very concept which has been made use of in the present study. This paper is, in fact, an effort to demonstrate the effect of using concordances in English language classes as a tool for self learning of certain grammatical patterns, namely, verbs and adjectives with different prepositions. Grammatical and lexical studies are among the two most frequent areas which have made use of corpora.

Working with corpora in language classes may take two forms: *soft version* and *hard version* (Leech, 1997, p. 10). The *soft version* requires only the teacher to have access to, and the skills to use, a corpus and the relevant software. The teacher prints out examples from the corpus and devises the tasks. Learners work with these corpus-derived and corpus-

based materials (Bernardini, 2004; Granger & Tribble, 1998; Osbourne, 2000; Tribble, 1997b; Tribble & Jones, 1990). The *hard version* requires learners to have direct access to computer and corpus facilities and have the skills to use them (Aston, 1996). Tasks can be devised by the teacher (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001), contained within a CALL program (Hughes, 1997; Milton, 1998), or chosen by the learners, with or without the teacher's guidance (Bernardini, 2002). In this paper the soft version has been used due to inaccessibility of all students to the internet simultaneously at the classroom. In this way, I made some print-out instances from BNC (British National Corpus) in which the pertinent features (i.e. verbs or adjectives and their prepositions) have been highlighted in order to be distinguished from the surrounding context. The task –several cloze tests – have also been designed previously and given to the students to be answered. One of the advantages of using soft version in corpus handling is that all students receive the same language exposure, the same data for the same task and their computer skills or working speed cannot affect the results.

II. RELATED WORK

In recent years, the accessibility of language corpora provides language learners and teachers with great opportunities in learning a language as well as language analysis with the help of various computer programs in order to reveal many aspects of language use quickly and accurately without any need to manually collect and analyze data.

Bernhard Kettemann studied the use of concordances in English Language Teaching (ELT) in grammar, vocabulary works as well as stylistics and literature teaching. In the grammar area, for instance, he looked at *if-clauses*, reported speech, the contrast between present perfect and past tense and some examples of possible contrasts between *since* and *for* (Kettemann, B. 1995). Kennedy investigated the ways of expressing quantification and frequency in ESL (English as a second language) textbooks (Kennedy, 1987a, 1987b). Holmes also examined ways of expressing doubt and certainty in ESL textbooks (Holmes, 1988), while Mindt looked at future time expressions in German textbooks of English (Mindt, 1992). The last three studies have similar methodologies, that is, comparing the relevant constructions or vocabularies in the sample textbooks to those in Standard English corpora. Most of these studies found that there were considerable differences between what textbooks are teaching and how native speakers actually use language as evidenced in the corpora. Costas Gabrielatos in an extensive study first defined corpora and their types and then discussed their contribution to language learning and teaching while providing examples of their use in class. His study also outlined the changes in knowledge, skills and attitudes that are needed for learners and teachers to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the availability of corpus resources. Finally, the paper discussed the limitations of using corpora in language teaching, and the potential pitfalls arising from their uncritical use (Gabrielatos, C. (2005. Davies also used corpora of historical and dialectal texts when teaching an advanced course in Spanish linguistics (Davies, M. 2000).

III. THE EXPERIMENT

The language examples demonstrated by concordances and analyzed by the learners are the most effective way in self-learning certain aspects of language in TEFL classes. The concordance data are claimed to be more comprehensive than those found in dictionaries or textbooks. In this experiment, we have tried to prove this claim by using a very large monolingual corpus of English - British National Corpus (BNC) - in an English language classroom. The students have been provided with a set of concordances and asked to deduce the rules for a certain grammatical feature behind concordance lines. Then the results of the students' consultation of the concordances have been examined.

A. Subjects

The present study is concerned with 50 male and female undergraduate students (in first year, second year and third year) at the English Language Department of Shahrekord University. The native language of the students is Persian and they learn English as their foreign language. All students are familiarized with the way the experiment is going to be carried out, its purpose as well as working with the keywords in the concordance of which they will make use just before the experiment. As the learners face with an unconventional activity in their learning experience requiring them to change their learning strategy, making sure that the students understand the basic mechanism of working with the concordance is the name of the game in such experiments. We select the learners from different grades to be able to evaluate the effect of language proficiency level in this study too.

B. Materials

The material in this experiment consists of two similar test sheets as well as two print-out pages of concordances extracted from BNC corpus. Each student receives the two test sheets, the one as a pre-test and the other as a post-test before and after reading the concordance pages, respectively. The number of tests in the test sheets has been decided to be small not to be tiring for the students in order to reduce the exhaustion influence. The tests are all about using proper preposition for the words taking more than one prepositions based on different contexts. For this study, the two words *responsible* and *agree* are examined for their relevant prepositions which may differ according to the context in which they occur as *responsible for/responsible to*, and *agree on/agree with*. We tried out only these two words since it did not seem worthwhile to engage students' minds with so many grammatical points and concordance lines in such a short time. The concordance lines pertinent to the mentioned words and their prepositions produced by BNC corpus have

been manipulated and rearranged so that they can be suited to the requirements of the experiment conditions like time allocated for the experiment, level and mood of the students, and the type of tests given to be answered. That is, out of 729 concordance lines produced by the corpus for the two search items *responsible for* and *responsible to*, only 40 (20 for each) lines have been selected to be printed for the students. Students are not, of course, aware of the frequency information or the fact that some certain patterns are more frequent than others. The number of actual concordance lines has been contracted because it seemed not desirable to have the students read a lot of concordance lines to teach only one or two grammatical points. Appendix I is the two print-outs of concordance lines used in this experiment and Appendix II is the test sheet given to the learners twice as pre-test and post-tests.

The material has been administrated to the three groups of learners who were randomly selected from the total number of about 170 ESL students in Shahrekord University. For level 1 we selected 16, for level 2, 17 and for the third level 17 students to be contributed in our experiment. These three groups of students were tested separately in different rooms. First, all students were given a pre-test sheet and asked to fill the blanks with the appropriate prepositions using their existing language knowledge (Appendix II). After collecting the sheets, the same students were given a two-page print-out of corpus (Appendix I) in which some concordance lines had been listed showing the related words and prepositions bold and underlined (as usually seen in BNC search engine). A 5 to 10-minute time was allocated for reading the corpus and then the second test sheets (post-test) were distributed to be filled out. While filling out the post-test sheets, the students were invited to remark their self-learning conclusion in terms of some certain rules or regularities on these two words and accompanying prepositions (*responsible for/responsible to*, and *agree on/agree with*).

C. Data Analysis and the Results

The scores of the students in each group were determined by recording the number of tests that they answered correctly. The maximum score for each student in each test sheet was 7. At first, descriptive statistics of the three groups on pre-test and post-test were represented as has been shown in Table 1. Then, the average percent of improvement for each group was calculated using the individual improvements gained from comparing pre-test and post-test of every individual student. The average learning improvement for students in grade one and hence the lowest level of language proficiency was 10.62 percent. The average learning improvement for students in grade two is 17.58 percent, and that of the students in grade 3 – the highest level of language proficiency is 27 percent.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THEE LEVELS SCORES AND IMPROVEMENTS (IMP.)

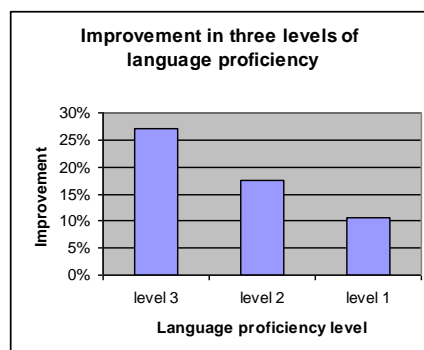| Level 1			Level 2			Level 3		
Pre-test	Post-test	Imp.	Pre-test	Post-test	Imp.	Pre-test	Post-test	Imp.
6	6	0%	7	7	0%	4	6	28%
4	3	-15%	5	5	0%	2	5	43%
7	7	0%	4	7	43%	4	7	43%
6	6	0%	4	6	28%	5	7	29%
2	6	57%	7	7	0%	2	6	57%
5	3	-29%	3	6	43%	5	7	29%
4	6	28%	6	5	-14%	6	7	15%
4	6	28%	5	6	14%	7	7	0%
4	4	0%	5	5	0%	4	7	43%
3	7	58%	4	6	28%	6	7	15%
6	6	0%	5	7	29%	5	7	29%
7	6	-15%	6	7	15%	4	5	14%
3	4	15%	5	6	14%	7	7	0%
6	7	15%	4	6	28%	4	7	43%
5	6	14%	4	6	28%	4	6	28%
5	6	14%	4	5	14%	4	7	43%
			5	7	29%	7	7	0%
Mean		**10.62%**	Mean		**17.58%**	Mean		**27%**

Figure 1. Improvement in three levels of language proficiency

The total improvement of the students on using corpora as a learning tool irrespective of their level of language proficiency has been gained as **18.4**%, that is, a mean concordance effect of 18.4%, which is promising in its own status. Of course, it should be noted that the effect of corpus was not the same for three groups. As figure 1 demonstrates, the effect of corpus on students' self-learning increases as their level of language proficiency enhances. The difference between the mean scores gained in pre-test and post-tests of three groups of students (three levels) has been demonstrated in figure 2. Figures 3 to 5 also show the difference between pre-test and post-test scores of each group of learners in the form of diagrams. These diagrams also display the amount of learning improvement in each group as well as every individual learner.
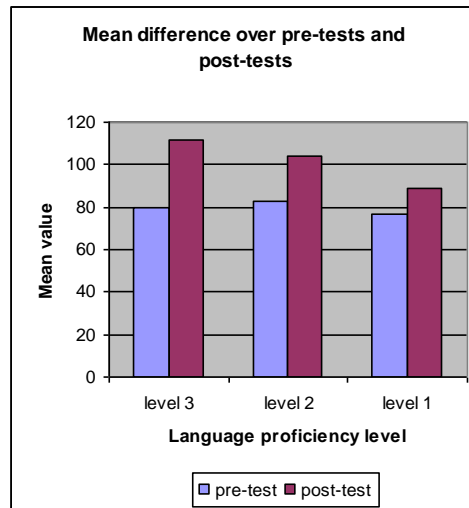
Figure 2. Mean difference over pre-tests and post-tests
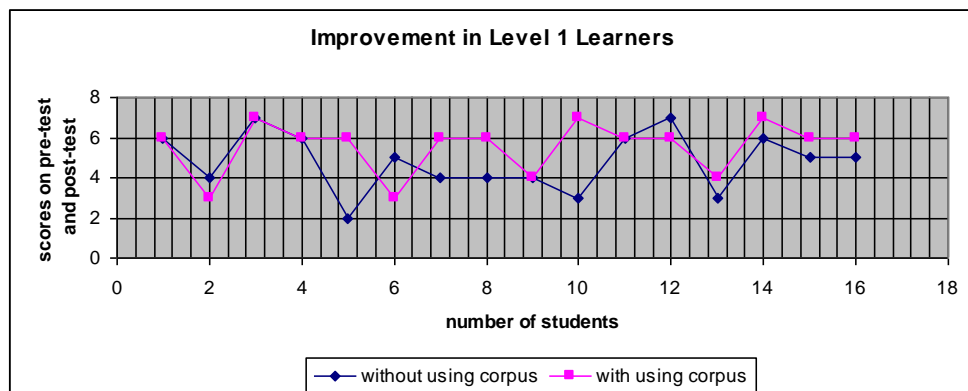
Figure 3. Improvement in Level 1 Learners
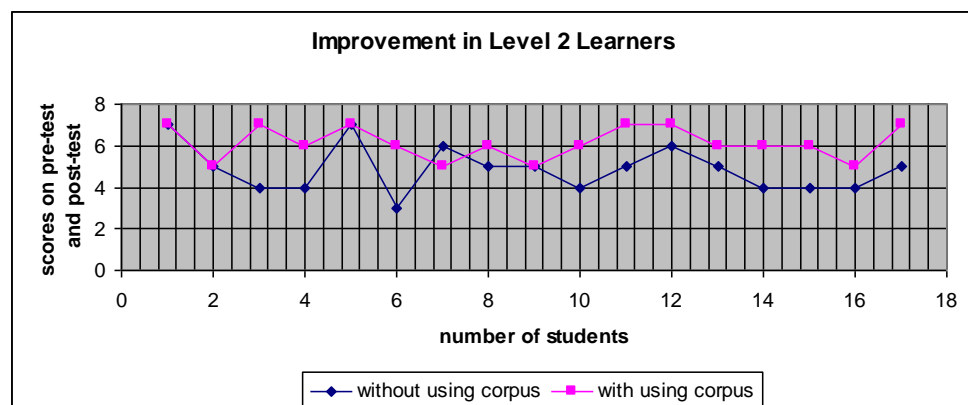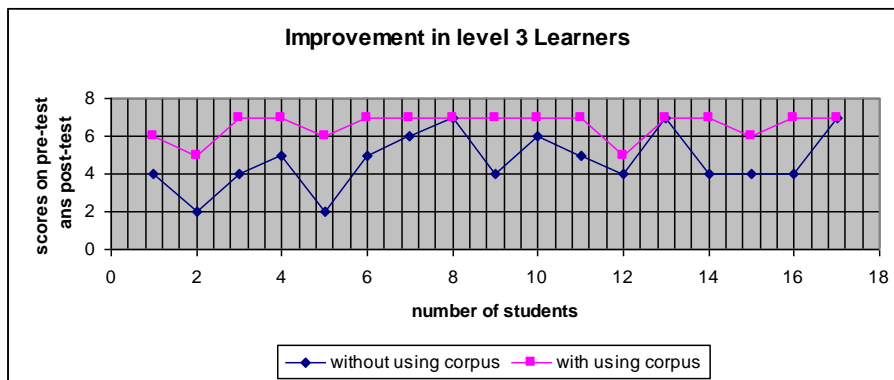

Figure 4. Improvement in Level 2 Learners

Figure 5. Improvement in Level 3 Learners

In these diagrams, the spaces with pink and blue lines in their top and bottom, respectively, are, in fact, the estimated amount of students' improvement. In terms of individuals, out of 50 students, 34 gained higher scores on the post-test comparing to the scores on pre-test, 12 gained equal scores on pre-test and post-test, and 4 gained lower scores on the post-test. In other words, for 68% of the learners the concordance consultation had a positive effect on their learning, for 24% of the learners it had no effect, and for the rest (8%) using the corpus had a negative effect.

Figure 6 aims to simultaneously compare the height of learning improvement in three levels of language proficiency displaying the post-test scores of all the students belonging to different groups in a diagram.
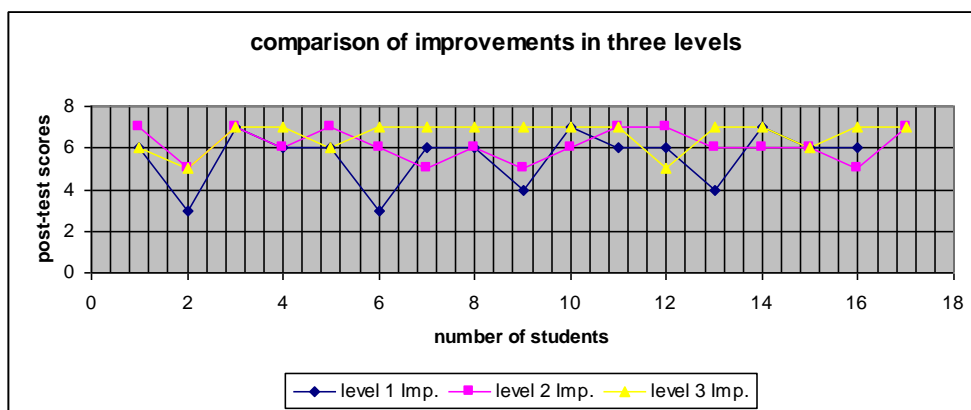

Figure 6. Comparison of Improvement in 3 Levels

According to the students' remarks on their findings about the related syntactic structure, it was revealed that the new and authentic information provided by the corpus were highly appreciated by the majority of the students, especially those belonging to higher levels of language proficiency (mainly, level 3 learners). A few of the learners stated that working with concordance data and the attempt to induce certain patterns and structures help them to memorize the related patterns far easier.

Totally speaking, the obtained data analysis reveals some main results: the students having a little knowledge of English grammar were less able to study the corpus and formulate grammatical rules or syntactic regularities. In contrast, the students mastering English basic grammatical points were obviously able to deal with the data in the corpus and formulate some grammatical rules in order to improve their ability in certain grammatical features. In this regard, some points have to be born in mind. For one thing, the inability of students with a low level of language proficiency to handle corpus may be due to difficult grammatical structures selected for this experiment. As a result, corpus material (corpus samples) may have to be adapted according to the level of learners. For example, when the corpus has to be used by low level learners, the concordance lines should be selected in such a way that they are more tangible for the learners to be able to study the related contexts and extract regularities out of them.

IV. EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

A large number of teachers of foreign languages agree on the fact that most examples in traditional grammar textbooks as well as a majority of entries in conventional dictionaries are standing far apart from what the actual speakers of the language produce. These traditional resources contain only invented examples and descriptions most of which are based on the authors' intuition or second-hand explanations. That is, the authors of such conventional resources try to organize examples and explanations in the way that the language is used by themselves as their mother tongue. But, it is believed that a language belongs to all its native speakers and the textbooks as well as dictionaries

should contain empirical examples and descriptions extracted from the corpora covering almost all varieties of the language produced in real contexts. So, revising grammar textbooks in the way mentioned above is considered as one of the main educational implementations of exploiting corpora in language teaching and learning.

Furthermore, having students to handle the corpus (whether in soft version or in hard version) causes their minds to work more dynamic in order to extract systematic patterns out of unsystematic concordance lines. This kind of learning may be referred to as *creative, self-motivated* or *dynamic* learning. Providing the learners with such an environment may help them learn different language skills thoughtfully and more precise, which can be regarded as another educational implementation of exploiting corpora in language teaching and learning. Costas Gabrielatos makes an analogy in this connection. He says in consulting a dictionary or grammar textbook, learners are given fish; by having them to actively engage in pattern recognition, they learn how to fish (Costas Gabrielatos, 2005).

Using corpora in language classes can also be of great help in learner independence. According to Johns when using corpora or corpus-based materials, "students define their own tasks as they start noticing features of the data for themselves - at times features that had not previously been noticed by the teacher" (Johns, 1997, p. 101). Moreover, certain endowed learners may criticize or question some of the existing rules in their textbooks based on their own examination of the corpus genuine data. This way, they would take the first steps towards becoming promising future researchers by engaging themselves in language awareness.

V. Conclusion and Further Developments

The increasing use of corpora in teaching/learning environment has changed the roles of both teachers and learners in that conventional teacher-centered methodologies have turned into learner-centered ones. In such environment the actual and authentic rather than invented examples of language are exposed to learners to decide on language patterns and produce more explanatory and empirical answers to their questions. In this context, teachers are no longer the only source of knowledge for the learners, rather they act as administrators, moderators, advisors or catalysts in the learning process of the students.

Unfortunately, many language teachers have little or no awareness of corpus potentials in language learning, partly due to their limited access to corpora and corpus tools. Hopefully, however, many corpora can be reached freely or at low-cost price (See the appendix III.). Teachers need to be informed not only of linguistic corpora and their contents, but also of various corpus analysis tools (software) to become skilled users and be able to guide their students in dealing with corpus data. Moreover, process-oriented approach to learning should become part of material design in language teaching syllabus. Using corpora in classroom does not imply that the teachers should abandon the existing teaching methodologies, but it means to improve and enrich classroom activities.

The aim of the present study was to examine the effectiveness of students' consultation of the corpora in the realm of grammar. However, there are still a lot of ground to be covered by various types of corpora for research to strengthen the integration of corpora in other areas like lexicon, stylistics, cultural studies and the like. In the new era of information and communication technology (ICT) we need some kind of modifications in approaches to teaching and learning to provide the future generations with more opportunities for exploiting technology in learning.

APPENDIX I Print-out Sheets Extracted from BNC

responsible to / responsible for

1	A69	November 1981 The old Minister of Health, 1949–64, was **responsible to** Parliament directly for the hospital services, being almost
2	A6L	as a changing, improving exercise benefitting his company, those **responsible to** him and for him. He must have courage since there
3	A6L	or organisation. He must learn to delegate, encouraging those **responsible to** him by placing responsibility and authority on them as part
4	A77	Catering Service (UK) has its headquarters in York. **Responsible to** the General Officer Commanding the Military District, their task is
5	ACP	that were costing him $3,000 a shot. "I was **responsible to** myself," recalls Koons, a little defensively. "I
6	ADC	of Carthage repeatedly upheld the principle that "a bishop is **responsible to** God alone". But he did not mean that a
7	AM8	must have a justice system that is fair, accessible and **responsible to** the citizen. We have introduced new powers for the Court
8	B0S	In early times the Shire Reeve, or Sheriff, was **responsible to** the Crown for the administration of the county. Later Justices
9	B0S	London borough must appoint an Electoral Registration Officer, who is **responsible to** the Central Government for the preparation of
10	B2S	of the Polishing Room was put in charge, and directly **responsible to** him was the Canteen Manageress, Miss Dolling. There was
11	B2W	would produce glanders in another horse. Sewell had been made **responsible to** Coleman for maintaining discipline among the students.
12	BLY	also composed of individuals (children and teachers) and are **responsible to** other individuals (parents) within the framework of a
13	BPH	trustee in bankruptcy" who was one of themselves, and **responsible to** a Committee of Inspection. Since the abolition of direct
14	C8T	be discouraged. He said: "Who will you be **responsible to**? The Secretary of State for Energy directly or the AEA
15	C90	have a form of government administered by an alien agency partly **responsible to** the people of the country itself?" To these questions
16	CBX	question the need for a statutory audit. Auditors should be **responsible to** a wider audience, including potential shareholders and

17	CLR	handed over to an authority that is utterly undemocratic and is **responsible to** nobody". There might have been an economic argument
18	CLY	I) Thus the Minister (Secretary of State) is **responsible to** Parliament for local educational administration. In effect his powers are
19	CMB	constituents …. Those who control great engines of publicity are **responsible to** no one but themselves; equally their methods are their
20	EAU	Computer Group will comprise: the New OED Computer Group Manager **responsible to** the Head of Computer Development for the

1	A03	presiding judge finding members of the South African Defence Force criminally **responsible for** the deaths of four people and rejected
2	A03	some cases of "disappearance" the whole family is held **responsible for** the "crime" of one of its members. One
3	A03	held in February this year concluded that no-one could be held **responsible for** the death. De Klerk dismissed suggestions that he can't
4	A04	, the incoming editor of the newspaper's art page and **responsible for** the dismissal, had made a challenge to a climate of
5	A05	mother! It goes without saying that the definition has been **responsible for** a major literature. But about many of its manifestations there
6	A05	is greater, and it is their own men who are **responsible for** some of that injury. Patrick rages and scorns in proportion to his
7	A07	Murray, had accepted a position on the National Education Board **responsible for** the schools. The controversy was so deep that an
8	A08	me it was your smile that did it. Am I **responsible for** that? I asked him. Yes, he said.
9	A08	of the instincts. Revulsion at the thought that I am **responsible for** it. At the thought that I could ever have imagined
10	A0E	a Senior Commissioning Editor at Channel 4, where he is **responsible for** Independent Film and Video. Alan Fountain was deeply
11	A0H	one person should take charge of the whole operation and be **responsible for** the safety of the aircraft. This is normally either the
12	A0M	, even when not fighting. In practice a contestant is held **responsible for** the behaviour of team-members and the coach, and he may
13	A0P	by which every Jewish boy technically becomes adult (i.e. morally **responsible for** his actions), a "son of the law"
14	A0P	's religious establishment (re-establishment), but was almost certainly **responsible for** a great deal of the safeguarding and consolidation
15	A0T	Libet of the University of California at San Francisco has been **responsible for** two sets of experiments which are often cited as crucial
16	A0Y	agency or booking fee, and staff may be self-employed and **responsible for** their own tax and national insurance contributions. Further
17	A0Y	considered to have entered into a binding contract, and become **responsible for** the cost, even if they are not related to the deceased
18	A30	draft EC package-holiday directive could make tour operators or travel agents **responsible for** personal injury claims and losses as well
19	A30	"Kenneth Clarke's refusal to talk proves conclusively who is **responsible for** the continuation of the dispute. Mr Clarke knows how
20	A3K	tenants under the Housing Act 1988, and landlords should be **responsible for** all repairs. Property Update: Skye's the limit By

agree on / agree with

1	A1A	to which both his admirers and his detractors are unable to **agree on** what kind of writer Derrida is, or even what he
2	A1A	and feminist ones. Such disparate allegiances are more likely to **agree on** what they oppose than in what they support. The different
3	A1Y	to a strict timetable since scientists and technologists did not yet **agree on** how nuclear plants could be decommissioned safely. "For
4	A2E	of moving to Fourth Division Lincoln City if the clubs can **agree on** a fee. Roberts, on the transfer list at his
5	A37	. The serious business of taking the tough decisions necessary to **agree on** a budget that both puts the deficit on a downward path
6	A3T	intakes at power stations. Once the world's nations can **agree on** how to exploit mineral deposits on the seabed, the robots
7	A56	by trying to deny it, and now they can not **agree on** who should do what or how or why. World View
8	A59	would not push to legislate while neither shops nor shoppers could **agree on** a solution, pressure groups could not agree, and
9	A5M	they were optimistic that a working group of senior deputies could **agree on** the reforms, which give the Muslims equal representation
10	A5Y	White Paper on cabling Britain because two government departments can not **agree on** how it should be paid for. At the heart
11	A68	this up in realms of high theology then we shall all **agree on** what we can not understand. Ramsey was determined on clarity
12	A68	not in common. The commission moved away from the idea that Christians **agree on** what is important and disagree only on what is
13	A6F	effort is likely to be politically disastrous, even if they can **agree on** a successor. The above are all classic instruments by which
14	A6G	of generations." Fortunately, they were thus able to **agree on** her name. Ruby was flown, still frozen, to
15	A7N	may not match. Measurements are "objective" inasmuch as scientists **agree on** the thumb to be used as the ruler. Primatologist Emil
16	A8J	was evidence of a difference of views. "Generally we **agree on** how the situation in South Africa looks today." The
17	A9M	to supra-national monetary union. But EC governments will have to **agree on** what changes to make to the Treaty of Rome by the
18	A9M	' co-operation was needed and we always found it difficult to **agree on** rules. Mick and Paddy had been well briefed on most
19	AA4	's party, said all political forces and ethnic groups should **agree on** a consensus that would fight for this goal, as well as social
20	AA4	the idea of a pan-European summit, but the participants must **agree on** how it will fit into the building of the "new

1	A08	up on the wrong side or eaten something which didn't **agree with** you or just need a few days' rest. It
2	A0C	UNFAIR EVERYONE is entitled to their opinion, and while I **agree with** Joe Hyam's concerning service charges (Caterer, 15–21
3	A0K	few who are questioning the state of play, and who **agree with** Ben Whitaker (1979: 312) when he urged &bquo;

4	A0U	." My friend laughed. "Well some people might **agree with** you that Englishness was a condition of a kind. A
5	A1B	, most salutary twenty and thirty years ago; I still **agree with** him against the academic admirers of Milton; though to me
6	A35	to the Secretary of the Wellington Fund: "I quite **agree with** the Committee in its predilection for a pillar. I was
7	A3E	the most agreeable and informative way. One does not always **agree with** her. She commends Barry for "his ability to build
8	A3G	without first asking each of them what they think. I **agree with** them. "That is no way to make policy in
9	A44	but no good streets From Mr ROGER JAMES Sir: I **agree with** Jonathan Glancey when he says, in your welcome new Architecture
10	A6F	political issues found that majorities of voters for all three parties **agree with** each other on more than two-thirds of all issues, that
11	A6S	[Leach, 1961]. Furthermore, all anthropologists would **agree with** Engels that the type of marriage and the type of
12	A6V	literate and well informed, but they would smile politely and **agree with** their husbands. When I spoke to some of these women
13	A7F	don't make for an easy life." I would **agree with** him, but then when did caterers ever ask for an
14	A7L	were not always fair in their criticism: few today would **agree with** the New Statesman reviewer who wrote of The Lady Vanishes
15	A8C	just can't bowl at all … B: For once, I **agree with** you there, Closey, old pal --; and do you
16	AAH	matching shopping trolly for her different outfits But how much I **agree with** the lady who wanted the cost of High Street Christmas
17	AA9	he has one that really works, he would probably not **agree with** that picture of himself as fighting against the tide. As
18	AAB	. But since I represent the country, I can not **agree with** this," he stated. Despite the party leadership's
19	AAC	say how much I disagree with nearly everything he said and **agree with** nearly everything said by the Right Honourable Gentleman
20	AAF	you so much for Tony Parsons' brilliant article. I **agree with** every word. Thank God someone's said it. We

APPENDIX II PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SHEET

1- She is directly responsible ----- the President. (to / for)
2- Who will be responsible ----- me? (to / for)
3- Smoking is responsible ----- many cases of lung cancer. (to / for)
4- Are we all agreed ----- the best course of action? (on / with)
5- But the two sides could not agree ----- what to do to control the emissions of sulphur. (on / with)
6- The verb agrees ------ its subject in number and person. (on / with)
7- Does she agree ------ you about the need for more schools? (on / with)

APPENDIX III FREE/AFFORDABLE CORPORA AND CORPUS TOOLS

1- British National Corpus Sampler (1 million words or written and 1 million words of spoken English): http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/getting/sampler.html. Also, free, but restricted, access to the full BNC: http://sara.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/lookup.html
2- Collins Wordbanks *Online* English corpus (concordance and collocation samplers): http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx
3- The Complete Lexical Tutor: http://132.208.224.131
4- Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE): http://www.hti.umich.edu/m/micase
5- Variation in English Words and Phrases (Mark Davies, Brigham Young University).
6- 6- Interface to the full British National Corpus (100 million words): http://view.byu.edu/
7- Web Concordancer (works with a variety of corpora): http://www.edict.com.hk/concordance/
8- WebCorp: The Web As Corpus (University of Liverpool): http://www.webcorp.org.uk/
9- WordNet: A Lexical Database for the English Language (Princeton University): http://www.cogsci.princeton.edu/~wn
10- WordSmith Tools: http://www1.oup.co.uk/elt/catalogue/Multimedia/WordSmithTools3.0

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New Developments of Business English from ESP in China[*]

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Abstracts—In recent years, researchers have made ongoing researches into the new development of business English as a sub-branch of ESP in China since the Ministry of Education approved business English as a formalized new discipline in 2007. The paper, through review and reflection into the findings of the previous researchers and the practices of business English in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and other institutions, has concluded that the implication of business English in China has been broadened because it has evolved into a new discipline as a revolution in linguistics, and business English, as a comprehensive inter-discipline developed from ESP, is now faced with some new developments in China in areas such as disciplinary development, course design, teaching approach, teaching staff development, and student evaluation system.

Index Terms—ESP, business English, new development, China

I. INTRODUCTION

In the West, in the middle 1900s, linguistics changed silently in the wave of economic and social changes, during which researchers stated to concentrate their research focus on the application of languages in various contexts rather than on the regulation of language usages. At this period, ESP, namely English for Special Purpose, came into being with EST (English for Science and Technology) as an area of its activity. Contemporary business English originates from the Western countries in this era as a sub-branch of the so-called ESP described as a revolution of linguistics (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Ellis & Johnson, 1994). It is also a special branch of learning appearing in the background of economic globalization and trade internationalization. Currently, business English is becoming more and more important in academic position and has become the sub-branch of ESP with the fasted development. For example, in the UK, many series of business English books such as BEC and Market Leader, have been widely published and applied in countries like China today.

In China, business English can be traced back to the earliest era of 1950s, when high education institutions started to set the course of Foreign Trade English which mainly included such core courses as English electronic communication, selected readings of the Western paper, and oral English of foreign trade, etc. In 1990s, going along with the globalization of Chinese economy and the rapid increase of foreign trade volume, talents of business English had become increasingly welcome by the society. As a result, business English began to replace foreign trade English. For example, in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, a new school called the School of English for Business specializing in teaching business English undergraduate and postgraduate programs was established with the integration of teachers from Faculty of English Language and Culture, School of Law, and School of International Trade and Economics.

At present, business English in China is highly recognized in the society as one of the most popular disciplines rather than an approach to learning English. Statistics shows that the number of universities that have opened business English major courses exceeds 800, and the schooling levels, majors and degrees are more and more diversified. For example,

in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, there are already five undergraduate programs and four postgraduate programs. Graduates of business English are very popular in MNCs and other international business enterprises.

This paper summarizes and reflects on the specific new developments of business English from ESP in China from the aspects including status of disciplinary development, course design, teaching approach, teaching staff development, and student evaluation system, hoping to achieve some new perspectives for the better development of it in China and to offer some references to its development in other countries.

II.   New Developments of Business English from ESP in China

The new developments of business English from ESP in China include the status of disciplinary development, course design, teaching approach, teaching staff development, and student evaluation system, which are seen as follows:

A.   Disciplinary Development

In China today, Business English evolving from ESP has developed into a formalized discipline from the concept of register analysis in recent years, which forms a brand-new innovative way to the development of ESP different from other countries (See Table 1).

TABLE 1
ROUTE OF DISCIPLINARY DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS ENGLISH AS A SUB-BRANCH IN CHINA

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5	Stage 6	Stage 7
Register analysis	Discourse analysis	Target situation analysis	Skills and strategies Analysis	Learning-centred approach	Business English major	Business English discipline

In general, Business English evolving from ESP has a development history of over 50 years through 7 stages in China. The first stage occurring in 1960's is called register analysis, with Halliday (1964) as its representative researcher, emphasizing on the identification of grammatical and lexical features of technical or engineering English.

The second stage occurring in 1970's is called discourse analysis, with Winddowson (1974, 1978) as one of the representative researchers, emphasizing on the development of a knowledge of how sentences are used in the performance of different communicative acts.

The third stage occurring in the late 1970's is called target situation analysis, with Munby (1978) as one of the representative researchers, emphasizing on the procedures for relating language analysis more closely to learners' reasons or needs for learning in communicative method, content, course design, etc. The forth stage occurring in the early 1980s is called skills and strategy analysis, with Grellet, F. (1981) and many others as its representative researches, assuming the idea that the application of languages has a similar thinking and interpreting process.

The fifth stage occurring in the late 1980s is called learning-centered approach, with Hutchinson & Waters (1987) as the major representative, emphasizing on the understanding of language learning process, namely regarding ESP as a teaching approach or a systematic project including curriculum design, teaching planning, teaching material selection, teaching organization, and supervision and test on the learning process.

The fifth stage and the sixth stage are the stages happening in China as the brand new developments of Business English which are the major focus of the intend research. The fifth stage starting from the 1990s or even a little earlier era in China is named as Business English major in universities rather than perspective of academic studies in ESP. This stage occurs as a result of the needs for cultivating more Business English talents in line with the country's rapid development of international trade and economics after the opening-up policy. Its main focus is on how to develop and educate more competitive college students or trainees with a dual purpose of good language proficiency and good specialty knowledge in business fields by setting up necessary major courses, curriculum designs and teaching practices under the discipline of linguistics and applied linguistics.

The sixth stage occurring in the early 2000, to be exact in 2007, is named as Business English discipline, emphasizing on the formation of a completely new disciplinary theory and the establishment of a separate disciplinary system from the past applied linguistics, which constitutes the unique development route different from any other country. Well-known scholars, for instance, Chen Zhunming, Lin Tainhu (2006) and Wong Fengxiang (2009), etc., argue that Business English in China has become a new cross-discipline which applies theories and methods of linguistics, culture studies, management theory, economics to research on the phenomenon of linguistics and culture in international communication activities and to describe and interpret the features of English language and cultural factors used by people.

B.   Course Design

The course design for the newly approved discipline of Business English in China has developed with different characteristics from traditional ESP as a result of their differences in teaching or learning objectives. For instance, Business English, compared with ESP, has a more extensive or broader teaching goal such as allowing learners to understand and master basic business theories, business environment and business terms related to business world while ESP is limited to the study of English language knowledge in a particular sector or industry context such as chemistry, medicine or tourism. Due to the different teaching or learning objectives, the courses of Business English for undergraduate or postgraduate programs has been designed with a general principle of approximately 70% English

language courses and 30% courses of business theories and practices such as Introduction to Business, Introduction to Economics, International Trade, Business Communication, International Finance, International settlement, etc.

The modular course design for Business English major is usually allocated with a total credit of 2800 teaching hours, with the first year concentrating on the study of English language knowledge for the preparation of a sound language foundation for the future study of business theories and practices in English. In the second year, the courses are still mostly designed with English language knowledge, but some basic business courses like Introduction to Business are also arranged in order to pave a foundation for learning more complicated business courses. In the third year, the major courses are business ones with very few language courses left. These courses are mainly selective ones for learners to choose according to their interests. In the forth year, there are still some business courses left for selection in the first semester but only dissertation writing is left for learners in the second semester.

C. Teaching Approach

Teaching business courses in English or bilingual language has become the main mode of Business English teaching in Chinese universities. Teaching business courses in English means that English is used in the whole procedure of teaching, including PPT arrangement, lecturing, research report, assignment, case study, test, question and answer, but at the same local language may also used to explain some key terms, concepts and difficult points (Zhu, 2004). Of course, teaching business courses in English is different from teaching business courses in bilingual languages, but we can also say that teaching business courses in English is a senior form of teaching business courses in bilingual languages. In China, bilingual teaching refers to the mode of teaching with English and Chinese used simultaneously, which normally requires that English should be used in on the board, but partial English and partial Chinese should be used. Both single English teaching (or English-instructed teaching) and bilingual teaching have one thing in common, which is the textbook used in the teaching must be textbooks introduced from foreign countries or comprised by Chinese professors. In fact, as a result of the fact that single English teaching, which may be accompanied by Chinese explanation of difficulty points, the difference between single English teaching and bilingual teaching tends to be smaller and smaller in China.

In addition, other teaching methods are also becoming more and more popular in business English teaching, for example, simulation teaching, task teaching, interactive teaching, etc. These teaching methods can be very applicable in business English teaching as a result of its dual roles of the teaching, namely improving students' English language abilities and business knowledge and skills.

D. Teaching Staff Development

Teachers of business English should possess unique features of multi-skills as a main development trend in China today. These multi-skilled teachers or professors of business English must be proficient in English language and well-developed in a certain field of business study so as to well teach a certain type of business course in English. Such a type of multi-skilled teacher team can be divided into three basic categories including (Refer to Table 2): (1) teachers of English major + business management major who can teach both English courses and business management courses and conduct academic researches in both the fields of study; (2) teachers of English major + fairly good business management knowledge base ho can mainly teach English courses and conduct academic researches mainly in the linguistic field of study; (3) teachers of business management major + fairly good English language base who can mainly teach business management courses in English, and conduct academic researches mainly in the field of business management. In addition, this types of teachers of business English are acquired through various approaches such as sending teachers of English major to a foreign university to study for a master or doctor program in business management, recruiting teachers of two majors, recruiting foreign exports to teach business management courses, etc. Take School of English for International Business of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies as an example. Multi-skilled teachers who can teach business English courses in English account for about 30% of the staff, business English teachers has two majors of English language and business management account for about 8%, and what's more, over 58% staff have experiences of degree study or academic visiting research in foreign universities.

TABLE 2
THREE BASIC TYPES OF MULTI-SKILLED TEACHER TEAM PROFICIENT FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH IN CHINA

No.	Type	Description of abilities
1	Teachers of English major + business management major	This type of business English teachers has two majors, who can teach both English courses and business management courses and conduct academic researches in both the fields of study.
2	Teachers of English major + fairly good business management knowledge base	This type of business English teachers has an English major, who can mainly teach English courses and conduct academic researches mainly in the linguistic field of study.
3	Teachers of business management major + fairly good English language base	This type of business English teachers has a business management major, who can mainly teach business management courses in English, and conduct academic researches mainly in the field of business management.

E. Student Evaluation System

The existing evaluation system of Business English students' study performance is still under construction and

perfection in China, which is currently a very special system still adopting the same system of CET (College English Test). CET is a national level English proficiency test including band-four and band-six for English major students, which can not distinguish the differences of Business English major from those of general English major. However, in recent years, as a supplementary method of evaluation, BEC Test and China Business English Certificate Test (Organized by China Association of International Trade) are also being used or developed to evaluate the study performance of Business English students at different levels. But a more perfected evaluation system for Business English students' abilities and study performance should be developed as soon as possible.

III. CONCLUSION

As a result of the six-stage development of business English as a sub-branch of ESP, since the Ministry of Education approved business English as a formalized new discipline in 2007, Business English in China has been highly recognized in the society as one of the most popular disciplines rather than an approach to learning English. The paper, through review and reflection into the findings of the previous researchers and the practices of business English in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies and other institutions, concludes that the implication of business English in China has been broadened because it has evolved into a new discipline as a revolution in linguistics, and business English, as a comprehensive inter-discipline developed from ESP, is now faced with some new developments in China in areas such as disciplinary development, course design, teaching approach, teaching staff development, and student evaluation system.

In disciplinary development, Business English in China has become a new cross-discipline which applies theories and methods of linguistics, culture studies, management theory, economics to research on the phenomenon of linguistics and culture in international communication activities and to describe and interpret the features of English language and cultural factors used by people. In course design, Business English in China has developed with different characteristics from traditional ESP as a result of their differences in teaching or learning objectives. In teaching approach, teaching business courses in English or bilingual language has become the main mode of Business English teaching in Chinese universities. In teaching staff development, teachers of Business English should possess unique features of multi-skills as a main development trend in China today, and these multi-skilled teachers or professors of business English who can be divided into three basic categories must be proficient in English language and well-developed in a certain field of business study so as to well teach a certain type of business course in English. In student evaluation system, Business English students are now tested by using the same system of CET (College English Test). But supplementary methods of evaluation are also developed and applied in recent years.

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The Comparative Analysis of Two Songs by Farhad Mehrad: The View of New Historicism

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Abstract—This study is an endeavor to compare two pieces of literary texts in terms of the embedded history and culture. The case in point is the poetic discourse data. The data at hand are two Persian songs *Jomeh* (meaning Friday) and *Shabaneh* (meaning of the night), sung by the famous Persian legendary rock singer, Farhad Mehrad. Analysis is done within the framework of new historical literary criticism. Results suggested very close interconnectedness within the two songs. Traces of strangulation as well as despair were found in both literary texts reflecting the dominant discourse of the period.

Index Terms—literary criticism, new historicism, poetic discourse data, Persian songs

I. INTRODUCTION

New historicist Criticism took shape in the late 1970s and early 1980s as opposed to *New Criticism* and to the critical *deconstruction*. It views literary texts as "situated" and "negotiated", the oft-disregard fragmentary view lies beyond a work (Putra, 2009). Its intent is the diminishment of the barriers put up between history and art and politics and literature (Cook-Lynn, 1997). It asks critics to attend to literature's shifting political, ideological, and sociological contexts, and in doing so disables the homogenizing abstractions of traditional comparative approaches (Marcus, 2003).

New historicism rejects both traditional historicism's marginalization of literature and New Criticism's enshrinement of the literary text in a timeless dimension beyond history. For new historical critics, a literary text does not embody the author's intention or illustrate the spirit of the age that produced it, as traditional literary historians asserted. Nor are literary texts self-sufficient art objects that transcend the time and place in which they were written, as New Critics believed. Rather, literary texts are cultural artifacts that can tell us something about the interplay of discourses, the web of social meanings, operating in the time and place in which the text was written. In addition, they can do so because the literary text is itself part of the interplay of discourses, a thread in the dynamic web of social meaning. For new historicism, the literary text and the historical situation from which it emerged are equally important because text (the literary work) and context (the historical conditions that produced it) are mutually constitutive: they create each other. Like the dynamic interplay between individual identity and society, literary texts shape and are shaped by their historical contexts (Tyson, 2006). According to new historicism, the circulation of literary and non-literary texts produces relations of social power within a culture.

For new historical literary critics, then, the literary text, through its representation of human experience at a given time and place, is an interpretation of history. As such, the literary text maps the discourses circulating at the time it was written and is itself one of those discourses. That is, the literary text shaped and was shaped by the discourses circulating in the culture in which it was produced. According to this school of thoughts (as cited in Tyson, 2006):

• The writing of history is a matter of interpretations, not facts. Thus, all historical accounts are narratives and can be analyzed using many of the tools used by literary critics to analyze narrative.

• History is neither linear (it does not proceed neatly from cause A to affect and from cause B to affect C) nor progressive (the human species is not steadily improving over the course of time).

• Power is never wholly confined to a single person or a single level of society. Rather, power circulates in a culture through exchanges of material goods, exchanges of human beings, and, most important for literary critics, exchanges of ideas through the various discourses a culture produces.

• There is no monolithic (single, unified, universal) spirit of an age, and there is no adequate totalizing explanation of history (an explanation that provides a single key to all aspects of a given culture). There is only a dynamic, unstable interplay among discourses, the meanings of which the historian can try to analyze, though that analysis will always be incomplete, accounting for only a part of the historical picture.

• Personal identity—like historical events, texts, and artifacts—is shaped by and shapes the culture in which it emerges. Thus, cultural categories such as normal and abnormal, sane and insane, are matters of definition. Put another

way, our individual identity consists of the narratives we tell ourselves about ourselves, and we draw the material for our narratives from the circulation of discourses that constitutes our culture.

• All historical analysis is unavoidably subjective. Historians must therefore reveal the ways in which they know they have been positioned, by their own cultural experience, to interpret history.

Greenblatt first used the term *new historicism* in his 1982 introduction to *The Power of Forms in the English Renaissance* in which he uses Quinn Elizabeth's bitter reaction to the revival of Shakespeare's *Richard II* on the eve of the Essex rebellion to illustrate the mutual permeability of the literary and the historical (Greenblatt, 2005). Michel Foucault (2002), one of the leading new historicists, explored the relation between discourse and reality of an era. Foucault defines a discourse as language practice, the language that is used by various constituencies such as law, the medicine, the church, etc, to do power relationships between people. In *The Archaeology of Knowledge,* Foucault posits discourse refers to the general domain of all statements, sometimes as an individualized group of statements, and sometimes as a regulated practice that accounts for a number of statements. Moreover, he asserts, discourse brought people into accounts of its discursive regularities, that there are some external and internal exclusions when discourses are being produced, such a complex system of multiple constraints acts, which bring discourse into existence. There are some external exclusions overcoming the set of discourse procedures including *the taboo*. In addition, Foucault states another four internal exclusions within the discourse procedures including *commentary, author, disciplines*, and *the rarefaction of speaking subject*. Thus, discourses should be seen as groups of statements, which are associated with institutions, which are authorized in some sense and which have some unity of function at a fundamental level. (As cited in Putra, 2009).

Raymond Williams (1980), the Britain leading advocate of new historicism, describes the analysis of all forms of signification, including quite centrally writing, within the actual means and conditions of their production. He coined the term cultural materialism. Both new historicism and cultural materialism seek to understand literary texts historically and reject the formalizing influence of previous literary studies, including new criticism, structuralism and deconstruction, all of which in varying ways privilege the literary text and place only secondary emphasis on historical and social context. Louis Montrose (1992), another major innovator and exponent of new historicism, describes a fundamental axiom of the movement as an intellectual belief in the textuality of history and the historicity of texts. New historicism also draws on the work of Levi-Strauss, in particular his notion of culture as a self-regulating system. The Foucaldian premise that power is ubiquitous and cannot be equated with state or economic power and Gramsci's conception of "hegemony," i.e., that domination is often achieved through culturally orchestrated consent rather than force, are critical underpinnings to the new historicist perspective. The translation of the work of Mikhail Bakhtin on carnival coincided with the rise of the new historicism and cultural materialism (cf. Brewton, 2002).

In its period of ascendancy during the 1980s, new historicism drew criticism from the political left for its depiction of counter-cultural expression as always co-opted by the dominant discourses. Equally, new historicism's lack of emphasis on literariness and formal literary concerns brought disdain from traditional literary scholars. However, New Historicism continues to exercise a major influence in the humanities and in the extended conception of literary studies.

This paper thus aims at comparing two pieces of literary texts in terms of the embedded history and culture. The theoretical framework of the study is that of new historical literary criticism. The data are two Persian songs by the famous Persian legendary rock singer, Farhad Mehrad. The first song, *Jome* (meaning Friday), was written by famous Persian lyricist, Shahyar Ghanbari and the second one, *Shabaneh* (meaning of the night), was written by the famous Persian poet, Ahmad Shamloo. Both poems were performed in 1970s before the victory of the Islamic revolution of Iran; however, they were both re-released 1990s after the victory of the Islamic revolution. The analysis in this paper is guided by following questions:

1. What language/events presented in the work reflect the current events of the poet's (singer's) day?
2. How are such events interpreted and presented?
3. How are events' interpretation and presentation a product of the culture of the poet (singer)?
4. Does the work's presentation support or condemn the event?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Materials

The data analyzed in this section are two Persian songs by the famous Persian legendary rock singer, Farhad Mehrad. The first song, *Jomeh* (meaning Friday), was written by the Famous Persian lyricist, Shahyar Ghanbari in early 1970s.It was initially released as the video music of the movie, *Khodahafez Rafigh* (meaning Goodbye Friend), in 1971. The second song, *Shabaneh* (meaning of the night), was written by the famous Persian poet, Ahmad Shamloo, in the collection *Moments and Forever* in 1964. The song was then performed by Farhad in 1970s. Both songs were next released in the album , *Vahdat* (meaning unity) in 1990s.

B. Procedure

Each song was first broken into its constituent clauses. The clauses of each song were next analyzed and interpreted in terms of the dominant historical context as well as the cultural and intellectual history of the period. As the songs

were analyzed within the framework of new historical literary criticism, the poet's intention or the spirit of the age that produced it, was not taken into consideration.

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In the following analysis, it is tried that the aforementioned research questions be answered.

Shahyar Ghanbari's *Jomeh* (1971) and Ahmad Shamloo's *Shabaneh* (1964) were both published during one of the Iranian greatest periods of the oppression, cruelty, extravagance, and corruption. Mohammad Reza Pahlavi's decisions and policies in 1970s, before the victory of the Islamic revolution (1979), were strongly faced with dissatisfactions. The basic functional failures within the regime including an over-ambitious economic program that brought economic bottlenecks, shortages, inflation, and accelerating gap between rich and poor in the society led to many protests and demonstrations. Pahlavi's regime was also known for its autocracy, its focus on modernization and westernization and for its disregard for religious and democratic measures in Iran's constitution. Leftist, nationalist and Islamist groups attacked his government for violating the Iranian constitution, political corruption, and the political oppression.

Many of the protests were strongly oppressed by the security forces, *Savak* (secret police). However they were unable to deal with the large number of the protests and demonstrations as the extraordinarily large size of the anti-shah movement meant that there were too many protesters to arrest, and that the security forces were overwhelmed.

Thus, the dominant discourse of the time is that of strong strangulation, despair, and oppression. The first song *Jomeh* (1971) was produced and performed as the tremendous criticism against the increasingly oppressive government of Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi and helped cement its reputation as a serious violator of the human rights. The brutal crackdown after the 15 Khordad (5 June) uprising (1963) convinced many young critics of the Shah's government that there was no hope for peaceful reform of the system. Rather, Iranian activists saw the only way forward as revolutionary overthrown of the entire monarchical system. They believed that small armed attacks would shock the system and create space for necessary political action and arouse the masses.

On 8 February 1971, one of this small opposition groups, the leftist guerrilla, launched their first attack on the gendarmerie post of the small village of Siahkal, situated close to Lahijan. The attack proved disastrous: the group's contact in the village, a school teacher, had already been captured by *Savak*, and the local farmers immediately turned against the guerillas. The government mobilized a tremendous military response, much larger than anticipated by the guerillas. Thousands of troops and several helicopters scoured the country-side for days until ultimately all were killed or captured.

Although the Siahkal assault was unquestionably a military defeat, it proved a political and propaganda turning point in the struggle against the Shah, as it pointed out the development of a hitherto unseen level of resistance against the imperial regime. The government's overwhelming response only served to highlight the Shah's fear of armed resistance and imbued the fighters with a popular mystique. Siahkal eventually became known as the foundation of the anti-Shah guerilla movement and as a major step in the struggle that led to the overthrow of the Shah.

Jome (Friday) reflects the major tenets of the discourse of the period and the incident of Siahkal through the thorough characterizations and simple imagery, which contributes significantly to the intensity of the song. The choice of *Jome* (Friday) exactly refers back to the day of the incident. The use of the terms "sad ", " black clouds", "mourning clothes", " dense clouds ", "blood" in the song largely reflect the discourse of the darkness, despair and oppression. "Blood is dripping from the black cloud" represent the dominant bloody atmosphere of the violence and insecurity in the society indicating the death of the martyrs of the incident.

The verse "Fridays don't come to an end" clearly suggests lyricist's despair of changing the time. In addition, the lyricist's exaggeration and vicious circle of the verse "Blood is dripping from the black cloud" and "On Fridays blood is dripping, and not rain" emphasizes the dominant discourse of the time that the period of despondency, oppression, and torture is never ended up. The lyricist's desperation of ignoring the dominant oppression and torture of the society is clearly represented when "Wish I could close my eyes, but I can't".

The lyricist's exaggeration concerning the age of Friday reflect the lyricist boredom of lingering the period of torture suggesting that the time is never ended up. "And cries with sealed lips," chiefly reflect the armed uprisings and strong strangulation which would not allow any verbal criticism, as well. Also the ambiguity in the last stanza of the lyric, " Friday is the time to leave, the season of forsaking " meant that we should either leave the county or revolutionize and being martyred, suggest the only way forward as revolutionary overthrown of the entire monarchical system. All in all the discourse of the lyric is that of strong oppression, torture, boredom, desperation, despair, strangulation and despondency.

Ahmad Shamloo's *Shabaneh* (1964) also reflect the discourse of strong oppression, boredom, monotony, desperation, despair, strangulation and despondency. Shamloo's poetry is complex, yet his imagery, which contributes significantly to the intensity of his poems, is simple. In the first stanza, Shamlou nicely characterizes monotony and strangulation of the society with different metonymies: "alleys" represent the paths, having been narrowed down, indicating hindering the path of development and improvement in the society. "Shops" represent the people's livelihood, having also been shut, indicating impeding the economic growth in the society. "Houses" represent the places of living, having been darkened, indicating despondency, monotony and desperation of the lives. "Roofs" represent the shelters, having been

collapsed, indicating the violence and insecurity in the society. The society is composed of the collection of the "alleys", "shops", "houses" as well as "roofs".

"Tars and violins are reduced to silence." (musical instruments) represent the lack of art and artists, in other words monotony, in the society. Art is mostly considered as a way of putting the society forward. "The dead" represent the people of the society being suppressed and surrendered. The poet nicely compared the people with the "oil-lamp" which has the oil, the sign of living, but doesn't burn out indicating that people are alive but have no motivation of changing the situation and just have surrendered. The poet's despair of any change is quite demonstrated through his "no hope of the good" and "no complaint of the bad". In addition, the poet simply separated himself from the people of the society and again emphasized his desperation of any movement in the society.

The vicious circle of the first stanza in the poem emphasizes the fact that the period of strong oppression, boredom, monotony, desperation, despair, strangulation and despondency is eternal and nothing can change the dominant atmosphere of the society.

In spite of many similarities having been found within the two literary texts, some minute differences were also investigated. In the first song, *Jomeh*, the lyricist is hopeful that the armed uprising may change the situation and complains his friends of being disloyal to him, as in the second song, *Shabaneh*, the poet is quite desperate without any criticism of the bad or those who have been surrendered being assure that no movement will change the society. In addition, the second song, *Shabaneh,* is more monotonous than the first song, *Jomeh*, and poet's despondency is more obvious than the first.

IV. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

This study is an attempt to compare two pieces of literary texts in terms of the embedded history and culture .The data at hand are two Persian songs *Jomeh* (meaning Friday) and *Shabaneh* (meaning of the night) , sung by the famous Persian legendary rock singer, Farhad Mehrad**.** Analysis is done within the framework of new historical literary criticism**.**

Both songs were published during one of the Iranian greatest periods of the oppression, cruelty, extravagance, and corruption, and may be considered as a strong reaction against the increasingly oppressive government of Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi and helped cement its reputation as a serious violator of the human rights. Thus, the dominant discourse of the time is that of strong oppression, boredom, monotony, desperation, despair, strangulation and despondency, which can be traced within both literary texts.

In spite of many similarities having been found within the two literary texts, some minute differences were also investigated: the traces of monotony, desperation, despondency of any change is more obvious in the second song; as the discourse of the first lyric may be considered as that of armed uprising and that the lyricist is hopeful that revolutionary overthrown might change the dominant insecure atmosphere of country.

It should be noted that for new historical literary critics, the literary text, is an interpretation of history, not facts. As such, analysis will always be incomplete, accounting for only a part of the historical picture, as all historical interpretations are unavoidably subjective. The literary text maps the discourses circulating at the time it was written and is itself one of those discourses. Likewise, our interpretations of literature shape and are shaped by the culture in which we live.

APPENDIX A JOMEH (FRIDAY)

Persian	English Translation
Too-ye ghab-e khis-e in panjereha	In the wet frame of these windows,
Aksi az jome-e ghamgin mibinam	I see a picture of sad Friday.
Che siahe be tanesh rakht-e aza	How black is the mourning clothes it has on,
Too cheshash abra-y-e sangin mibinam	I see dense clouds in its eyes.
Dare az abr-e siah khoon micheke	Blood is dripping from the black cloud,
Jomeha khoon jay-e baroon micheke	On Fridays blood is dripping, and not rain!
Nafasam dar nemiad, jomeha sar nemiad	I'm out of breath; Fridays don't come to an end,
Kash mibastam cheshamo, in azam bar nemiad	Wish I could close my eyes, but I can't.
Dare az abr-e siah khoon micheke	Blood is dripping from the black cloud,
Jomeha khoon jay-e baroon micheke	On Fridays blood is dripping, and not rain!
Omre jome be hezar sal mirese	Fridays have lived for thousands years,
Jomeha gham dige bidad mikone	Fridays are full of deep sadness,
Adam az daste khodesh khaste mishe	Man is tired of himself,
Ba laba-y-e baste faryad mikone	And cries with sealed lips,
Dare az abr-e siah khoon micheke	Blood is dripping from the black cloud,
Jomeha khoon jay-e baroon micheke	On Fridays blood is dripping, and not rain!
Jome vaght-e raftane ,mosem-e delkandane	Friday is the time to leave, the season of forsaking,
Khanjar az posht mizane, oonke hamrahe man-e	Stabs my back with a dragger, the one who is with me,

Dare az abr-e siah khoon micheke   Blood is dripping from the black cloud,
Jomeha khoon jay-e baroon micheke   On Fridays blood is dripping, and not rain

APPENDIX B *SHABANEH* (OF THE NIGHT)

Persian   **English Translation**
Koocheha Barikan,   The alleys are narrow,
dokoona bastes,   The shops are shut,
Khooneha tarikan,   The houses are dark,
tagha shikastas.   The roofs are collapsed.
Az seda oftade tar o kamoonche,   Tars and violins, are reduced to silence,
Morde mibaran, kooche be kooche.   They are shouldering a dead body/ corpse, alley to alley.
Negah kon! mordeha be morde nemiran,   Look! The dead are not like the dead,
Hata be sham-e joon seporde nemiran.   Not even like a candle in the throes of death.
Shekl-e fanoosian ke age khamooshe,   They are like an oil-lamp which is put out,
Vase naf nis hanoo ye alam naf tooshe!   But not for the oil, as there's a lot of oil in that!
Jamaat! man dige hosele nadaram!   People, I'm not patient anymore!
Be khoob omid o az bad gele nadaram!   I have neither hope to "good", nor complaint about "bad"
Garche az digaroon fasele nadaram,   Although I don't keep aloof from others,
Kari ba kare in ghafele nadaram.   I have nothing to do with this crowd.
Koocheha Barikan,   The alleys are narrow,
dokoona bastes,   The shops are shut,
Khooneha tarikan,   The houses are dark,
tagha shikastas.   The roofs are collapsed.
Az seda oftade tar o kamoonche,   Tars and violins, are reduced to silence.
Morde mibaran, kooche be kooche.   They are shouldering a dead body/ corpse, alley to alley.

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The Influence of the Different Thinking Pattern between Chinese and English on English Writing

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Abstract—**Nowadays, people in the world communicate with each other more frequently. Whatever the oral or written form, the culture, especially the thinking pattern, has an obvious effect on the communication. The discourse just reflects this affection. Its form represents the social context of communication. On one hand, people with different cultural background use different discourse. On the other hand, different discourses construe different experience and communication. When we learn a new language, our native language always influences us. Our thinking patterns are conventional. Thus it proposes a new problem to our language teaching – how to write a perfect English composition? According to the study, the differences of the discourse organization between Chinese and American students are obvious. The compositions of American students are smooth and consistent while the ones of Chinese students are a little loose and dull. It is important to improve the ability of cross–cultural communication and the awareness. The students should know clearly that the negative–transfer of our mother tongue. Meanwhile, the discourse analytic approach is a good method applied in the English teaching. It can improve the students' ability to analyze the discourse, arrange the sentences and understand the discourse from the entirety.**

Index Terms—**thinking patterns, theme and rheme, thematic progression, English writing**

I. Introduction

With the development of the society, China communicates with the whole world more frequently. English has become a very important tool to communicate with other peoples. From kindergarten to college, each student is demanded to study English very well. Among the five basic skills of English – listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, writing seems a little easy compared with others in most people's opinion. Actually, a number of compositions written in English by our students seem to be far from English, though many of the students can write flawless English sentences and write a beautiful Chinese composition. Thus how to improve the writing ability of English learners has become a problem that plagues English teacher in China.

The reason why our students cannot write an accurate "English" composition is that our mother language, especially the thinking patterns, influences us. The features of a discourse have close relation with those of culture. What is reflected on the writing discourse is the text organization form. There are different ways of expression with different thinking patterns. When a Chinese student writes an English composition, he is used to use our Chinese thinking patterns to construct the discourse and organize the sentences. Well we may consider it a good writing, but an English–speaker may dislike it. So we should know about these differences between Chinese and English and be able to converse our thinking patterns to English.

Writing is just like building a house. To finish the house is far away from our aim. And there are buildings with different styles in different countries. Every sentence and every paragraph has a close relation with its neighbors. Only spelled out some sentences could not make a good writing. So it is necessary to analyze discourse from the point view of coherence, cohesion, construction and so on. All these elements are influenced greatly by culture and thinking patterns. What we are lack of is the teaching of cultural differences in our class. We need not only to develop the students' English skill, but also their culture awareness.

II. Chinese and English Thinking Patterns

A. Language and Thinking Patterns

There are different ideas about the relationship of language and thinking pattern for many years. The most famous and influential theory which caused a great controversy is the Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis or Whorfian Hypothesis. The theory claims that the people using different languages have different ways to thinking. It is called "Linguistic Relativity". It also claims that the language determines the way of thinking: Thinking cannot exist in the world without language. And it is the "Linguistic Determination". Sapir acknowledged the close relation between language and culture.

He maintained it necessary that you should understand or appreciate the one with a good knowledge of the other one. After the hypothesis, many scholars proposed different opinions against this theory. Some of them hold the opinion that the thinking patterns determined the use of language, that is, the language is restricted by the cognition of human beings. Some thought that there is little or no relationship between language and culture.

Nevertheless, it is inevitable that language and thinking pattern are influenced by each other. We should know that the language, thinking and culture are interactive about the differences in the language phenomena. Language is influenced by the thinking patterns and cultures as well as construes the reality of thinking and culture. The differences are reflected on the form not the essence of the thinking. So it shows that when we understand another language, we should acknowledge its culture and thinking patterns together.

B.   Chinese and English Thinking Patterns

Each kind of culture has its own special system. Due to its differences, its value system and worldview also have different characters. The oriental and western cultures are the two typical cultures in the world. In the communication of modem society, the two cultures always collide with each other. From the ancient time, with the process of history, they formed their own philosophy opinions and universe views. The traditional Chinese hold the view of oneness between Man and Nature while the westerners believed the dividedness between Man and Nature. The two different worldviews have an important function in the foundation of the thinking patterns of the oriental and western people.

Under the influence of the worldview, the Chinese people gradually form the tendency of Entirety and Synthesis in the thinking patterns. They attach importance to the intuition in consciousness. Oppositely, the westerners used to the thinking pattern of analysis and logic. Some scholars had used the concepts of "field–dependence and field–independence" to summarize the difference between the oriental and western thinking patterns.

Jia Yuxin (1997) had summarized several differences. One is the Entity, Synthesis way and Analytic logic way. The Chinese have the thinking habit from the whole to the part, from the big to the small, and reach a balance at last, while the westerners consider the thing from the part to the whole. This is a liner–thinking pattern. The other is the Specific and Abstract thinking pattern. The Chinese Specific way has the form of metaphor, symbol analogy and so on. The process of Abstract way are logic, analytic, inference and systemic in the form of concepts, inference and judgment.

Generally speaking, the analytic and liner way is the feature of western thinking pattern as well as the English. They write a discourse according to this pattern and they used to put the topic to the beginning. The process of drawing the conclusion is important. The Chinese stresses the "Parataxis" in discourse construction. The connection in the discourse isn't so closely as in the English. All these differences are caused due to the different thinking patterns. Just for this reason, many scholars began the research of discourse pattern of different languages among which the famous one is Kaplan.

III.   THEME AND RHEME

Discourse analysis is a new subject of linguistics emerged these years. It analyzes the discourse from a new point of view. Although there isn't determined theory as its theoretical foundation so far, many linguists have introduced some theory into this subject to study the discourse from different views. The most influential one is M.A.K. Halliday who is the founder of Systematic Functional Grammar theory (SFG). He pointed out that this theory could be a good theoretical framework for the discourse analysis. Its aim has been to construct such a grammar for the purpose of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written in modern English (Halliday, 1994). In traditional grammar, different linguistic units have different labels. Halliday renamed some units according to their linguistic function in a text. Theme and Rheme are very important technical terms in Systematic Functional Grammar.

A.   Definition

The notion of Theme and Rheme are oriented from Czechoslovak linguist V. Mathesius who was the co–founder of the Prague School. Early in 1939 in his articles "the so Called Actual Division of the Sentences", he had thought that most sentences should be divided into two parts. According to the actual context, a sentence was consisted of the departure of the utterance (the basic part) that was the known information and the core of the utterance. Thus the traditional logical method had transformed into an informative–centered approach. Then German scholar K. Boost proposed two terms of "Theme" and "Rheme" to identify Mathesius' concepts. Later another respective of Prague School Jan Firbas developed the FSP and the notion of Communicative Dynamism (CD). On this theoretical basis, the Czechoslovak linguists believe that a sentence contains a point of departure and a goal of discourse. The point of departure is equally present to the speaker and to the hearer – it is their rallying point, the ground on which they meet. This is called the Theme. The goal of discourse presents the very information that is to be imparted to the hearer. This is called the Rheme. (Hu Zhuanglin, 2006)

Based on the theory of Prague School, M.A.K. Halliday developed Theme and Rheme in his SFG. About the definition of theme, Halliday argued that in traditional grammar, subject seems to be a unity of three different kinds 'subject'. It was still implied that there was some sort of a superordinate concept covering all three, a general notion of Subject of which they were the specific varieties, The terms that came to be used in the second half of the 19th century,

when there was a renewal of interest in grammatical theory, were 'psychological Subject', 'grammatical Subject', and 'logical subject'. But in actual language, they have to be interpreted as what they really are – three separate and distinct functions. There is no such thing as a general concept of Subject of which these are different varieties. So Halliday replaced the earlier labels with new ones: psychological Subject – Theme grammatical Subject – Subject logical Subject – Actor. Following the terminology of the Prague School, he used the term Theme as the label for its function. There is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that with which the clause is concerned. The remainder of the message, the Part in which the Theme is developed, is called the Rheme. As a message structure, therefore, a clause consists of a Theme accompanied by a Rheme– whatever the Theme is put first. (Halliday, 1994)

Halliday's notions of Theme and Rheme are a little different from Prague School. He distinct them with Information theory – the former belonged to the syntax category and the latter belonged to phonetic category. Second, he thought that the Theme – Rheme structure was different from the Topic – Comment structure. The label 'Topic' usually refers to only one Particular kind of Theme; and it tends to be used as a cover term for two concepts that are functionally distinct, one being that of Theme and the other being that of Given. For these reasons the terms Theme – Rheme are Considered more appropriate in the present framework.

Some other linguists also gave the definition of Theme and Rheme according to their own research. However, these definitions are all similar with each other. For example, Downing and Locke thought," Theme is a semantic choice, that is to say, which element will be chosen to be the departure of the sentence."

B.   Classification

The Theme is a functional element in sentences. The speaker sometimes will have different implication and a theme can play different roles in the message. So there must be different types of themes. According to Halliday, Theme can be classified into: simple theme, multiple theme and clausal theme.

1. Simple theme of a clause consists of just one structural element. E.g. *The duke* has given my aunt that teapot. The italicized words are the simple theme. The theme is not necessarily a nominal group. It may also be an adverbial group or prepositional phrase. E.g. once upon a time there were three bears. For want of a nail the shoe was lost. One common variant of this elementary pattern is that in which the theme consists of two or more groups or phrases forming a single structural element. E.g. Jack and the others paid no attention. Trees, forced by the damp heat, found too little soil for full growth. Such themes still fall within the category of simple themes. Any group complex or phrase complex constitutes a single element in the clause. Another variation is "Thematic Equative", like what the duke gave to my aunt in "what the duke gave to my aunt was that teapot". This is still a simple theme, because it was turned into a single constituent.

2. Multiple theme is consists of two or more functional components in a clause. These different components represent different metafunctions. The theme extends from the beginning of the clause up to the first element that has a function in transitivity. This element is called the 'topical theme'. So the multiple themes can be specified as the textural theme, the interpersonal theme and the experiential theme (the topical theme). E.g. And sooner or later a ship will put in here. The theme always includes one, and only one, experiential element. The components in simple theme just have one function of the three metafunctions, no matter it is one phrase or more.

3. In a clause complex, the theme is the first while sentence in the beginning. It is called clausal theme. E.g. If winter comes can spring be far behind? The italicized part is the theme of the clause complex. There is still a thematic structure in each of the two constituent clauses.

Besides, Halliday also specified the marked theme and unmarked theme. A marked theme is something other than the subject in a declarative clause. The most usual form of marked theme is an adverbial group or Prepositional Phrase. This is a nominal element which, being nominal, has the potentiality of being subject; which has not been selected as subject could be the unmarked theme.

Based on this classification, we can analyze most sentences' structure. From the type of theme used in a text, we can find that the way to express the implication of the writer so as to find the writer's idea to develop the discourse.

C.   Thematic Progression

If the Theme – Rheme structure just plays a role of a departure in a clause, it couldn't become the research subject in discourse analysis. From the previous theories, we can see that this departure comes from the whole context. With the meaningful choice of themes, the whole text can develop eventually. This cohesion of Theme and Rheme doesn't only exist among the sentences but also in a wider scope. It is necessary to investigate how the Theme – Rheme structure develops in a discourse. This is the Thematic Progression.

The Thematic Progression theory is first proposed by Frantisek Danes. In his book "Functional Sentence Perspective and the Organization of the Text (1974)", he put the idea of Thematic Progression as the choice and arrangement of the themes. It concerned with the relationship between one theme and its hypertheme of the superior text unit or the whole text, as well as their hierarchy system in the discourse. The Thematic Progression can be considered as the framework of the content. In an isolated sentence, the Theme – Rheme structure is regular, while in a discourse, the theme and rheme in one sentence will connect with those of another sentence in the text. There will be some change of the relationship between sentences, themes and rhemes. This kind of connection and change we call it progression. The theme in the beginning of the sentence expresses little information than others, so this pattern of Thematic Progression

in certain degree reflects the basic framework of this discourse. (Xu Lisheng, 2006)

IV.   CULTURAL INTERPRETATION

A.   *Effect of Chinese Thinking Patterns*

As many scholars have studied for a long time, the language and culture are interacted with each other. When people communicate with others no matter speaking or writing, they must obey some rules in discourse organization for a certain aim. However, due to the different worldview and thinking patterns, the discourse pattern is different in different cultures. From the previous analysis, we can see that there are indeed distinctions in our students' English writing with the American students.

The construction of English discourse pay attention to the integration. There is usually a topic sentence in each paragraph and one main idea. The content must be straight relevant to the topic. The semantics and every sentence and paragraph must connect with each other logically, while the Chinese doesn't stress the cohesion techniques.

The first difference is the use of constant pattern and simple liner pattern in the compositions written by Chinese and American students separately. American students use liner pattern and Chinese students use constant one. The feature of simple liner pattern is developing like a line. The rheme of first sentence becomes the theme of next sentence. The rheme is the new information and with the clause development, it becomes the known information, which is the theme. The reason why American students prefer to this type is decided by their thinking pattern.

According to the western worldview, everything can be divided into parts and they are independent. The westerners stress the contrast. Oppositely, the oriental people especially the Chinese people believe that everything is a unity of opposites. The thinking pattern in western is characterized by the logic, analytic and liner. Stewart (1972) had described the character of American thinking pattern, "for the American, the world is made up by the facts. Their thinking is inductive." Generally speaking the expression of English is liner pattern which is decided by the western thinking pattern. Because of the liner pattern of English discourse, the American students prefer the simple liner pattern to develop the discourse.

As for Chinese, the arrangement of a Chinese discourse stresses the entirety. It takes the semantics as the core. As long as the sentences are connected semantically, the discourse will be smooth. The marrow of Chinese culture is the entirety and harmonious awareness. It pays attention to the harmoniousness between the whole system and hypo–systems. So the individual character of the hypo–system is limited under the whole. The Chinese student is usually influenced by our traditional thinking way of entirety. Each theme is constant with the "superordinate theme". Generally speaking, Chinese is a kind of language of parataxis and its structure is screwed and cyclical. So in Chinese students' compositions, there are often sentences without association to the topic. Compared to the English, the Chinese attach the importance to the outcome and the enumeration of the phenomena. Therefore, in our Chinese students' compositions we often find that the use of constant theme pattern. The theme which is the known information isn't changed and the rheme which is the new information is changed. Influenced by the parataxis of Chinese, the connection of each sentence isn't closely as the English. And the harmoniousness of Chinese affects their choice of thematic progression pattern.

Another important feature of Chinese is the topic–prominent constructions. The thinking pattern of Chinese is used to a holistic way from the whole to the part. This Chinese philosophic cognition is embodied in the topic–prominent constructions. The Chinese prefer a topic–prominent way to the subject–prominent because the traditional thought of harmoniousness of the subjective and objective; While English is the language of subject–prominent with the subjects as the first one. The westerners prefer the individualistic and have the value of self–prominent. So they attach importance to the subjects or themes more accurately. The topic–comment structure is different from the theme–rheme structure. The topic is just one part of the theme.

Generally speaking, the discourse pattern is indeed influenced by the different thinking patterns. This study reveals the distinction between our Chinese students and American students in English writing. Their compositions show that our Chinese students also try to write a good paper closely to the English. However, the negative–transfer of our mother tongue cannot be avoided. There are still many distinctions in our writing.

B.   *Cross–cultural Awareness in English Writing Teaching*

With the fast development of modern society, it is become a new life way to communicate with other cultural communities. Nowadays, the English education in China has developed very fast. The Chinese EFL learners and English teachers are aware that only the ability acquisition of language is not enough for the acquirement of the society. How to improve the ability of intercultural communication becomes the final aim.

In our early English teaching, many teachers stress the grammar and vocabulary. Certainly, it is caused by our examination system. However, the English learning today shouldn't still stay in knowledge acquisition. The application of English is more important in modern society. Many times we speak or write English in a Chinese way. The English we speak or write even confuses the English–speakers. So the cross–cultural awareness must be formed in our mind. Here, the cultural awareness refers to the language differences between English and Chinese not other cultures. In English writing, many aspects could be affected by the cultural differences, for example, the choice of words, construction of the discourse, the relations of the sentences and so on. The Chinese reader will think that the beginning

is very clear and short, but the foreign teachers won't think so. This is the influence of the different thinking patterns, English is our second language and we must try to switch our mother tongue to a different thinking way.

First, the teachers should be aware of the cross–cultural importance and improve the abilities of cross–cultural communication of their own. In English class, the teacher should not teach the language itself, but also its background and cultural connotation. The pick–up of the cross–cultural awareness is as simple thing done in one day. We should know the differences between Chinese and English, and then we need practice in our learning process.

C.   Discourse Analytic Approach to English

One of the efficient approaches is the Discourse Analytic Approach. Early in the 60's And 70's, there were some people began the research of Discourse Analysis. From a functional view, the discourse is the language in use. Its meaning is decided by the context. The Discourse Analysis involves the relationship between the language and its context. It contains the discourse structure, the discourse pattern, sentence pattern, the cohesion, coherence and so on. Discourse Analysis is very helpful for language teaching. It is a method to describe and understand the language. It can be used to design the Syllabus. And it can also be applied in the identification of the discourse construction.

When the teacher begins the teaching of a discourse, he should describe the cultural background, for example, the place, history, life, custom, etc. to the students. Then the context of the discourse also should be paid attention. Most important is that the construction coherence which refers to the theme and rheme structure, the information structure, the mood, and the process. From the analysis, the students can have an entire impression about this discourse. And they also know the way of English Construction.

As for the English writing, first the construction and pattern of English discourse should be analyzed and observed. Maybe the theory of Discourse Analysis is a little difficult for the students. The teacher could introduce some easy information about it to them, for example, the concept of theme and rheme. And the teacher could also teach them how to identify the theme and rheme in a sentence. Moreover, the teacher could illustrate a writing written by a foreign student to see the thematic progressive pattern and interpret the reason why he chooses so. Our Chinese students should develop our cross–culture awareness in the English learning. By doing this can we know how to write a good English discourse.

Discourse Analytic Approach has many advantages applied in English teaching. Nowadays, people more and more attach its importance. With the development of this subject, it will play a more important role in English teaching.

V.   CONCLUSION

The results of comparison show that there are differences in English wiring between the Chinese and American students. These differences are caused by the influence of thinking patterns. The western culture stresses the analytic and logic thinking pattern. It emphasizes the individualist and dividedness between man and nature. Their way of thinking is liner. They focus on the analytic process. The English structure is also developed in a liner way. So the American students prefer the simple liner pattern which reflects the interference and analysis to describe or illustrate one thing. The traditional Chinese culture stresses the entirety. It is a parataxis of thinking pattern. It pursues the harmoniousness between Subjective and Objective so that the Chinese is a topic–prominent construction language. In Chinese students' compositions, multiple themes are used more often than that of American students because of this reason.

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Research on College English Textbooks and Suggestions

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Abstract—This paper compares and studies the current College English Textbooks and make an empirical research among college students. Based on the result of their investigation, the authors put forward several suggestions on College English Textbooks: We should add some Chinese characteristics, humanities elements in our EFL textbooks and EFL teaching. Literary classics should be adopted as well. Our textbooks should convey the greatest ideas, wisdom, and culture to our students.

Index Terms—college English textbook, investigation, humanities, culture, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

After joining WTO, China has experienced the top-down reform in EFL teaching. The traditional "time-consuming, inefficient and deaf" English-study can no longer satisfy the newly demand for internationalization in current China. Learners not only need to understand the contents in reading materials, they also need to improve their abilities in listening and speaking so as to express themselves freely when communicating with native speakers. As a consequence, a profound reform in EFL teaching has been carried out and remarkable performance has been achieved. There is an emergence of a large number of EFL textbooks that adapt to new English syllabus.These textbooks undoubtedly contribute greatly to the improved quality in EFL learning and teaching in China.

In a sense, the current college English textbooks determine the English language level in Chinese intellectuals nationwide. We feel obliged to carry out our research on current EFL textbooks so as to to meet the new demand for EFL learners in China. We need to bring up comprehensive and high-quality science and technology workers in China.

II. CURRENT EFL TEXTBOOKS

Most reading materials in current textbooks are selected from English newspapers, magazines and books. To some degree, they bear strong sense of times; as for genres, argumentation, expository essays dominate and science fiction accounts for a certain proportion. Themes in Listening textbooks are more or less the same.

A. The Content in Textbooks

As for the contents in textbooks, most materials deal with the environmental issues, education, western cultures, values, science and current affairs.

B. Language Forms

Authentic languages, strong sense of the times characterize the current EFL textbooks. The advanced EFL textbooks have an increasing degree of difficulties in languages. More difficulties in language and longer articles in length are the features of current textbooks.

C. Students' Opinions about Current Textbooks

The authors made an investigation on current English textbooks among their students. The following are the feedback from the interviewees. All the listed below are the original responses.

1. The textbook is treated as reading materials. Memorizing new words in textbooks is the main tasks in EFL learning.

2. There are too many reading tasks in the textbooks. Besides the reading materials are too complex and should be refined.

3. The textbooks are too boring to raise students' interest to read.

4. Textbooks should be different from articles and essays in newspapers and magazines. Textbooks should inspire the wisdom of learners through reading.

5. Reading materials in textbooks are so long and difficult that the students cannot understand without referring to the translations. Students do not have enough courage to finish them.

6. Reading materials are too obscure to be suitable for textbooks. There are so many repetitive drills and exercises, which turn out to be neither effective nor useful.

7. Reading materials are sort of out of time. We should adopt new articles and essays into textbooks.

8. There are too many spoken English in reading materials. Strongly suggest adding notes to excessive new words.

9. The narrative articles are too simple and ridiculous for college students to read.

10. There lacks a consistency in the degree of language difficulties in the reading materials. Knowledge-points are not clear.

11. The language is complicated, syntaxes are complex, and semantics is difficult to understand.

12. The reading materials are out of time and of poor-quality.

13. There are repetitive themes in both Intensive Reading and listening materials.

14. Reading materials in textbooks are dull.

15. Too many materials to learn, less class hours. The teachers do not have enough time to deal with them in class so that many are left for student's homework. Reading materials are difficult for students to learn by themselves, let alone appreciate them.

D. Students' Recommendations

1. Provide literary articles, short and pithy articles, fiction, classic speeches, classic drama.

2. Choose articles that are of moderate difficulty.

3. Choose great works of both classic and modern, especially the works of great men.

4. Pragmatic and humanities articles should characterize the College English textbooks. It is important to cultivate students' practical ability in English language, skills and to broaden their English knowledge range is equally important.

5. Provide after-class exercises with answers, more notes are welcome.

6. Convert CD-ROM format into mp3 player.

7. More pictures and detailed comments in textbooks are very welcome.

8. The textbooks should adopt more articles concerning hot topics.

9. Choose good articles and students can memorize them by heart.

10. More original essays and English literary classics are welcome.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR COLLEGE ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

With the rapid development of China's economy, technology, education, culture and the increasing trend of the globalization, foreign language (especially English) is becoming an important tool that most people need to grasp. English language learners doubled in number in recent years, and hence create a huge market and business opportunities. Foreign language schools thrive. Besides, the advent of modern technology, especially the development of the Internet has revolutionized the foreign language teaching methods and its models. The functionality of the language itself and its strong utilitarian dominate in the current EFL market. As Pang (2002) puts it that "there is a tendency that Chinese EFL teachers are focusing on training language learners and ignoring the humanities education for their students" (P.102). Too much emphasize on utilitarian and less on the humanities worry many EFL educators.

The irrational neglect of humanities and human care in EFL education has aroused great fear among Chinese educators and academic researchers.

A. Inevitability in EFL Textbooks Reform and the Preliminary Conception

We believe that innovative teaching methods should be considered when writing textbooks. Based on helping teachers with their classroom teaching practice, Chinese EFL teachers are exploring appropriate approaches. They believe EFL teachers must make fundamental change in the existing teaching models, which are mainly book-based and teacher-centered. They believe that EFL teachers should reduce the mandatory way of teaching and practice the open teaching. They should advocate building new teaching models which features in learner-centered and students' independently practiced activities. We believe that our EFL teaching should shift from "taught by teachers to the students-exploring activities". The real teaching and learning activities should be carried out based on students' self-exploration and initiatives. EFL teachers should create a favorable learning atmosphere for learners; help to train students in their innovation and in their creative abilities, which will benefit students in their future professional development. Also, teaching schedules should be different based on different professional learning. Different evaluation criteria should be introduced. Evaluation criteria should be diversified so as to meet the different professional demands in EFL learners. As for college English learners, we would suggest to practise a combination of formative assessment and summative assessment in the final exam and tests all through a semester. By doing so, students can be responsible for evaluating their own activities in class and thus become the masters in this evaluation system.

B. Weaken the Differences between General College English and English Majors

All around the world, we can see many great figures are those with comprehensive abilities. However, it is not rare for us to see many of our science students who are wholeheartedly engaged in learning science subjects, like maths, physics and chemic and the like. These science students have little chance to read art subjects like history, geography, etc. The only liberal arts they learn in the university are the essays in their textbooks .They have little chance to read classics, and meet great characters in literary arts. The narrow ranges of their knowledge would ultimately make them difficult to have a final success in their professional field. Besides, the lack of humanities in EFL textbooks, coupled with exam-oriented education, hinders the comprehensive qualities of our students. It is true that the training in language skills in EFL teaching is important, but we should also take into account the fact that education does not simply mean to deliver knowledge. As Li (2003) states in his book that our Chinese famous educator Tao Xingzhi once pointed out that the school's mission is to teach people the truth and to teach people to uphold the truth. Likewise, our textbooks should teach our students how to be real man and have them get in touch with the greatest of human thought, wisdom. Besides delivering some basic language skills, our mission is to teach them useful knowledge in life. Based on the above discussion, we hold that our textbooks should be humanities-oriented, provide students with useful knowledge, both in their professions and their life. Our ultimate goal should be cultivating our students and making them into truly healthy and versatile personalities.

C. Add Ethnical Culture into EFL Textbooks

All through current college English textbooks, vast selections are the works by British and American writers in Anglo-Saxon culture. Chinese elements (particularly Chinese culture) in EFL textbooks are rare. The selected authentic, elegant style essays will undoubtedly enables students to learn authentic English, stimulate their interest and help them to understand American culture. But, if looking from the perspective of culture-language, we can say the selected essays in EFL textbooks are not yet comprehensive. Language is the carrier of culture. EFL textbook should incorporate Chinese culture. English is a universal language. However, China is a great country with a long history of five thousand years and a splendid culture. The missing Chinese culture in EFL textbooks tends to give students the assumption or misunderstanding concept that learning English means learning British and American writers, their people and their cultures. Chinese cannot write great literatures, good English, etc. We are quite concerned about the current situation that if all EFL students' exposures are western cultures, western themes and Anglo-Saxon way of thinking, then one day our national cultural consciousness (culture awareness) is bound to be diluted. As EFL teachers, we have to remind ourselves that the ultimate goal in EFL learning and teaching is to communicate and carry out exchanges our ideas with people from other countries, to learn their advanced technology and to introduce our own history and culture to them. Just imagine Chinese students talk about how to spend Christmas in English, or how to make mashed potatoes and hamburgers, then would any Americans be interested in these topics? And the truth is quite a lot of Chinese college students can talk about Christmas, NBA, and Shakespeare in fluent English while they know less about the traditional Chinese cultures and influential figures in Chinese history, such as martial arts, Confusions, Chinese medicine, traditional customs, etc. This disappoints both English-speaking people and Chinese a little bit.

"Let the world understand China and let Chinese introduce their culture to the world" is not only the goal of China's foreign exchange policy but also the goal of our EFL reform. Thus, we strongly suggest that EFL textbooks writers add some Chinese elements--articles with Chinese characteristics into College English textbooks. However, Zhu (2006) argues that "when writing EFL textbooks we should avoid going to extremes" (p. 57). We uphold the compiled learning materials should be moderate---a combination of traditional Chinese and Western cultures. EFL textbooks can adopt both the original and the abbreviated works of Anglo-Saxon and Chinese cultures. We hold that the Chinese culture in EFL textbooks is necessary. English-speaking people may also be interested in them. In fact, some Chinese idioms and proverbs have the same meaning as their English translations, such as "one stone two birds (Kill two birds with one stone)" and "Double-edged sword (one arrow, two hawks)", etc. These Chinese idioms may enrich English language as well.

D. Conflicts between EFL Teaching Modes and Our Traditional Testing System

The existing EFL textbooks conflict with the current National College English examinations. This is also the concern of both teachers and students. The National College English Test can not reflect the actual English proficiency of college students. In CET 4 & 6 examinations, students are tested in traditional ways, focusing on the tests of reading, grammar, vocabulary. Listening test accounts for only a small proportion in CET4 & 6 and there is no assessment for students' oral competence. The current EFL writing section always involves some practical writing tasks, like learning to write apology, posters and invitation cards. The tests in writing mainly focus on writing argumentation essays. On one hand, the teachers and students have realized that in this new era EFL learners should enhance their comprehensive abilities to use English, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies, careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively. On the other hand, they ultimately have to fall back to meet the demand for the traditional test of CET 4 & 6. Because passing CET 4 & 6 means that students can get a well-paid job in the future. How do EFL teachers face this embarrassing situation and how do students deal with the conflict between "modern concept "and exam-oriented education? This is also the biggest challenge our EFL textbooks writers face. It is true that the national CET 4& 6 should not be a baton, but who can ignore the impact of this national university examination on the EFL teaching in current China?

E.   Add Literary Classics in College English Textbooks

Textbooks should contain valued stuffs that students must learn by heart. Any language has its own literary classics. They are the wealth of all mankind. Take Chinese language for example: Poetry in Tang and Song Dynasty is our language treasures. Those who can write Tang and Song poems are considered to be learned talents, since they can not only memorize the great poems, understand the essence of poetry, but also can produce their own poems. As ELF teachers we are responsible to show power of language to students to enrich their lives. Also, students have desires and interests to search for some recitations of literary classics. However, According to the research, they have a concern that their understanding of some classics may more or less hinder their recitation since some of the students are lack of proper guidance in reading these materials. We would suggest our EFL textbooks writers should incorporate great literary classics, and famous sayings in textbooks. These will surely help EFL learners in their future career and life. After a period of understanding and memorization of great literary classics, EFL learners' English world will not be deserts any more.

F.   The Utilitarianism and Humanism in EFL Education

As is known in Chinese culture, Master Confucius teaches six arts to his disciples: ceremony, music, writing, arithmetic, archery, riding. Master Confucius is a great education model in ancient China, training his disciples in terms of virtue and wisdom and comprehensive abilities. Until about one hundred years later, Ancient Greeks started to practice grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music in their education. According to the researches, two thousand and five hundred years ago, the productivity and living standard in both China and Greece were very low. Probably because of the simple, tasteless Greek food to feed their families, the ancient Greeks took their meals as troublesome things. Gao (1996) stated that "with loose white gown covering their bodies, ancient Greeks did not care much about their dresses and seldom flaunt their wealth" (p. 55). What they pursued is the freedom of mind rather than material wealth. We certainly cannot ask our contemporary being to learn their life style, but we hold the view that without strong support and coordination of spiritual civilization, the rapid development of material civilization will inevitably lead to current utilitarian, materialism and moral collapse. The mad pursuit of material comforts and the spiritual poverty are the terrible crises facing our contemporary people.

As university teachers, we hold that universities should cultivate their students on the basis of both pragmatism and humanism. Unlike vocational trainings, universities should not have instant success as their goals when they cultivate college students. British physicist Charles Bernard Shaw points out those scientific researches accounts for only a small part of the whole universe. Science exploration, in the true sense, should be the pursuit of the trinity of the truth, goodness and beauty of the whole universe. Teachers should develop scientific rationality and rational humanity among college students. Humanity education is especially necessary in universities. It would be a very scary and dangerous thing if EFL learners lack the humanities and their national spirits. The ultimate goal of higher education should be cultivating both students' professional and humanistic abilities.

Higher education should emphasize the humanities education, especially for science students. EFL textbooks should increase their share of literature. Description of cultures has always been the distinct feature in many outstanding literary classics. Great writers praise human truth, goodness, beauty, reveal and denounce the dark side of society and human nature. Literature always gives sharp and relentless criticism to the pragmatism, utilitarianism, materialism generated in the process of human modernization. Also we have many literary classics like Austen's "Emma" which advocates gentle aesthetic taste, sincere and generous praise. Fine literary classics will definitely have a great impact on learners' life path and their role of enlightenment can never be underestimated.

G.   Develop Literary Appreciation and Improve Aesthetic Taste

EFL textbooks should incorporate a large number of great literature masterpieces and different cultures. However, our textbooks show little desire to encourage our students to read masterpieces from both cultures. That's what we need to improve in the future EFL textbooks.

In addition to teaching students some basic skills in English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, EFL textbooks have the responsibility to help students to improve their appreciation competence in the reading materials.

Although literature theories are quite complex, however, EFL teachers only need to explain some basic appreciation concepts like "What is literary appreciation" and "Objectivity and subjectivity of literary appreciation", etc.

It is true that examination can measure students' language level; however, cultivation of the humanities in students is difficult to determine in this evaluation system. With the strong dominance in utilitarianism in EFL field in China, humanity education really requires tender care support so as to avoid the long-term imbalance between the utilitarianism and humanities.

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The Potential of Learner Output for Enhancing EFL Learners' Short-term and Long-term Learning of the English Simple Present Tense

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Abstract—Refuting Krashen's Input Hypothesis, some SLA researchers have called attention to the vitality of learner output in the development of their interlanguage systems, which is the essence of Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis. The present study sought to find out the extent to which elementary EFL learners' output promotes their learning of the English simple present tense. To this end, 33 Iranian EFL learners were assigned into a control and an experimental group. Both groups were presented with three texts including rich examples of the structure, over three one-hour sessions. Following the presentation of the text on each session, the experimental group engaged in two output tasks: a reconstruction task, in which they individually reconstructed in written form the text they had been exposed to, and a picture description task, in which they worked in pairs to produce a written description of three pictures, one on each session, while the control group only answered comprehension questions based on the texts. The comparison of the pre-test and the immediate and delayed post-test results indicated a significant gain in the experimental group's performance immediately after the treatment, but only a trend toward significance within three weeks of the experimental period. The results show clear benefits arising from pushing students to produce second language output for the short-term and long-term learning of the English simple present tense. However, offering more output opportunities over time might be the key to the efficiency of learner output in the acquisition of the target language form.

Index Terms—comprehensible output, Input Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis, languaging, pushed output

I. INTRODUCTION

Taking a dim view of Krashen's (1985) "input hypothesis" which posits in essence that comprehensible input is both necessary and *sufficient* for second language acquisition, Swain put forth her "comprehensible output [CO] hypothesis" in 1985. CO capitalizes on the significance opportunities for classroom language use and pushing learners to modify their output and make themselves more comprehensible has for L2 learners' interlanguage development, rather than just as fluency practice (Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Shehadeh, 2002). Based on her study of immersion students in Canada, she stipulated that in the absence of comprehensible or modified output [MO], even with ample comprehensible input provided, learners are unlikely to build adequate knowledge of complex grammatical rules, vocabulary, morphosyntax and sufficient processing control over their expressive performance and pronunciation.

She states that conversational exchanges can aid L2 acquisition to the extent that they are derived from comprehensible output, rather than comprehensible input, since they have the potential to push learners to foster the appropriacy, precision and completeness of their utterances (Swain, 1985) and this is exactly what Krashen opposes to [see Review of the related literature]. Other studies of immersion programs have also accumulated evidence indicating that immersion students generally fail to achieve a high level of L2 proficiency and demonstrate weaknesses in their grammatical accuracy, despite high levels of listening proficiency and communicative fluency (Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara & Fearnow, 1999). It should be mentioned, however, that proponents of learner output are not dismissive of the idea of the necessity of comprehensible input, but argue that in order to develop both accuracy and fluency in the target language, both comprehensible input and comprehensible output are required. In particular, Swain claims that learner output has a unique potential for raising learners' consciousness of the way the target language works, engaging them in hypothesis testing and also reflecting on their own language knowledge and use (Swain, 1995). Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.41) state that "producing comprehensible output entails the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers and, second, language features can be made more salient in the input during subject-matter lessons as teachers interact with students".

Since Swain put forth her theory of comprehensible output, a large number of studies have been conducted to substantiate claims as to the significance of learner output for interlanguage development. Having said this, Mitchell

and Myles (2004) and Shehadeh (2002) regret the fact that the majority of these studies have addressed learners' production, comprehension and vocabulary learning, and shown clear benefits inherent in pushing students to produce second language output, but there is still little evidence regarding second language grammar. In an attempt to make a small contribution to this line of research, the present study investigated the extent to which pushing learners to produce output, through passage reconstruction and picture description, has an influence on their acquisition of the English simple present tense. Accordingly, the following research questions were put forth:

1. Does learner output enhance the learning of the English simple present tense?
2. Does learner output have a long-term effect on the learning of the English simple present tense?

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Swain (1995) borrows notions from cognitive psychology to posit three prime functions for learners' modified or pushed output, namely the cognitive processes of noticing knowledge gaps (the noticing/triggering function), trialing and testing hypothesis (the hypothesis-testing function) and meta-linguisitic problem solving (the metalinguistic function). Likewise, Swain and Lapkin (1995) conclude in their study that in producing the target language, L2 learners undergo a mental process whereby they notice gaps in their interlanguage through either external or internal feedback, and which may generate new linguistic knowledge for the learner, or consolidate their existing knowledge. More specifically, they claim that "what goes on between the first output and the second is part of the process of second language learning." (p.386). Along the same lines, Swain (1998) speculates that modified or reprocessed output, triggered through feedback, represents the leading edge of learners' interlanguage.

It follows that Swain's CO hypothesis has a lot in common with Schmidt's (1993) "noticing hypothesis" with its emphasis on registering target language forms under attention as necessary for acquisition (Siegel, 2005), though it also allows for learner-internal feedback to perform this function. Advocates of the output hypothesis speculate that verbalization leads learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage and consciously reflect on them drawing on their internal resources either on their own or in collaboration with others (Swain, 1997). CO also shares with Long's (1996) "interaction hypothesis" its emphasis on meaning negotiation, though unlike Long's emphasis on selective attention and negative evidence (Mitchell & Myles, 2004), Swain believes it is the *process* of producing the target language that enhances language learning, by placing a premium on "collaborative dialogue" in such a process. More recently, Swain (2006) has explicitly pronounced the theoretical foundation of her "output hypothesis", allying herself with the sociocultural camp and replacing the word 'output' with 'languaging' on the grounds that:

Output is a word that evokes an image of language as a conveyer of a fixed message (what exists as thought). Output does not allow at all for the image of language as an activity – that when a person is producing language, what he or she is engaging in, is a cognitive activity; an activity of the mind. Individuals use language to mediate cognition (thinking) (p.95)

Insofar as empirical research is concerned, the myriad of studies directed at the output hypothesis have mostly investigated the nature of learners' modified and pushed output in terms of a welter of variables, including task type, signal type, signal source, the context of production, learners' proficiency level, age and gender. However, this research has mostly focused on the frequency/occurrence of modified output and output opportunities, rather than its short-term and long-term effect on interlanguage restructuring, language development and linguistic competence. Shehadeh(2002) cogently has the point when he states that:

Lack of definitive conclusions is not surprising, because research on CO has been mostly cross-sectional in nature, focusing primarily on the production of MO per se rather than on whether and to what degree MO can be a source of linguistic competence (p. 601).

Some researchers have investigated whether learner output can promote their IL development, and in some cases investigated it alongside relevant input opportunities. This line of research has addressed L2 learners' vocabulary learning, production and comprehension abilities, and on a narrower scale certain grammatical structures of the target language (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Izumi and Bigelow (2000) and Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara and Fearnow (1999) tested the noticing/triggering function of learner output focusing on the English past hypothetical conditional. Both studies compared the performance of an input-output group which was provided with output opportunities - engaging in a text reconstruction task followed by a guided essay writing task- and also subsequent exposure to relevant input with that of a second group, namely the input group, receiving the same input merely for comprehension purposes. In both studies, the input-output group showed a significant gain on the target form only after the second output task had been administered. This finding indicates that in order for output to be effective for L2 noticing and learning, output opportunities need to be sustained, and that mere exposure to relevant input does not necessarily induce noticing.

Along the same lines, investigating the noticing and learning of English relative clauses, Izumi (2002) compared the performance of one control and one experimental group to find out how output compares with input enhancement. The four experimental groups differed in terms of whether they received only input enhancement (+IE, -O), only output opportunities (+O, -IE), both input enhancement and output opportunities (+O, +IE), or neither input enhancement nor output opportunities (-O, -IE). The control group, however, only took the pretest and the posttest. The results accrued to the superiority of the (+O, +IE) group in both noticing and learning, but no effect for the (+IE, -O) group on learning. Izumi accounts for this finding by postulating that despite input enhancement which registers the target form under

learners' attention by external means, output serves the same function through providing opportunities for production and the cognitive comparison of the form at issue in one's interlanguage and the target language. Izumi (2002) concludes that pushed output can facilitate L2 development by promoting:

1. detection of the target form;
2. integrative processing of the target form;
3. noticing of the IL-TL mismatches;

In a similar study, Izumi and Izumi (2004) investigated the effect of an oral output task on ESL learners' learning of relative clauses in English. To the researchers' surprise, the comparison of an output group, which received input rich in relative clauses and subsequently engaged in an oral picture description task, a non-output group which received the same input but engaged in a picture sequencing task afterwards, and a comparison group which engaged in a placebo task indicated greater overall gains for the non-output group. The authors discuss the results in terms of the cognitive processes involved in each of the treatments. They deem it possible that the oral output task only required learners to imitate what they had been exposed to, and was not therefore compelling in terms of syntactic processing and genuine oral production, while the picture sequencing task was more demanding in terms of form-meaning mappings.

More recently, Sung and Sue (2008) studied the effect of two types of output tasks, namely a reconstruction and a picture-cued writing task, on the noticing and learning of the English counterfactual conditional. The findings indicated that the two experimental groups, each engaging in one of the output tasks just mentioned, regardless of the output task they carried out, outperformed the comparison group, which merely answered reading comprehension questions, in terms of both noticing and learning. As evident in this brief review of a number of studies investigating the influence of learner output on the noticing and learning of L2 grammatical constructions, the results are not as yet conclusive, though a general trend accruing to the efficacy of pushed output in L2 development is in evidence but still needs to be demonstrated with other grammatical structures and output task types, and also investigated in comparative studies alongside other non-output tasks, given the fact that the output hypothesis is not without its critics. In particular, Krashen (1998) argues in his 'scarcity argument' that instances of modified or pushed output are too rare to have any significant influence on language development. However, Shehadeh (2002) refers to the notion of "critical incidents" to express his doubts over whether frequency is what matters most:

In fact, notions of "critical incidents" would suggest that although MO may be rare in some contexts (which is arguable, but nevertheless claimed by Krashen, 1994, 1998), it can be useful when it does appear (p.622).

Krashen (ibid.) also refers to research findings as to instances of acquisition in the absence of output, and is dubious about whether output has any genuine effect on language acquisition. He also believes that pushing learners to produce and modify their output is an anxiety provoker. He is dismissive of the strong version of interaction hypothesis to which, he deems, Swain's hypothesis is linked, stating that learner output in interaction does not necessarily lead to acquisition: Interaction, to him, is a facilitative source to the extent that it provides comprehensible input. In addition, he refutes the 'need hypothesis', stating that the need for communication will lead to acquisition only if it entails a greater amount of comprehensible input. In the face of all these arguments and counterarguments, and considering Ellis' (2006) comment as to the controversial nature of grammar instruction in SLA research, the present study aims to investigate the immediate and delayed effect of two output tasks on the learning of the English simple present tense, in comparison with a non-output task. The two output tasks included a picture description task and a reconstruction task, while the non-output task merely involved meaning-focused (reading comprehension) questions.

The rationale behind the inclusion of one individual and one two-way output task in the present study is twofold: practicality concerns and the mixed findings of the previous research as to the superiority of one-way tasks such as storytelling and picture description, whether written or oral, over two-way tasks such as an opinion exchange one. As an example, Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) found that the storytelling task employed in their study led to a higher rate of modified output than either native-speaker (NS)- nonnative-speaker (NNS) or NNS-NNS interactions did. Likewise, Iwashita (1999) found that one-way tasks provided learners with greater MO opportunities en route to comprehensibility than two-way tasks. More recently, however, Nassaji and Tian (2010) compared the effectiveness of collaborative and individual output tasks for the learning of English phrasal verbs and came to the conclusion that:

...completing the tasks collaboratively (in pairs) led to a greater accuracy of task completion than completing them individually. However, collaborative tasks did not lead to significantly greater gains of vocabulary knowledge than individual tasks (p. 397).

As for the present study, the individual text reconstruction task was included as an outcome production and modification opportunity based on Swain and Lapkin's (1995) finding, as evidenced in their participants' think-aloud protocols while engaged in a writing task, that the learners tended to "consciously reprocess their IL output without any sort of external feedback when faced with a performance problem" (p. 606). In addition, the two-way picture description task was included in order to take advantage, if any, of the pair and group work-induced negotiation, dialogic support and collaborative scaffolding learners involve in as evidenced in socioculturally founded research.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to answer the research questions, 33 Iranian female elementary-level EFL learners, making up two intact English classes at a private language institute in Iran, took part in the study. They ranged in age from 18 to 25 (average: 22.3) and were mostly non-English major university students. They had all been placed in the third level of a 22-term language program (namely Elementary 1, following Starter 1 and Starter 2), on the basis of the results of a placement test administered by the institute. The test consisted of a 50-item multiple-choice vocabulary and grammar test, and an oral proficiency interview both developed on the basis of the content of the pre-ordained syllabus of the institute (the English series, namely 'True to Life', and other obligatory supplementary materials).

B. Instruments

1. Pretest and posttests: In order to gain a measure of the learners' knowledge of the English simple present tense and ability for use (a) prior to the treatment, (b) three days after the final treatment session and also (c) three weeks after the treatment, three parallel tests on the English simple present tense (i.e. a pretest, an immediate posttest and a delayed posttest) were developed. Each test consisted of two main sections:

A. 12 multiple-choice items on the English simple present tense (statements (3 items), interrogatives (3 items), negatives (4 items) and short answers (2 items)); each item was assigned one mark, which made for a total of 12 marks on this section;

B. A fill-in-the-blanks writing task in which the students were required to complete an 8-turn conversation between two people, comprising simple present statements, interrogatives, negatives and short answers, with no prompts provided. Each conversation contained a total of 8 blanks, each worth a mark, which together with the 12 marks of the first section made for a total score of 20 on all the three tests.

The three tests were first piloted with a sample of 15 elementary students learning English at the same institute. In order to ensure that they were parallel, the mean scores on the three tests were compared using an ANOVA (see Bachman, 1990). The results of the ANOVA (see Table 1 for the descriptive statistics and Table 2 for the ANOVA results) indicated that there was no significant difference between the means of the three tests in question, and they were therefore parallel (F=0.038, α=.962). Moreover, the internal consistency of the three tests was ensured using Cronbach's α, which was 0.8 for the pretest, 0.78 for the immediate posttest and 0.83 for the delayed posttest.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Pretest	15	12.00	20.00	16.4667
Posttest 1	15	12.00	20.00	16.1333
Posttest 2	15	13.00	20.00	16.6667
Valid N				

TABLE 2
ANOVA

Scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.311	2	.156	.038	.962
Within Groups	170.000	42	4.048		
Total	170.311	44			

2. Three simple present tense-rich texts and three action-based pictures: For the purposes of the present study, three Elementary-level English passages rich in the use of the simple present tense, ranging in length from 150 to 180 words (one on how an English boy spends his weekend, one on how a computer software works, and one a fable comprising a conversation between a crow and a cat) and also three pictures, each displaying a series of actions/steps taken by a person ((1) a person engaged in his/her daily chores at different times of the day, or (2) a person going through the different steps of operating a washing machine and (3) how a family spends their weekend) were utilized.

C. Procedure

To expedite the experiment, the participants were first pretested on the English simple present tense to make sure they were homogeneous regarding their knowledge of the structure in question. Of the 33 participants (15 as the control group and 18 as the experimental group), 28 were included in further data analysis, with the other 5, 2 in the control group and 3 in the experimental group, scoring outside one standard deviation from the mean and therefore excluded from the study. Both groups had received inductive instruction on simple present earlier at level S2 (Starter 2), but they would normally revisit the structure at this level (E1) in what is called a spiral syllabus, receiving mainly implicit instruction on it. The pretest was given just after this implicit instruction, i.e. on the 7th session of a 21-session term, and the three-hour experimental treatment, which extended over one hour of each of the three subsequent sessions, i.e. sessions 8, 9 and 10, was launched afterwards. The remaining of each of the three sessions was devoted to the fixed syllabus of the program.

On each of the treatment sessions, both groups were presented with three texts rich in the use of the English simple present tense (see section II.2), with the teacher going through the following steps:

1. The Warm-up phase, whereby the students' schemata regarding the passage's topic, were activated through questions, pictures, etc.

2. The Vocabulary Pre-teaching phase, whereby both groups engaged in the same vocabulary-learning activities, including word-definition matching, word-picture matching and fill-in-the-blank exercises;

3. The Silent Reading phase, whereby both groups individually read the passage silently, given a time limit of 5 to 7 minutes, depending on the length of the passage (The time was limited to preclude the participants from memorizing the passage and consequently from reconstructing the text just out of memory);

4. The Post-reading phase, whereby the control group was presented with 10 meaning-focused comprehension questions in written form, but the experimental group was asked to reconstruct the passage in their own words individually within 20 minutes (the longer time allotted to allow them to take their time to test their hypotheses and apply their internal feedback). Both groups were presented with written feedback (meaning-focused for the control group and grammar-focused for the experimental group) on the subsequent session.

Additionally, the experimental group engaged in a paired output task, namely a picture description task. Following the reconstruction of the passage on each of the treatment sessions, the experimental group was presented with a picture (see Instruments), and asked to work in pairs and describe the picture in written form following the teacher's modeling on the first session, using the simple present tense. That this task, too, was a writing task was because of the focus of the present study on 'accuracy', rather than fluency, and also because of granting the participants more time for hypothesis testing and scaffolding, given that they were elementary learners. Grammar-focused feedback was provided on the students' written description on the subsequent session.

Following the treatment, both groups were given the immediate posttest on the 12th session, i.e. one week after the treatment, and the delayed posttest on the 19th session, i.e. three weeks after the treatment.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Employing a pretest-posttest control group design, the present study was carried out to test the following two null hypotheses:

$H_0 1$: Learner output does not enhance the learning of the English simple present tense.

$H_0 2$: Learner output does not have a long-term effect on the learning of the English simple present tense.

From a statistical perspective, the assumption behind the null hypotheses is that the experimental group's scores on the immediate and delayed posttests do not significantly improve as compared with those of the control group, with the pretest scores as the basis of comparison. In order to compare the control and the experimental group's scores on the pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest separately, 6 *paired samples t tests* were run, using the 16th version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), setting the level of significance at 0.05. Tables 3 and 4 contain the results of these 6 t tests. Moreover, the scores of the two groups on the immediate and the delayed posttests were compared through 2 *independent samples t tests* (see Table 5).

Table 3 contains the output of the 3 paired samples t tests run to compare the control group's performance on the pretest, the immediate posttest (Posttest 1) and the delayed posttest (Posttest 2). As shown by the results, the control group's mean score on none of the three tests differs significantly from the other two since the level of significance in all three cases far exceeds 0.05 which is the p level set for the present study. This indicates that these participants' performance neither improved nor declined as the result of the control treatment, which was the presentation of three texts, rich in the use of the simple present tense, followed by meaning-focused comprehension questions.

TABLE 3
PAIRED SAMPLES t TESTS FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

Control Group	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest-Posttest 1	0.16667	0.71774	.20719	-.27936	.62270	0.804	12	0.438
Pretest-posttest 2	0.38462	1.12090	0.31088	-.29274	1.06197	1.237	12	0.240
Posttest 1-Posttest 2	.23077	1.09193	0.30285	-.42908	.89061	0.762	12	0.461

However, the experimental group showed significant gains in its performance on the structure in question as indicated in Table 4. The difference between the pretest and the immediate posttest means, in this case, is significant at 0.04 level and this finding may be attributed to the experimental treatment, i.e. the two output tasks the experimental group engaged in. However, the comparison of the pretest and the delayed posttest shows only a trend toward significance (p=0.063), indicating a degree of deterioration in their performance three weeks subsequent to the treatment, though the comparison of the experimental group's mean on the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest (p=0.1) shows that this decline is not statistically significant.

TABLE 4
PAIRED SAMPLES T TESTS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental Group	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest-Posttest 1	-1.84615	1.46322	0.40583	-2.73037	-.96194	-4.549	14	0.04
Pretest-posttest 2	-0.69231	1.25064	0.34687	-1.44806	.06345	-1.996	14	0.063
Posttest 1-Posttest 2	-.92308	1.44115	0.39970	-1.79396	-0.05220	-2.309	14	0.1

Having compared the mean scores of the two groups on the three tests separately, 2 independent samples t tests were run to compare the performance of the two groups on the immediate and delayed posttests. Table 5 contains the outputs of these two analyses, with equal variances assumed for the two groups on each test. The observed t value is statistically significant for 26 degrees of freedom at 0.005 level for the immediate posttest and 0.016 level for the delayed posttest. In other words, the experimental group outperformed the control group on both the immediate and the delayed posttest.

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TESTS FOR THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Control and Experimental Groups	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Immediate Posttest	-3.048	26	0.005	-1.85128	0.60743	-3.09987	-0.60269
Delayed Posttest	-2.577	26	0.016	-1.51795	0.59188	-2.73732	-0.29858

These findings lead us to reject both null hypotheses: Learner output DOES enhance the learning of the English simple present tense and it DOES have a long-term effect on it.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of the present study are in line with those of similar studies, accruing to the benefits of offering learners output opportunities, not only as a means of practice, but also as a means of restructuring their interlanguage grammars. That the control group did not show any significant gains in the course of the study, neither immediately after the treatment nor three weeks subsequent to it, is not surprising. The control group was only presented with input flooded with the structure at issue, but was not involved in making use of their own productive resources to test their existing hypotheses and reflect on how to improve them. This raises questions as to whether *input enhancement/flooding* (Sharwood Smith, 1993) or the deliberate manipulation of the input learners are exposed to, devoid of production opportunities, has any potential for learning/acquiring the grammar of the target language, and also whether any such thing as *implicit learning* in the absence of intentionality and awareness (see Ellis, 2008) is possible. However, these issues have to be substantiated through empirical research particularly focused on the potential of input enhancement and the possibility of implicit learning.

The gains shown by the experimental group on the immediate and the delayed posttests, on the other hand, can be taken as evidence of the advantages undergirding the experimental treatment, i.e. offering learners output opportunities. As far as the immediate posttest is concerned, the experimental group's performance improved significantly compared with their pretest scores. Moreover, the fact that they also outperformed the control group, despite their initial homogeneity, is additional evidence on the benefits inherent in making learners draw on their own productive resources to tackle the target language structure in question. However, as Mitchell and Myles (2004) have cogently postulated, a downside with some SLA research is the equation of learning with immediate use. In other words, they have their doubts as to whether it is justifiable to conclude that learning has occurred on the basis of immediate gains. This and Shehadeh's (2002) call for more research on the potential of learner output for long-term learning, or acquisition, led the researchers to include the second posttest three weeks subsequent to the experimental treatment. The findings show a degree of decline in the experimental group's performance since the comparison of the pretest and the delayed posttest results indicated only a trend toward statistical significance, though the comparison of the immediate and the delayed posttest results showed that such decline was not statistically significant, and that the decline can be attributed to such extraneous variables as the time factor (three weeks) inducing some degree of fading. Moreover, the fact that the experimental group's performance was still superior to that of the control group on the delayed posttest is further evidence as to the beneficial effects of learner output for the learning/acquisition of the English simple present tense.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study was carried out to determine if learner output has the potential of enhancing the short-term and long-term learning of the English simple present tense. To this end, two output tasks, i.e. an individual text reconstruction task and a paired picture description task, were carried out by members of the experimental group, while the control group only engaged in answering meaning-focused comprehension questions following the presentation of the same passages the experimental group was exposed to, rich in the structure in question. The results indicated that the

experimental treatment led to statistically significant gains on both the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest (though only a trend toward significance was observed in the case of the delayed posttest), but the control treatment did not.

The results serve to accumulate evidence on the efficacy of learner output in learning an aspect of the target language grammar. That the control group did not show any gains in their performance on either the immediate or the delayed posttest indicates that simply exposing learners flooded with a structure of interest might not be a sufficient condition for inducing improvements in their interlanguage grammars. The results of the study suggest that for such improvements to take place, learners need to be led to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing. As for the lack of gain on the immediate posttest, it can be argued that unless learners are led to notice the structure in some way, for example through producing it drawing on their own resources, no gains are due. As far as this consistent lack of gain on the delayed posttest is concerned, merely reading such rich passages for meaning does not seem to push learners to rethink their interlanguage hypotheses or to reflect on them through languaging. This finding can be taken as evidence against Krashen's postulation that *grammar will be in place if learners are exposed to input that is just beyond their current level of functioning (i+1) and understand it*, and this is exactly what the proponents of learner output, or better to say 'languaging', have rallied against.

The improvements evidenced in the present study for the experimental group are illuminating. That the experimental group showed significant gains in their performance on the immediate posttest and approximately significant gains on the delayed posttest, as opposed to the control group, indicates that learner output can serve as an advantage in the short-term and long-term learning of the target language grammar, in this case the simple present tense. Since two output tasks were drawn upon, one individual and one two-way, it is not clear as to whether the gains can be attributed to either one of the tasks or to their cumulative effect. However, what the two tasks shared was pushing learners to produce the target language structure, and this particular feature can be said to have proved beneficial. Moreover, in the absence of the fine-grained analysis of the participants' talk while carrying out the two-way task, or their recalls and think-aloud protocols while carrying out the individual task, it is not possible to determine which function(s) their output served which might have contributed to the observed gains: Did they engage in hypothesis testing? Was it noticing that brought about gains on the immediate posttest? Did they engage in languaging about language? etc.

Whatever the case, their output seems to have served as *auto-input*, i.e. own-produced input (Ellis, 1997), and a source of *internal feedback*, to bring about changes in their interlanguage systems and in this way to aid acquisition. This interlanguage restructuring is evident in the gains learners showed on the delayed posttest, three weeks after the experimental treatment. It can be concluded that learner output has both short-term and long-term benefits regarding the learning of the target language grammar, well beyond mere exposure to comprehensible input, even if such input has been flooded with the structure in question. However, it is not clear whether administering a third posttest later, e.g., *six weeks* subsequent to the treatment, would show statistically significant performance decline. The decline in experimental group's performance on the delayed posttest, though statistically not significant, seems to imply that offering learners more output opportunities over time in a cyclical fashion might better aid acquisition, but this postulation needs to be further evidenced through empirical research.

The superior performance of the experimental group would be expected if one considered the fact that the experimental group was not only offered output opportunities, but also structure-specific feedback on their production. The results would have been more easily attributed to 'learner output' alone if administrative constraints hadn't imposed the inclusion of feedback for the purpose of 'not straying off the institute's general guidelines' as worded by the institute's supervisor. It is also noteworthy that all the participants in the present study were female, due to practicality concerns. The replication of the study with male EFL learners might produce different results since gender has proved to be a determining factor in the amount and type of comprehensible output produced in different output task types, the general finding being that men tend to create a higher rate of MO opportunities in their interactions in comparison with women (Gass & Varonis, 1986; Shehadeh, 1994). These and the small number of participants in the present study call for replications in other settings and with other aspects of the target language grammar, and preclude sweeping generalizations regarding the absolute benefits of learner output in learning the English simple present tense.

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The Application of Multiple Intelligences Theory in Task-based Language Teaching

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Abstract—The learning of a foreign language involves the interplay of many factors concerning human intelligences. Therefore, an analysis of learners' intelligences is of vital importance in EFL teaching and learning. This article tries to explore the feasibility of combing the basic concepts of Howard Gardner's MI theory with the practice of college English teaching in order to develop the multiple intelligences on the part of learners and improve the quality of teaching as well as the comprehensive qualities of students.

Index Terms—multiple intelligences, task-based language teaching, EFL teaching & learning, assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

With a view to keeping up with the new development of higher education in China, deepening teaching reform, improving teaching quality, and meeting the needs of the country and society for qualified personnel in the new era, in 2007, China's Ministry of Education drew up College English Curriculum Requirements (Requirements hereafter) to provide colleges and universities with the guidelines for English instruction to non-English major students. According to the Requirements, College English has as its main components knowledge and practical skills of the English language, learning strategies and intercultural communication. It is a systematic whole, incorporating different teaching models and approaches. In view of the marked increase in student enrolments and the relatively limited resources, the Requirements propose that English teachers in colleges and universities in China should remold the existing unitary teacher-centered pattern of language teaching by introducing a variety of new teaching models. The new models should combine the principles of practicality, knowledge and interest, facilitate mobilizing the initiative of both teachers and students, and attach particular importance to the current position of students and the leading role of teachers. The models also should incorporate into the strengths of the current models and give play to the advantages of traditional classroom teaching while fully employing modern teaching and learning theory.

II. THE FRAMEWORK & CHARACTERISTIC OF MI THEORY

For a long time, intelligence was regarded as a fixed, static entity at birth and defined as the ability to answer items on IQ tests. Based on brain research, previous research work with young children and experiments with animals, psychological testing psychological testing.

Use of tests to measure skill, knowledge, intelligence, capacities, or aptitudes and to make predictions about performance. Best known is the IQ test; other tests include achievement tests—designed to evaluate a student's grade or performance, cross-cultural studies. Cross-cultural comparisons take several forms. One is comparison of case studies, another is controlled comparison among variants of a common derivation, and a third is comparison within a sample of cases.

Gardner (1983) put forward a radically different view of intelligence (the Theory of Multiple Intelligences) that claims:

a. We all possess multiple intelligences that we combine and use in our own unique ways.

b. IQ tests only measure a small range of these intelligences

c. Each intelligence type is comprised of numerous sub-intelligences

d. Each intelligence develops at its own rate.

e. Rather than focusing on an IQ score, we should focus instead on establishing a cognitive profile.

Gardner believes every individual has at least eight intelligences which are in their basic form, present to some extent in everyone, although a person will generally be more talented in some than in others. The eight multiple intelligences are listed as follows:

1) Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence. It is the ability to use language effectively and creatively both orally and in writing. This intelligence relates to the meaning, rhythms and sounds of words.

2) Logical/Mathematical Intelligence. It is the ability to use numbers effectively, to recognize abstract patterns, to discern relationships and to reason well. The people with logical/mathematical and verbal/linguistic intelligences enjoy solving problems, finding patterns, outlining and calculating. It forms the basis for most systems of education, as well as for all forms of currently existing standardized testing programs.

3) Visual/Spatial Intelligence. It involves the ability to sense form, space, color, line, and shape including the ability to graphically represent visual or spatial ideas. People with this intelligence like to design, invent, imagine and create.

4) Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence. It is the ability to use one's body to learn and solve problems through physical experiences such as mimicking and touching.

5) Musical/Rhythmic Intelligence. It is the ability to recognize tonal patterns and a sensibility to rhythm, pitch, melody, etc. This intelligence can be seen in advertising professionals, musicians, dance bands and composers.

6) Interpersonal Intelligence. It is the ability to understand people's moods, feelings and intentions, including the ability to work cooperatively with others in a group and to communicate verbally or nonverbally with other people. This intelligence can usually be found in such people as counselors, teachers, therapists, politicians, and religions leaders.

7) Intrapersonal Intelligence. It involves the ability to understand one's own emotions, motivations and moods.

8) Naturalist Intelligence. It involves the ability to recognize and classify plants, minerals, and animals, rocks, grass, and all variety of flora and fauna. It also includes the ability to recognize cultural artifacts like cars, sneakers, etc.

In Gardner's view, it is of vital importance to recognize and develop all of these varied human intelligences, and all of the combination of intelligences. These intelligences are of neutral value; none of them is considered superior to the others and they manifest a full display of learners' individual differences; they are understood as tools that every learner possesses to make sense out of new information which can be stored for later use. In addition, each of these frames is autonomous, changeable and trainable (Armstrong, 1999) and they interact to facilitate the solution of daily problems.

III. THE APPLICATION OF MI THEORY IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING

Nowadays an increasingly number of college English teachers in China has adopted the task-based language teaching approach (TBLT) as their main teaching approach. This approach, as the one recommended by the Requirements, focuses on the use of authentic language and involves getting the students to do meaningful tasks using the target language (English). In practice this approach is recognized as an effective means of developing students' language output by applying a variety of meaningful tasks ranging from participating, experiencing, interacting and corporative learning. The specific tasks are goal-oriented activities such as filling a form, visiting the doctor, making a complaint, asking for directions, etc. In the process of implementing this approach, learners take advantage of their own cognitive potentials and their existing resources of the target language, sensing and learning the target language through practice. Coincidentally, the basic concepts of the task-based teaching approach conform to those of MI Theory.

Therefore, the application of MI theory into the task based teaching approach will enable students to utilize their multiple intelligences and improve their language skills through a variety of teaching activities. The following is a table showing the relationship between the development of multiple intelligences and task-based teaching activities.

TABLE 1.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES AND TASK-BASED TEACHING ACTIVITIES

	Task-based teaching activities that match with MI theory	Intelligences involved
Listening	Listening to English stories, news & songs, dubbing background music for texts, attending lectures, mimicking by means of real objects and pictures, holding discussions in English.	Verbal/Linguistic intelligence Visual/Spatial intelligence Musical intelligence Interpersonal intelligence Intrapersonal intelligence
Speaking	Encouraging students to read texts aloud and tell stories with rich gestures and expressions; encouraging them to illustrate the pictures in the text, asking them to answer questions with the aid of real objects、pictures or gestures & expressions; asking the English group to hold discussions on specific tasks; asking students to deliver English speeches or play English games concerning the specific situation of the text.	Verbal/Linguistic intelligence Logical-mathematical intelligence Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence Visual/Spatial intelligence Musical intelligence Interpersonal intelligence
Reading	Doing independent thinking of the texts or the materials to be learned, inducing & summarizing these texts or materials after reading, keeping notes and holding task based discussions.	Verbal/Linguistic intelligence Logical-mathematical intelligence Interpersonal intelligence Intrapersonal intelligence
Writing	Keeping English diaries、 classroom notes and observation notes, writing English compositions, compiling English electronic works and English blackboard newspaper.	Verbal/Linguistic intelligence Logical-mathematical intelligence Musical intelligence Interpersonal intelligence Naturalistic intelligence
Translating	Mutual translation from Chinese to English or English to Chinese, establishing hobby clubs and practicing interpreting in group work.	Verbal/Linguistic intelligence Logical-mathematical intelligence Interpersonal intelligence

To further illustrate the application of MI theory in the task-based teaching, the author takes the teaching of "Sailing Round the World" as a sample teaching. Taken from a currently used textbook for Chinese college students, the text gives a brief account of how Sir Francis Chichester, a British adventurer travelling round the world alone in a small yacht in spite of the fact that he had lung cancer. First, the author designed the specific tasks for students to fulfill, that is, the task before class, the task in class and the task after class. With teacher's help, the students are supposed to fulfill

the tasks through the collaborative learning process of sensing, experiencing, practicing and participating, with a view to improving their overall language skills and facilitating their development of multiple intelligences.

Before-class tasks involving the application of multiple intelligences:

1. Teaching tasks: collecting video clips and/or writing materials about Chichester's adventure; rewrite the text; make PPT for the text "Sailing Round the World".

2. Teaching aims: cultivating students' reading ability as well as their abilities concerning Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence, Visual/Spatial Intelligence, Musical intelligence, Interpersonal intelligence and Intrapersonal intelligence.

3. Material source: the written or audiovisual materials from the Internet; the audiovisual materials from other sources; the books and journals from the library.

4. The form of activity: group work or pair work.

Most students took an active part in the process of performing the tasks through cooperation with other members of the group. As it turned out, through collecting, screening and reading the information, students' reading ability has been improved.

5. In-class tasks involving the application of multiple intelligences:

Teaching tasks: demonstrating what they find about Chichester's adventure.

Teaching aims: cultivating students' listening and speaking ability as well as their abilities concerning Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence, Logical-mathematical intelligence, Visual/Spatial Intelligence, Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, Interpersonal intelligence and Intrapersonal intelligence.

Form of activity: group work or pair work.

Teaching Procedure:

1). Group discussion

2).The individual work for each group, including choosing a specific topic for telling or writing the story

IV.   THE ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE IN MI THEORY PERSPECTIVE

Gardner (1993) holds that assessment is an essential component of MI education. It is particularly important to use varied modes of assessment that will allow students to show their strengths and performance optimally. In Gardner's eyes, assessment is defined as "the obtaining of information about the skills and potentials of individuals and useful data to the surrounding community" (1993).However, the traditional means of assessment of students' performance is to a large extent teacher-oriented, which is intended to determine what students have learned though it generally fails to do the job. Assessment should be integrated with learning and instruction and is intended to stimulate further learning. Specifically, David Lazear (1994) listed some key principles, such as:

Assessment design and execution should include educators who work with the students.

Assessment requires time and effort; educators should be given appropriate time to create and administer instruments.

Assessment should be authentic and central to the education process.

Assessment should drive the curriculum.

Assessment practices should be designed for students' benefit.

Assessment practices should mirror assessment in the "real world."

Assessment should be individualized and developmentally appropriate.

Among these principles, the author would like to further illustrate on the core principles for applying MI Theory.

A.   Assessment should be Diversified

A good assessment instrument can be a learning experience. As MI theory reveals, every student is more or less provided with the ability to deal with his daily life. However, it is very difficult to assess this ability through the traditional test depending on paper and pencil. Therefore, MI theory requires that teachers build diversified assessment mechanism for students, that is, a diversified mechanism to bring their students' multiple intelligences into full play as far as language learning is concerned. For example, one important characteristic of MI Theory-based assessment is context-driven assessment. Instead of being imposed externally, learners are put in a natural learning environment to work on problems or projects. When a learner is assessed in the actual working condition, it is likely to make much better prediction about his ultimate performance. The other characteristic of MI assessment is intelligence-based and intelligence-fair assessment. Since intelligence features set of psychological processes, it is important that these processes be assessed in an "intelligence-fair" manner. Gardner suggests using portfolios/ process folios, domain-project and apprentice model (1993) to evaluate students. In short, we need diversified forms of product and/or process-based, individualized-based, contextualized-based, performance-based and ongoing-based assessment which include paper-and-pencil tests, portfolios, journals/logs, projects, exhibits, performances, and displays, etc.(Lazear, 1999) with feedback gained not only from teachers and parents but also from students themselves and their peers, to reflect and reinforce MI-inspired instruction.

B.   Assessment should be Authentic

Many researchers of MI theory nowadays share the belief that authentic assessment, which emphasizes assessing what students know(knowledge) and what students do(performance) from different perspectives provide a complete

picture of students' abilities, efforts and progress during the learning process. In their opinion, the traditional assessment is nothing more than "spurious assessment", because it ignores the learning of concepts, principles and the application of skills they have learned; therefore, such assessment is insufficient in reflecting the real performance of students. For this reason, the advocators of MI theory hold that the assessment should be authentic and that students should combine what they have learned with what they have experienced, since learning is implemented under the relevant situation. Only when learners are put under the authentic situation can assessment be meaningful. Gardener calls it "apprentice model", which is opposed to the uniform view of schooling and the formal testing (standardized tests).

V. IMPLICATIONS

First, in the process of training students' language skills, teachers should provide wider variety of materials and diversified activities. For example, in training students' listening skill, teachers should not be limited to the practice of the tasks designed by the textbook itself; rather, they should broaden the scope of tasks by means of listening to English stories and speeches, watching English animations and mimicking with the aid of props. By applying multiple intelligences, those who show no interest in listening practice are more likely to focus their attention on the task. Similarly, students' interest in writing can be aroused and their understanding of English be improved by keeping English diaries and writing English compositions. To a large extent, the development of students' language skills goes synchronically with the multiple intelligences; therefore, in the language learning process, students also get improved in terms of their Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence, Logical/Mathematical Intelligence, Visual/Spatial Intelligence, Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence, Musical/Rhythmic Intelligence, Interpersonal Intelligence, Intrapersonal Intelligence and Naturalist Intelligence.

Second, teachers should design and practice more modules for classroom teaching activities. Retelling the text is a case in point. By retelling the text, students are able to have a better command of the main idea of the text and put the words and expressions they have just learned into practice. However, such activities are likely to cause some students embarrassed, and to some extent, make them at a loss what to say in class. If teachers integrate the MI theory into the activity, they may find that this teaching aim can be achieved through many approaches, for example, by asking students to fulfill the task on a group basis. The group discussion not only increases students' chance to communicate with each other, but also make students relaxed.

Third, teachers should pay attention to students' weak points in different intelligences and bring their linguistic competence into full play. Generally, students' ability varies in terms of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. Students are less likely to gain a balanced development in these abilities because of the students' unbalanced mastery in the eight intelligences. Therefore, teachers are supposed to take into consideration both their strengths and weakness in terms of intelligence factors. When imparting new knowledge, for example, teachers should take advantage of their strengths, while reviewing and strengthening their existing knowledge, teachers should spare no effort to improve their intelligences which are comparatively weak so that a balanced development might be achieved.

Fourth, a series of assessment approaches should be adopted to gain an overall and objective assessment for students' performance in language learning. The assessment schema should integrate such factors as students' participation in classroom, their assignment after class, their performance in various language related activities and their performance in the final examination.

VI. CONCLUSION

MI Theory provides language teachers with a variety of means to understand and categorize human intelligences, throwing light on our awareness of what makes learning possible and effective for individual students. On the other hand, MI theory is to catalyze ideas. Therefore, MI model should not be considered as rigid or prescriptive pedagogical formula. Rather, it can be seen as a framework by which language teachers employ in creative, exploratory and trial-and- error reform. In brief, MI theory is a useful tool for planning language learning tasks which insure that students can cope in the presence of challenge. When learners see what they can do, this has a positive effect on their self-esteem and can lead to enhancing success in language learning.

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Learning Styles and Their Implications in Learning and Teaching

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Abstract—**Learning style in SLA is one of the individual factors in SLA. This paper starts by stating the importance of studying learning styles. Then it quotes several definitions of learning style. The main part of it sums up the types and models of learning styles. Learning style is mainly divided into three categories: perceptual learning style, cognitive learning style and personality learning style. In the end, it states the implications of learning style for language learning and language teaching.**

Index Terms—**learning style, foreign language learning, foreign language teaching, implications**

Ellis (2005) listed seven factors while explaining individual learner differences, namely beliefs, affective state, age, aptitude, learning style, motivation, and personality. Learning style is one of the individual learner differences. What is learning style, and to what extent it affects achievements or language proficiency. The paper attempts to explore about learning style and its implication for us.

I. THE IMPORTANCE TO STUDY LEARNING AND LEARNING STYLES FOR L2 TEACHERS

In the previous years, we had paid much attention to the aspects of teaching and teacher, such as teaching methodology, teaching materials, curriculum, etc. and there had been heatedly debated over the question "Which is the best teaching method?" Recent years the focus seems to have shifted from teaching to learning.

Cook (2000) in explaining the students' contribution to learning points out "all successful teaching depends upon learning; there is no point in providing entertaining, lively, well-constructed language lessons if students do not learn. The proof of the teaching is in the learning."(P.23). Most teachers have been trained to teach, not to think about second language learning. But we know everything that is achieved in the classroom depends eventually upon what goes on in the students' minds. Indeed, learning is one aspect which cannot be ignored. To our joy, there has been much research in learning. As one factor of learning, the study of learning style also need to be paid due attention to. Oxford (2001) points out that "individual students' learning styles and strategies can work together with – or conflict with – a given instructional methodology".(p.45) Ellis (2005) proposes the concept of learner-instruction matching. In his opinion, the optimal type of instruction will be that which matches the individual learner's preferred approach to learning. Whether from the perspective of learner-instruction matching or of the relationship of learning style and learning strategy, it is necessary to study learning style.

II. DEFINITION OF LEARNING STYLES

A. Definitions

With different educational and cultural background, different personalities, and different learning experience, everybody differs in his ways of learning a foreign language, which leads to different degrees of success. The different preferred ways all usually referred to as "learning style".

The term "learning style" comes from general psychology. Ellis (2005) defines learning style as "the characteristic ways in which individuals orientate to problem-solving".(p.4) Ellis quotes Keefe (1979)'s definition of learning style-the characteristic cognitive, affective and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. Learning style is a consistent way of functioning, which reflects underlying causes of behavior. Cornett defines learning style as the overall patterns that will give general direction to learning behavior while according to Dunn and Griggs, they define learning style as the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others.

We cannot say which definition is better because each definition is made from one angle. It makes much sense to get the basic ideas of learning style.

B. The Range of Learning Style

Experts don't see eye to eye with regard to what learning style is. It might be helpful if we sum up some shared characteristics from the above definitions. These may include the following points:

Learning style concerns with individual learners; learning style is the ways of learning; learning style is relatively

consistent or stable for individual learners; learning style is the favored or preferred way of learning for an individual learner.

C.   Distinctions with Learning Strategy

Learning style and learning strategy are confusable concept. To make learning style clear in meaning, we may distinguish it from learning strategy. The former is one of the individual learner differences. According to Ellis (2005), individual learner differences including learning style "together with situational factors determine learners' choice of learning strategies." (p.52). According to Oxford, "language learning styles and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how and how well our students learn a second language". (Oxford, 2001, p. 43).He refers to learning style as the "general approach" (Oxford, 2001, p. 44) and defines learning strategies as "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques". (Oxford, 2001, p. 45). And he further points out "when learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style …, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning." (Oxford, 2001, p. 55)

What ever the relationship between learning style and learning strategy might be, it would be safe to point out that a learner's learning style may predict his choice of learning strategy. And there is a problem of the match between learning strategy and learning style. A good match of learning strategy with learning style can bring about positive results.

III.   LEARNING STYLE TYPES AND MODELS

Psychologists have identified a lot of learning styles. It is said that there are over seventy learning style models and each model is made up of at least two specific learning styles. Not all these models can be borrowed to explain the learning of a foreign language, after all language learning has its own characteristics. That is to say not all the learning style models are valid in explaining the phenomenon of learning a foreign language. The most frequently quoted models in the field of L2 learning include: 'focuser' and 'scanner', 'serialists' and 'holists', 'impulsive' and 'reflective', 'divergent' and 'convergent' thinkers, 'field dependence' and 'field independence', four perceptual learning modalities, global and analytic, and etc.

We can categorize these learning styles into three broad types: perceptual learning styles, cognitive learning styles, and personality learning styles.

A.   Perceptual Learning Styles

Perceptual learning style also referred to as sensory learning style, concerns with the involvement of learner's sense organs in the process of learning, such as eyes and ears. Learners employ their sense organs to process the stimuli from outside. There are five styles fall into this type, namely, visual learning (learn by seeing), auditory (learn by hearing), reading/writing (learn by processing text), tactile learners (learn by touching), and kinesthetic learning/practical learning (learn by doing).

Visual learners prefer to learn by reading books, seeing words, or looking at some teaching tools. They prefer to look at the written words on the blackboard than to only listen to the teacher. Therefore they like the teacher to write more than to talk more in classroom. The PPT presentation is suitable to these learners because it presents words, and pictures or charts. This type of learners will feel comfortable when teacher use the translation-grammar teaching approach.

Auditory learners, also referred to as verbal learners, prefer to learn by listening. For them, they may enjoy to have interactions with others by talking. They may dislike reading books. So in formal instruction settings, they would rather to listen more than to see more. A few teaching approaches may suit them, such as the oral approach, the situational approach, the audio-lingual approach, and communicative approach.

Tactile learners and kinesthetic learners are similar. The former prefer to learn by feeling or touching something with their hands while the later like movement. Learners of these two kinds will feel comfortable when teacher use the total physical response approach.

B.   Cognitive Learning Styles

Cognitive learning styles include 'focuser' and 'scanner', 'serialists' and 'holists', 'divergent' and 'convergent' thinkers, 'field dependence' (global leaner) and field independence' (analytic learner). Some of them are over-lapping in meaning. And most important pair is field independence and field dependence, which has been investigated widely in relation to L2 language learning.

Field-independent learners, also known as analytic learners, can be described as the learners who would like to focus on details of a foreign language and to break down a whole thing into parts or pieces. They may ignore the whole picture when concentrating on details. They are good analysts. They would like to analyze a reading passage or a sentence into parts trying to get the exact meaning. For field-dependent learners, they are global learners. They would like to focus on whole thing of the learning material, whether a passage or a sentence. They are good at grasping the main points and the general structure.

Johnson (2003) points out "the filed independent subjects seemed to be better learners"(p.32) when he mentions the tests carried out by Naiman et al. These tests involved personality and cognitive styles, among which only two are

reported to give positive correlations with language-learning success. One is tolerance of ambiguity and the other one is field-independence.

Ellis (2005) mentioned two hypotheses. One hypothesis suggests that "field-dependent learners do better in formal language learning, while field-independent learners do better in informal language learning." (p.63)The other hypothesis suggests "field dependent learners will interact more and seek out more contact with other users of the L2". (p.63) However, these two hypotheses are very controversial. As Ellis points out, "the research into field dependence/field independence has shed little light on the relationship between cognitive style and L2 learning." (Ellis, 2001, p.66)

C. Personality Learning Styles

As far as I know, there are two types of learners in terms of personality: reflective learner and impulsive learner. Reflective learners prefer accuracy to fluency. They would like to think more carefully and more thoroughly before they speak or write or do any other production tasks. And they try to avoid making mistakes. They are careful learners. On the other hand, impulsive learners, as the name suggests, they are bold in character and they would like to take risks. They prefer fluency to accuracy. They probably make more mistakes than reflective learners.

D. Learners of Compound Learning Styles

Learners of compound learning styles refer to those who have more than one strong learning style. It is possible that a learner may be a visual learner and an impulsive learner at the same time. The research into this type of learner is limited. I think there are a few possible combination models and they remain to be testified.

IV. LEARNING STYLES' IMPLICATIONS TO LEARNING AND TEACHING

So far there is no strong evidence to illustrate which learning style is better than another. According to Ellis, Learners manifest different learning styles but it is not yet clear whether some styles result in faster and more learning than others. Even though, the models of learning style can still shed some light to the complicated process of learning.

In my opinion, to understand learning style is important for students as well as for teachers. For students, if they learn what type of learner they are, they can have a clearer picture of the learning process, and more consciousness of learning. With more consciousness of learning style, they may understand why they feel comfortable in learning one aspect while uncomfortable in learning another. And they will know what they are good at and why they lag behind others in learning. Thus they can adjust or modify their learning a little to the learning setting or teaching methods. Most importantly, they can decide to take their learning strategies on the basis of their learning style and analysis of their weaknesses and strengths. Learning strategies have more relation to the academic achievement than learning style. Besides, they can set practical learning goals suitable for themselves. For visual learners, they may become good readers. For auditory learners, they may become good at speaking and communicating.

Learning style is more or less fixed and it is not easy to change one's learning style as one cannot easily change one's personality, habit, or cognitive style. In this sense, it is more important for teacher to understand the theories of learning style and to get to know the students' learning style. As teachers, we have to remember that our students' learning style cannot be the same. It is the varied learning styles in a classroom that make the teaching difficult. On the basis of this, we have to adapt different teaching methods and we have to find out a balanced teaching approach. But firstly of all, we should make a survey to identify the learning style of our students. Based one the result of the survey, we will determine what the most popular learning style in that particular class and what are the least popular style in this class. We can grade them. Our teaching methods will cater to the differences of learning style. On the other hand, we can put students of the same or similar learning styles into one class and this will make teaching more student-oriented and easier to handle.

Haynes lists the activities fit for students of different learning style. For auditory learners, these activities include interviewing, debating, participating on a panel, giving oral reports, and participating in oral discussions of written material. For Visual Learners, these activities are suggested: computer graphic, maps, graphs, charts, cartoons, posters, diagrams, text with a lot of pictures. For tactile learners, some favorite activities include drawing, playing board games, and making models. For kinesthetic learners, playing games that involve the whole body, movement activities, making models, and setting up experiments. For global learners, choral reading, recorded books, story writing, computer programs, games, group activities. For analytic learners, information presented in sequential steps, teacher directed, clear goals and requirements.

Another implication may be that: one single teaching method or approach cannot work for all the students in a class. The popular communicative approach may not suitable for students of visual learners or analytic learners. Task-based teaching approach may be a good choice if the tasks are designed carefully and the tasks can attract different type of learners.

Now learning strategy research is catching on and people in the field of EFL or ESL become more and more interested in learning strategy. Learning style research seems outdated due to the lack of convincing testing results. But it is worthwhile to review the basic ideas of learning style. Recognition of the diversity of learning style is important in our teaching practice. Language teachers should take the differences of learning style into account in the process of

teaching. They should teach in a balanced way according to the range of students' learning style. One teaching approach cannot work for everyone in a class. Different teaching approaches may be integrated and different tasks or activities may be done in classroom to please all the students and produce better teaching results.

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The Application of Organizers as an Efficient Technique in ESP Textbooks Development

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Abstract—**The crucial role of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) textbooks, especially in situations where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), and also their role as almost the only source of English language seem undeniable. In Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) words, considering such situations where learners need to extract their information from English-medium subject textbooks, a reading-only course could be suitable, but such textbooks should be developed in a way to maximize learners' exposure to language, to meet their needs, to increase their motivations and to facilitate their learning and recall of information. Therefore, in ESP materials development, graphic organizers, defined as visual displays in which the information is converted into a diagrammatic representation of important key words and concepts associated with the main study topic, could be used as an innovative technique to provide better learning opportunities and facilitate students' learning processes. Thus, this paper is an attempt to present the advantages of using graphic organizers as an advantageous technique in developing ESP textbooks as well as to report the personal observations and experiences of the researchers in teaching ESP through graphic organizers and also to give some useful recommendations to ESP teachers, textbooks designers and materials developers to resort to this efficient technique.**

Index Terms—**graphic organizers, ESP, textbooks development**

I. INTRODUCTION

Playing a crucial role in any ESP classroom, textbooks should be developed in a way that can easily meet the learners' needs, increase their motivations and facilitate their learning and recall of information. In Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) words, in situations where English is a foreign and not a second language, the ESP classroom may be almost the only source of English and in such situations materials then play an important role in exposing learners to the language. In their words, in such situations, a reading-only course could meet the learners' needs and interests as well as the program's goals.

Considering the current status of ESP textbooks in Iranian academic context reveals that while it has been quite a while since their introduction to the Iranian university system, all of which developed to improve the learners' reading skill, may hardly ever meet the actual needs of Iranian university students as well as educationalists and curriculum designers (see Erfani, et al., 2009; Farhady, 2005; Riazi, 2005).

Dealing with the significant shortcomings of Iranian ESP textbooks, Erfani et al. (2009), Iranmehr et al. (2010 a) and Shokouhi (2005) introduce the lack of useful and efficient approaches, strategies and techniques as one of the main serious drawbacks of ESP textbooks. In this regard, criticizing the lack of diversity of exercises, drills and activities, Soleimani (2005) maintains that many common reading strategies have been neglected.

In Shokouhi's (2005) words, also the dominance of inadequate methods or approaches like Grammar-Translation Method has led to ignoring some efficient approaches, strategies and techniques in Iranian ESP textbooks development.

The researchers, conceiving the inadequacy of the current strategies in ESP textbooks such as the necessity of integrating the efficient strategies and techniques in reading comprehension as well as understanding the significant impact of graphic organizers as a strategy providing learning opportunities (Dehnad, 2005), facilitating learning and recall of information (Chiang, 2004), and strengthening the reading comprehension ability of language learners (McNamara, 2007), have intended to present and introduce this efficient strategy to be used in Iranian ESP textbooks development to reduce the inefficiency of the current framework which is dominant on these textbooks.

II. Review of Literature

In this part, before dealing with the concept of graphic organizers, their functions and types as well as the reports available on its efficiency on reading comprehension, it seems necessary to have a short glance at the importance of ESP materials development in addition to the current status of Iranian ESP textbooks.

Enumerating the main components of any curriculum, Richards (2001) introduces materials as one of them and certainly ESP as a trend of English language teaching (ELT) is not an exception to the rule. In his words, ESP materials should be not only a source of language, but a source of motivating and stimulating learning support. In other words, ESP as a material-led movement (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) has aimed at providing the teaching textbooks to satisfy the learners' needs and interests as well as the program's objectives.

In spite of passing about twenty-six years form the introduction of ESP textbooks development in Iranian academic context, as noted, they are still suffering from some serious drawbacks which have been studied, especially in recent years, more or less by Iranian scholars and practitioners.

To put it simply, we can claim that besides the shortcomings, including issues related to curriculum development, teachers' misunderstanding or inattention to the real position of ESP, lack of needs analysis, inefficient assessment, etc., there is no doubt that the ESP textbooks are also suffering from serious shortcomings.

According to Erfani et al. (2011), in most Iranian ESP textbooks, language focus is emphasized and no attention is given to skills and strategies such as skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from the context, graphic organizers, etc. Soleimani (2005) also believes that the uniformity of one single pattern in these books means imposing an inflexible structure on learners to follow.

Concerning such drawbacks and shortcomings, Farhady (2005) clearly asserts that current practice in Iranian ESP materials development should fundamentally be redesigned and Iranmehr et al. (2010 a) call for the reengineering of Iranian ESP textbooks.

A. Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers as visual displays that depict relationships between facts, terms and ideas within a learning task (Hall & Strangman, 2002) include maps, webs, graphs, charts, frames and clusters (Willis, 2008). In her words, they can increase comprehension, organization, summarizing, prioritizing and analysis by helping students construct and visualize relationships.

According to Ben-David (2002) graphic organizers are useful in organizing information to make it easier to understand and learn. In fact, constructing graphic organizers helps learners discover how knowledge is related to prior knowledge in content areas and this has been viewed as an essential part of reading comprehension skill. According to Trabasso and Bouchard (2002), graphic organizers as a cognitive strategy can improve reading comprehension. Griffin et al. (1995) maintain that graphic organizers as a strategy can help readers organize text contents effectively. Providing three reasons why language teachers should use graphic organizers in their classrooms, Ellis (2004) classifies them as following: first, learners are considerably more likely to understand and remember the content subject since graphic organizers help them identify what is important to know about a text; second, because the semantic processing demands are minimized, teachers can address the content at more sophisticated or complex levels; third, learners are more likely to become strategic readers as they recognize the patterns of thinking, constructing and using graphic organizers. Mc-Namara (2007) also introduces graphic organizer as a strategy to organize, restructure and synthesize the text content.

Research findings (see Mohammadi et al., 2010; Chiang, 2004) along with some theoretical backgrounds (see Tarquin & Walker, 1997; Willis, 2008) reveal that using graphic organizers as a strategy facilitates reading comprehension. In addition, empirical studies support the benefit of graphic strategies in helping readers' memorization and comprehension of descriptive text contents (Alverman, 1981), concept acquisition (Robinson et. al., 1998), science concept learning (Novak & Musonda, 1991; Schmid & Telaro, 1991), and learning from texts (Hauser et. al., 2006).

To sum up, graphic organizers are excellent tools for learning the structure of thinking skills. A graphic organizer provides a powerful visual picture of information and allows the mind "to see" patterns and relationships.

Conceiving such importance and efficiency, it is strongly believed that this strategy can be used in teaching ESP reading comprehension as well as developing ESP reading materials. Since the Iranian ESP textbooks are developed with a special focus on reading comprehension, this strategy can certainly be integrated in these textbooks.

B. Types of Graphic Organizers

There are many kinds of graphic organizers and they are classified in various ways. According to one of the most popular classifications, graphic organizers can be categorized by the different thinking skills they utilize:

I. *Describing*:

(a) A **concept map** is a special form of a web diagram for exploring knowledge and gathering and sharing information.

(b) A **mind map** is a diagram used to represent words, ideas, tasks, or other items linked to and arranged around a central key word or idea.

II. *Comparing / contrasting:*

(a) **Venn diagrams** show all hypothetically possible logical relations between a finite collection of sets.

(b) A **Double Cell Diagram** is an excellent substitute for a Venn diagram for comparing likenesses and differences.

III. *Classifying:*

(a) The **hierarchy chart** (also known as a **structure chart**) shows the relationship of various units. It groups items (things, people, places, events, ideas, etc.) into categories.

IV. *Sequencing:*

(a) **Linear string** describes a sequence of events, stages, phases, actions and outcomes.

(b) **Sequence chart** includes connected boxes of a sequence chart that shows a progression, series, or succession of information.

V. *Reflecting*:

(a) **KWL** is a three-column chart whose specific labels for each column are" What do you KNOW?", What do you WANT to know?" and 'What have you LEARNED?". This is useful when you are faced with new or difficult information.

(b) **PMI** shows positive, negative, and interesting attributes of a subject, concept, topic, solution, etc., in order to determine the nature of the outcome and whether it will be worth continuing or not.

III. RESEARCHERS' OBSERVATION AND EXPERIENCES OF TEACHING ESP THROUGH GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS AND THEIR SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER

To check the efficiency of using graphic organizers on ESP reading comprehension, the researchers tried to study an experimental research (see Iranmehr et al., 2010 b). In short, not only did the findings reveal that statistically the experimental group outperformed, but also our observations showed that using this strategy as an innovative one helped learners improve ESP reading comprehension and engage more actively in the class.

Considering the fact that this study was limited to only some types of graphic organizers, it is suggested that similar studies be conducted with other types of graphic organizers. The need is also felt to carry out similar studies to investigate the effects of graphic organizers at higher and lower levels of language proficiency. Moreover, more comprehensive studies could be done to investigate the effect of graphic organizers on other skills specially writing. Last but not the least, it is recommended to ESP teachers and materials developers not to restrict themselves to some common traditional but ineffective approaches and methods.

IV. AN ESP SAMPLE LESSON FURNISHED WITH SOME TYPES OF GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS

Conceiving the efficiency of graphic organizers along with the deficiency of the current ESP textbooks, the researchers tried to integrate them into their teaching. To do so, they furnished the available lessons with some patterns of graphic organizers; one of these redesigned lessons is presented here.

MATTER
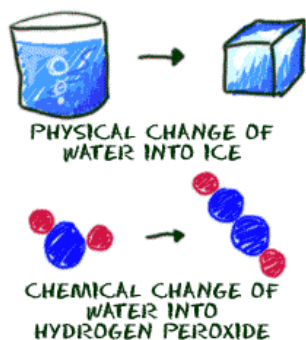
1. **Matter** is everything around you. Matter is anything made of atoms and molecules. Matter is anything that has a **mass**. As of 1995, scientists have identified five states of matter. They are solids, liquids, gases, plasmas, and a new one called Bose-Einstein condensates. The first four have been around a long time. The scientists who worked with the Bose-Einstein condensate received a Nobel Prize for their work in 1995.

2. Changing states of matter is about changing densities, pressures, temperatures, and other physical properties. The basic chemical structure does not change. As the temperature of matter increases, particles move faster because they have more energy. In a solid, particles have less energy, are **tightly packed** together (dense) and do not move very much. Solids have a definite shape and volume. In a liquid, particles have more energy, are less tightly packed (less dense), and can move freely. Liquids have definite volume but no definite shape (instead, they take on the shape of the container). The particles in a gas have the most energy and are free to move around and so spread out rapidly. Gases do not have a definite shape or volume and expand to fill the entire container. Thus, as the temperature of matter increases, its density decreases (particles get farther apart).

3. All matter can move from one state to another. It may require very low temperatures or very high pressures, but it can be done. Phase changes happen when certain points are reached. Sometimes a liquid wants to become a solid. Scientists use something called a **freezing point** to measure when that liquid turns into a solid. There are physical effects that can change the freezing point. Pressure is one of those effects. When the pressure surrounding a substance goes up, the freezing point also goes up. That means it's easier to freeze the substance at higher pressures.

4. Atoms in a liquid have more energy than the atoms in a solid. The easiest energy around is probably heat. There is a magic temperature for every substance called the melting point. When a solid reaches the temperature of its **melting**

point it can become a liquid. For water the temperature has to be a little over zero degrees Celsius. If you were salt, sugar, or wood your melting point would be higher than water.
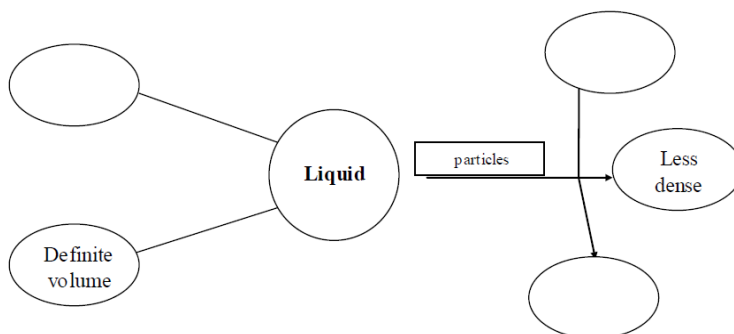
Task 1: Use the passage you have studied to complete the following.

States of matter
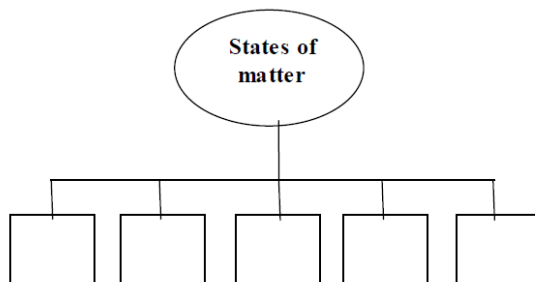
Task 2: Use the passage to complete the following table.

state	movement	proximity	shape/volume
	Very fast		
		Very tightly packed	

Task 3 Write the properties of liquids in the boxes:

Liquid   particles →   Less dense

Definite volume

Task 4: Use the chart and write the similarities and differences of three types of matter:

Definite Volun

Matter

Gas
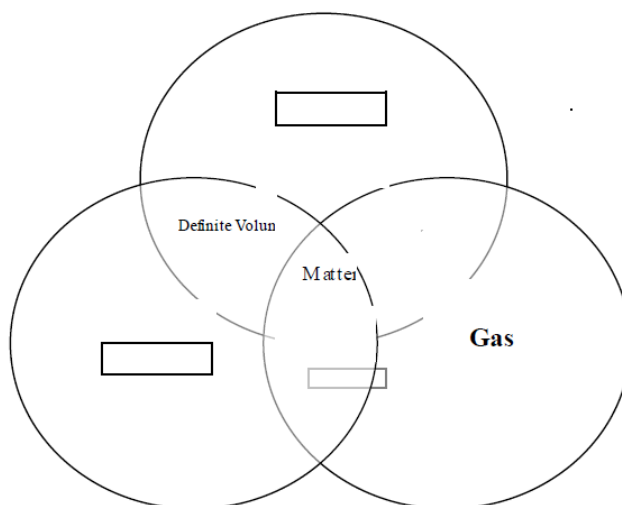
Task 5: Write the sequence of changing states of matter:
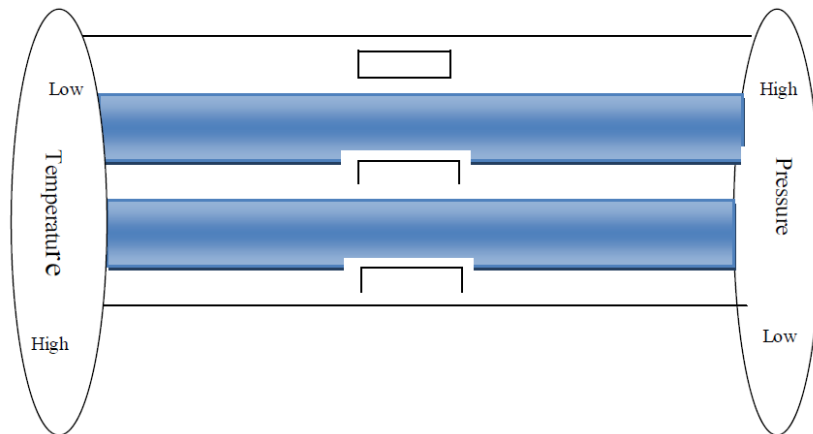
Task 6: Put the following words in their appropriate places.

temperature / pressure / freezing point / boiling point
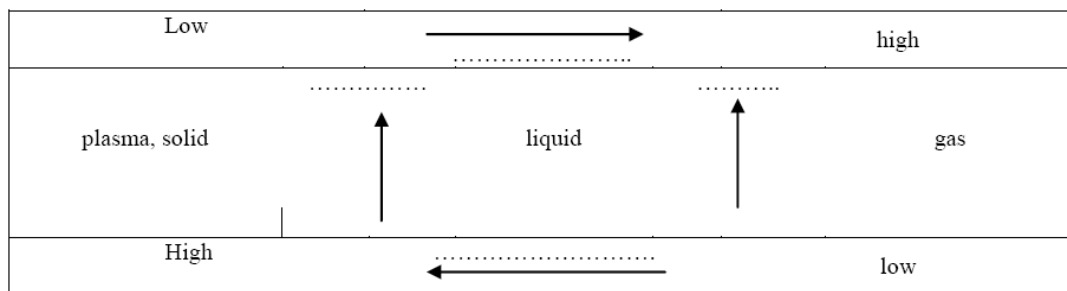
Task 7: According to the passage write the properties of melting and freezing points in the boxes:
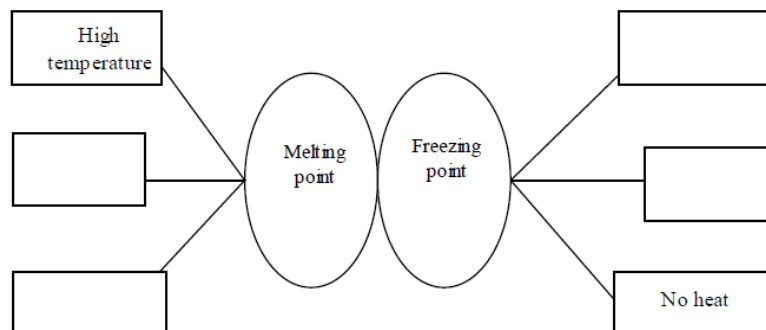
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Multiple-choice Item and Its Backwash Effect on Language Teaching in China

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Abstract—At present, the multiple-choice item is one of the widely used items in language testing, especially in large-scale language testing. In recent years, however, many people criticize this kind of item because of its negative backwash effect on foreign language teaching and learning. This paper seeks to analyze it and its backwash effect from several aspects and angles so as to have a scientific attitude towards it.

Index Terms—multiple-choice item, backwash effect, language teaching

I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST

During the 1960s, influenced by the aural-oral approach and the structuralist linguistic approach, language testing bid farewell to the approaches which were not scientific and introduced psychometric-structuralist linguistic approaches. Lado and his followers (1961) hold that language consists of different parts such as phonetics, vocabulary and syntax, and different skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing. These different parts and skills can be broken down into their component parts and those parts tested separately and adequately (Farhady,1979). Such a rationale is derived from structural linguistics and behavioristic psychology which claim that behavior is in essence the sum of its component parts. It is claimed that by adequately sampling the component parts of language, validity can be achieved. It is just under such background that multiple-choice item came into being.

Very often, the multiple-choice item is made up of two parts. The initial part of each multiple-choice item is known as the stem; the choices from which the students select their answers are referred to as options. One option is the correct answer, while the other options are distractors.

Multiple-choice item is now very popular and widely used in national and international examinations such as NMET, CET4, CET6, EPT in China, and TOEFL, GRE, GMAT, BEC, IELTS in the United States and in England. However, the voice of criticism against using this kind of item is increasingly growing, for more and more people are worried about the negative backwash effect caused by multiple-choice item. In order to make an objective assessment of the item, it is necessary for us to discuss such a kind of item and its backwash effect on teaching in this paper.

II. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MULTIPLE-CHOICE TEST

In analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of multiple-choice item, we should take into consideration the principles of language testing. Generally speaking, the advantages and disadvantages are mainly as follows:

A. Advantages of Multiple-choice Item

There are a series of advantages with multiple-choice item. Firstly, it is easy for scorers to go over examination papers. Since it usually has only one correct answer, or at least, a limited number of correct answers, so it can be scored mechanically, and therefore, the reliability of scorers can be ensured.

Secondly, besides its high reliability of scoring, multiple-choice item has the strengths of saving time, effort and money in carrying out large-scale examinations. Meanwhile, within the same amount of time, the exam which adopts this kind of item can embody more items in a test paper. In doing so, the reliability of the exam can be greatly improved. Moreover, it is quite convenient for statistic analysis and can also provide more feedback for language teaching and learning, which makes this kind of test more scientific.

Thirdly, the range of the multiple-choice item is wide enough. It can be employed in any disciplines, which strives for the process of dealing with the problems, such as mathematics, chemistry and physics. In English teaching and learning, whether practical courses or theoretical courses such as linguistics, literature, this kind of item is widely used in tests. Viewed from linguistic level, the multiple-choice item may be employed at the word level, sentence level and discourse level. And viewed from the level of ability, although it is concerned mainly with the ability of memory and comprehension, at times it can be beyond this scope.

Fourthly, it has a good diagnostic function. In multiple-choice items, the content which is designed for testing can be

divided into several items to be tested. Therefore, teachers can find out problems in time by means of analyzing mistakes made by the testees in each item and then put forward approaches to give remedial teaching to the students.

Fifthly, multiple-choice items can provide a useful means of teaching and testing in various learning situations (particularly at the lower levels) provided that it is always recognized that such items test knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, etc, rather than the ability to use language.

B. Disadvantages of Multiple-choice Item

There are many disadvantages with multiple-choice item, firstly, frequently it does not lend itself to the testing of language as communication. The process involved in the actual selection of one out of four or five options bears little relation to the way language is used in most real-life situations. Appropriate responses to various stimuli in everyday situations are produced rather than chosen from several options.

Secondly, the objective test of the multiple-choice type does encourage guessing. It is quite obvious that the factor of guessing is one that can't be excluded in the process of choosing the key in a test paper. At present, most of the multiple-choice item has four alternatives, therefore, the chance of a student guessing an answer is 25%, even if candidates are ignorant of the four options, and also the chance will surely be higher if they can eliminate one or two of the distractors.

Thirdly, the process of constructing items is quite complex. It is common knowledge that the process of constructing subjective items is easier than that of constructing multiple-choice item. For example, the type of writing item can generally measure candidates' ability to write if the title of writing is suitable and personal and subjective factors are controlled appropriately. On the contrary, the quality of multiple-choice item is hard to ensure because of this complex process of item writing. At first sight, the construction of multiple-choice item is quite simple, but in fact, it is rather difficult to control its item and alternatives. A number of questions should be taken into consideration, for example, which linguistic elements should be tested, how to make pretest, what kind of data analysis must be made after pretest, how to design item and key in each item, how to design plausible distractors, and so on, all of which really cost much time and effort.

Fourthly, it is easier for candidates to cheat in multiple-choice item. The reason for this phenomenon is that candidates are only required to choose the key from four alternatives, so it is quite convenient for some candidates to copy other candidates' answers. Even though from the test papers the scorers can make sure that some candidates have cheated in the exams, however, it is not easy to collect strong evidence in order to punish them.

III. BACKWASH EFFECT ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

From what we have discussed above, we can see clearly that the widely application of multiple-choice item in large-scale examination produces negative backwash effect on language teaching and learning. For example, many candidates can obtain high marks in a test containing multiple-choice item, but fail to communicate with other people in English freely. Likewise, a number of candidates who have passed CET4 or CET6 are eliminated in English interview when they apply for jobs in foreign companies. Clearly, in order to get high marks, both teachers and students are very interested in looking for test-taking strategy rather than the training of language itself. As we know, the aim of exam is to test teaching quality, promote teaching quality and to deepen the reform of foreign language teaching and learning. If candidates use the wrong means to pass the exam, then such kind of testing will be meaningless.

Since it is the product of the second stage in the development of language testing, multiple-choice item focused on testing receptive skills of language rather than productive skills of language. Just as testing expert Alderson put, "there is evidence that students taking multiple-choice tests can learn strategies for taking such tests that 'artificially' inflate their scores." (Alderson et al, 2000, p.45) Obviously, such kind of item gives rise to negative backwash effect on language teaching and learning. Therefore, to prepare for this kind of item is not the best way to improve candidates' language ability.

IV. APPLICATION OF MULTIPLE-CHOICE TESTS TO TEACHING TO REDUCE THE NEGATIVE BACKWASH EFFECT

In the improvement of the quality of a test, such as the multiple-choice test. The most important thing is to increase the reliability and validity. Reliability refers to the fact that if the same test is given to the same subject or matched subjects on two different occasions, it yields similar results whereas validity of a test is the extent to which it measures what it is supposed to measure and nothing else. In other words, it means that language testing can accurately reflect candidates' ability to use the language. Viewed from the level of development of language testing, the reliability and validity of a test often contradict each other. The testing methods with high reliability such as multiple-choice item are highly reliable but their validity may be low. The ideal condition is hard to achieve, although the validity can be improved by means of designing the items carefully. On the contrary, testing methods with high validity, such as composition, oral test, are highly valid, but usually the reliability is not high. And because of this factor, it is not easy to guarantee objectivity and consistency of scoring. Some measures may be employed to increase the validity of this kind of test, however, similarly, the ideal extent is quite difficult to attain. Clearly, this is the problem facing foreign language testing. So for modern language testing, large-scare language testing in particular, we can only try to find the best

balance between reliability and validity. To reduce the negative backwash effect in a test containing multiple-choice item, the test paper should contain two essential parts: objective items (mainly multiple-choice item) and subjective items. The combination of objective items and subjective items can make up each other's deficiencies so as to ensure the practicality of operation in large-scale language testing and its communication, and at the same time to make the language testing scientific to the greatest possible.

V. CONCLUSION

As one of the most popular items in language testing, the multiple-choice item deserves to be explored by us not only from theory but also from practice. The fact we should bear in mind is that the multiple-choice item has more disadvantages over advantages. Its big advantage is the objectivity of scoring and economy in terms of manpower, time and material resources. But the complex process of constructing items, especially the writing of distrators, is much more difficult than we can expect. For large-scale tests, however, such as CET and TEM since there are so many candidates taking part in them each year, we have to continue to use it before better and more appropriate items come into being. We have to use it not because it is the best one, but because we have no other choices at present. Therefore, in order to improve the validity of multiple-choice item, the test papers in large-scale test should be made up of two parts, a lot of multiple-choice items on one hand and a few of subjective items (for example, composition item, translation item, paraphrase item) on the other, with the aim of making full use of the strengths of both subjective and objective items to guarantee the quality of test papers. Thus a set of items will have both good reliability and validity, and also produces good backwash effect on teaching.

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Applying Bilingual Teaching on Employment-oriented IT Experience Training Program in Nationalities Universities

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Abstract—It is a little difficult to carry out bilingual teaching in employment-oriented IT experienced training program because of its strong practicality and rapid development. How to keep pace with technology development and adopt effective bilingual teaching method and approach cultivating compound international talents of software development required by society, and how to utilize auxiliary network teaching platform improving students' study independence is the basic target of bilingual reform for the course. Based on summarization of training contents and advantages in software companies and experiences of the first experimental project in Dalian Nationalities University, a feasible training system is put forward. Combined with bilingual teaching experiences of teachers in course group in New Zealand, flexible and variable teaching methods are adopted in order to improve students' study enthusiasm. And students are guided to complete regular software development based on experience training program of software companies in practice teaching. The purpose of this system is to enhance students' professional skill training, improving students' English expression skills of speaking and writing, developing students' project practical ability and communication and expression ability.

Index Terms—bilingual teaching, employment-oriented, international talents, experience training, employment competence

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of computer network and information technology, talents demand for international Web application development is increasing rapidly. But graduates with computer major are often troubled with little working experience and poor English expression ability, which leads to unsatisfied employment rate (Collins, 2006). Most international software companies put much emphasis on language application ability and practical experience in their personnel recruitment, so it is necessary to carry out bilingual professional project training program before the seniors' graduation. Now many software companies have set up specific training program for graduating students with English-bilingual or Japanese-bilingual. To obtain more profits, their tuition charge is very expensive. For students coming from minority areas with economic backwardness, they can't afford extra tuition fee to come close to the employment threshold. Moreover, training contents of the companies are always the integration of several courses with more practice exercising and faculty-student ratio is too high. To solve this problem, nationalities universities can set up bilingual experience training curriculum to reduce students' economic burden. Furthermore, the training program can improve seniors' employment competence and make them fit their future work more rapidly.

Many software institutes have tried experience training program (Qin, 2007; Collins, 2007), but there are three shortages. First, most students from the independent college are short of learning subjective initiative and the learning effect is not satisfied. Second, all students must participate in the training, which leads to the result that only a small proportion can complete the whole project and some students with poor fundamental knowledge can't follow the scheduled training process. Third, many training teachers don't have the working experience in software companies.

Based on the summarization of training experiences in software companies and shortages of training program in the independent colleges, we carried out the first experimental project in Dalian Nationalities University in September,

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* corresponding author

2009 and second bilingual training program in September, 2010. The detailed implementation plan, training methodology and teaching organization are discussed in the following sections.

II. COMPARISON BETWEEN BILINGUAL EXPERIENCE TRAINING PROGRAM IN SOFTWARE COMPANIES AND IN COLLEGES

A. Bilingual Experience Training Program in Software Companies

Seniors have no pressure before they realize the serious employment situation and are short of learning motivation. Bilingual experience training program can force them to focus on reviewing professional knowledge, improving language application ability and adapting to the working environment with high pressure. Certainly there are many advantages of bilingual experience training program in software companies such as the practical project experience, regular bilingual documents of software development, real working environment, training experience and excellent training tutors. But profit is the purpose of training in software companies, so there are many limitations of bilingual experience training program in Software Company for students. We summarize as follow:

(1) Bilingual teaching is carried out by professional English or Japanese teachers. Lack of project development experiences and too much emphasis put on language itself, students will find it difficult to put language study into software development process.

(2) Base on the cost, one class consists of nearly 60 to 70 students, which means students must rely on themselves, not tutors. It is better to have a class not more than 30 students for bilingual teaching.

(3) Teaching resources are limited in the classroom and flash memory disk is forbidden. Students can't copy their codes or documents, much less review in their own computers.

(4) Web resources are limited or even forbidden. So students can't get any reference material to help them understand the teaching content.

B. Bilingual Experience Training Program in Universities

Education of universities put more emphasis on teaching quality than profit. The purpose of high education is to culture the competitive and high quality graduates. In comparison with software companies, there are many advantages of bilingual experience training program in universities for students, which are summarized as follow.

(1) Project tutors carried out bilingual teaching in the whole experience training program. They adopt communicative teaching methods to improve students' capability of expressing professional knowledge in listening, speaking and writing.

(2) Web resources are open and students can get many help from the web. Teaching resources are open and can be accessed in the multimedia computer room or dormitories. Students can copy courseware and sample codes and save any code fragment or document in their computers.

(3) Teaching is students-centered. One teaching class has 30 students at most. So tutors can give guidance to any student in training. Study pressure put on the students is little by little until they realize the serious employment status.

III. BILINGUAL EXPERIENCE TRAINING PROGRAM IN DALIAN NATIONALITIES UNIVERSITY

In September, 2009, we carried out the first experimental project for seniors of grade 2006 with computer science major (Liu, 2010). From July to August, 2010, authors attended a bilingual training program in New Zealand. The training organizer, Edenz Colleges (Edenz Colleges, 2010), adopted a teaching method called communicative teaching methods, which we adopted in our subsequent training program. In September, 2010, we carried out the second bilingual training program for seniors of grade 2007. From the implementation process to teaching approaches, we tried our best to practice and find the best solutions. Introducing communicative teaching methods into bilingual training process, we discussed these issues in the following sections in detail.

A. Implementation Process

There are two stages of our training program, that is, preparation stage and practical project training stage. The first preparation stage is showed in Fig.1.

In the step of students' selection, we choose some qualified candidates based on English test and programming test in computers because not all students can follow the whole training process. To get enough guidance for each student, each teaching class consists of 30 members at most. For these selected students, the step of synopsis explanation of fundamental knowledge is the same. Students have learned the needed knowledge independently, but they can't relate them together to solve a problem. Functions of this step are to master key idea of the knowledge and learn to solve one problem with integrated knowledge points. In the step of framework explanation, tutors introduce Struts1, Struts2 and Hibernate for students with better fundamental knowledge and introduce only Struts1 for students with average fundamental knowledge. Similar to this, students with better fundamentals practice the small item with integrated frameworks and students with average fundamentals practice the small item with Struts1 only. After reviewing the necessary fundamental knowledge, it is time to start the next practical project training process. Here, we introduce one idea of introducing games into theory teaching from communicate teaching methods. For example, in software engineering teaching (Roger, 2005), life cycle of software development is divided into different parts, and students are

instructed to rearrange these parts into one complete flow chart. Using this way, it will be much easier for students to accept new theory than presentation directly. If students can participate in lesson teaching process, they will be interested in what are studying.
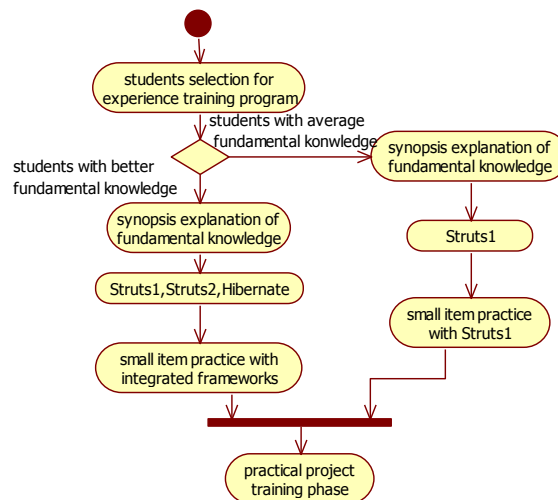

Figure1. Preparation stage for the training program.

Bilingual practical training process is very important for each student. In this process, they not only learn how to express professional knowledge in English, but also learn how to develop software based on regular document specifications. Flowchart of the practical project training process is too long, so we decompose it into two parts. The first part is shown in Fig.2.
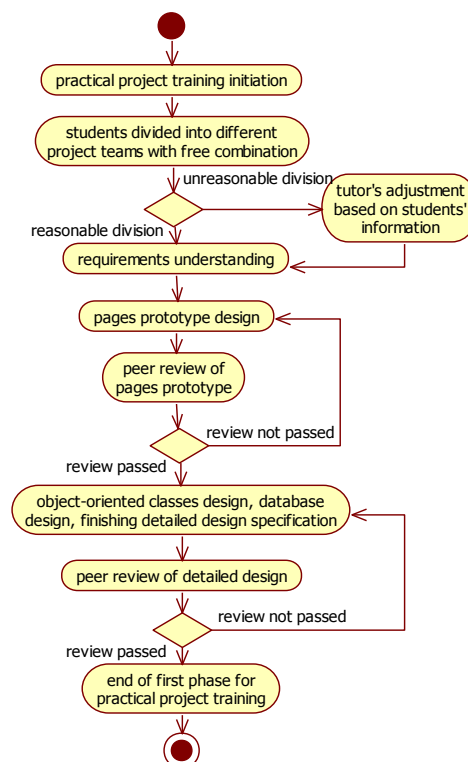
Figure2.   First phase of practical project training.

In the step of practical project training initiation, tutors explain the whole training process and help students establish their self-confidence by a general understanding. After this step, all training students are divided into different project teams, which can be grouped by free combination or tutor's adjustment. The group is composed of team leader, configuration manager, review leader, database manager and test leader, which cooperates together to finish the project development. When the division is reasonable, requirements understanding of the formal training will start. Students are required to discuss every detail for the project in English. Because the selected project is based on the company's

business, so the students have to understand what functions they will implement. Tutors will elicit key functions for each project, and lead each group to complete their requirements understanding.

With the full understanding of the requirements, students can design pages prototype with HTML, JavaScript and CSS or one visualization toolkit such as Visio. Here, we adopt the new peer review as the evaluation approach referenced by the company experience, that is, course group decides whether the achievements is qualified. Team leader of each group needs to present their deliverables in English. If the review is not passed, students have to modify the design and repeat the review process. If the review is passed, students can go to the next step of object-oriented classes design, database design and the detailed design specification writing. Similar to the previous review process, the achievements have to be reviewed by all tutors to decide whether the design needs modification. Except from presenting in English for each step, regular documents accordance with software development specifications are needed to complete in English for each group. This means students have to finish each deliverable referring to many resources. And they must cooperate with each other to finish these work.

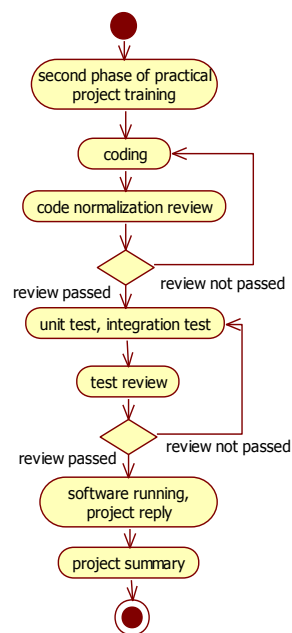The second part is shown in Fig.3.

Figure3.   Second phase of practical project training.

Although the students have put much emphasis on the coding step, tutors must put more energy into guidance or complete the work helped by the excellent students in part. Not only the required functions needs to be realized, but also the code normalization has to be reviewed. When complicated coding is finished, students need to test the units by themselves and test the integrated software using black-box method or some test toolkit such as LoadRunner. If the software is not qualified, students have to modify the code and test it again.

If the review is passed, students come to the final step of project reply and summary. In the final step, students can summarize what they have done in the whole training process and what they have learned and should improve in the future work.

In the whole process of practical project training, students are centered to complete the training process. We set different milestones at different review phase. Here milestone means the completion and delivery of all of the deliverables or other events which are included or described in the project plan scheduled for delivery or completion on a given target date. Our milestones include static pages and architectural framework, database design specification, source code, test report and project summary report. Each project team of the students must finish all the peer review process and deliver all the deliverables. Every step is completed based on their deliverables and presentations. Tutors only lead to finish these steps and review what they have finished.

B.   Teaching Approaches

In bilingual training process, we not only give full play to theory teaching but also explore the effective teaching mode actively. In view of different study phase, we choose different practice content to motivate the students' interest, which can develop the students' team cooperation and innovation. After the training, students can solve the practical problem using the integrated knowledge and finish the formal development documents, which can help them in adapting to the job position quickly.

The main feature of our teaching approaches can be summarized as communicative teaching methods, hierarchical teaching and team cooperation.

(1) Communicative teaching methods. Teaching English in communicative teaching methods help students improve their language application capability at a large extent from listening and speaking skill to enthusiasm and initiative. Introducing CTM into bilingual teaching for employment-oriented IT experience training program with too much theory and practice will not only broaden student's professional vocabulary, but also improve students' skills of listening, speaking and writing ability to express professional knowledge in English.

(2) Hierarchical teaching, which embodies the students' selection, teaching content and evaluation method. We divide the selected students into different teaching class based on their practical ability and choose different framework knowledge. For the low level students, the corresponding evaluation is much easier compared to the high level students.

(3) Team cooperation, which can be embodied in the process of practical project training. The project team has to finish the complete requirements understanding, pages prototype design, detailed design, coding and testing as a whole. Only one member can hardly finish the work. To cooperate with other members, students must express their ideas in English and communicate with different kinds of people.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The key orientation of nationalities universities is to promote employment rate of the undergraduates. So setting up bilingual employment-oriented IT experienced training curriculum in these universities is urgent and necessary. In the 2009 teaching outline of Dalian Nationalities University, experienced training course has been scheduled as the elective course for the undergraduates with computer science as major.

In this paper, we summarize bilingual training experiences of the software company and compare training advantages and disadvantages between software companies and university. So it is necessary to set up bilingual employment-oriented IT experienced training curriculum in nationalities universities. Based on experiences of the first experimental project in our university and bilingual training experiences of authors from New Zealand, we put forward a feasible bilingual training system, which the concrete implementation process, teaching organization method and evaluation methods are discussed in detail.

The innovative points of the training program are bilingual training process design and peer review evaluation. Three flowcharts explained the main idea of our training design and peer review completed by tutors of the course group embodied the importance of the team cooperation and deliverables in English of each phase.

With more experimental project and accumulated experiences, our bilingual employment-oriented IT experienced training will play more and more important role in enhancing students' language application ability, professional skill training, developing students' project practical ability and communication and expression ability. Through our bilingual training program, employment competence of graduates from nationalities universities especially for international talents will be promoted a lot in the future.

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A Study on the Promotion of English

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Abstract—**Nowadays, the global spread of English has been widely discussed by researches in various fields. In this article, the author advocates that the promotion of English can facilitate broader communication on a more economical basis, and attempts to prove how as a global language English enables people to access better understanding and more information at the cost of fewer resources.**

Index Terms—**promotion, English, communication, information**

I. INTRODUCTION

Over recent years, the global spread of English keeps drawing more and more attention from people in various fields. Some supporters of "English triumphalism" (Graddol, 2006, p.10-13) think the spread of English as a means of international communication is natural, neutral and beneficial. David Crystal, for one, suggests that as a lingua franca of the whole world, English "fosters cultural opportunity and promotes a climate of international intelligibility." (Crystal, 1997, p.32) Counter to this are other critics who believe accompanying the spread of English, the culture and values would jeopardize the local culture and identity. Some scholars including Alastair Pennycook and Robert Phillipson criticize English for playing a fundamental role in global inequalities. "The predominant paradigm of investigation into English as an international language" lacks "a broad range of social, historical, cultural and political relationships." (Pennycook, 2001, p.80) He further puts forward that "English threatens other languages, acts as a gatekeeper to positions of wealth and prestige…through which much of the unequal distribution of wealth, resources and knowledge operates." (ibid. 86) Robert Phillipson coined the word "linguicism" to refer to "the ideologies and structures which are used to legitimate, effectuate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources(both material and non-material) between groups which are defined on the basis of their language (i.e., of their mother tongue)"(Phillipson, 1988, p.339). Among the turmoil the question rises to everyone – which side should you take on the spread of English? Is it really bad enough to deserve the title "linguistic imperialism"?

Maybe not. The opposing critics seem to have gone too far in contradicting the interests of native English-speaking countries and those ESL/EFL countries, which in fact are not necessarily contradictory – the language and culture of English might not inevitably cause the local language and culture to debase to a secondary status. In fact, many people take their own culture and identity for granted until a different culture comes in as a contrast. The trend of studying ancient Chinese literature and philosophy also rose only after China opened up to foreign thoughts.(Nie, 2007) Among this and all the other reasons we can provide to support the spread of English, the most important one to my understanding is that the promotion of English can facilitate broader communication on a more economical basis. In the following, I will try to prove how as a global language English enables people to access better understanding and more information at the cost of fewer resources.

II. RATIONALITY OF THE SPREAD OF ENGLISH

Due to some historical and cultural reasons, English has become the most widely used language in the world.

A. Better Communication and Less Money

International institutions can use English as a tool of communication at the cost of less misunderstanding and less money. Ever since the twenties century, there are more and more international bodies in political, business and academic circles where people from various places with different languages join together to exchange their knowledge and opinions. Without a common language in this case, it becomes both an understanding and a feasibility problem to ensure every speaker/writer's words are fully and correctly understood. Misunderstanding caused by mistranslation must be no news. In such institutions, the pressure for simultaneous translation is rather intense. Meanwhile the consequences of any misunderstanding are neither easily noticeable and changeable nor affordable. As a contrast, a common language would ensure much less chance of misunderstanding. People speaking the same language are much likely to understand better than people speak different language and communicate through a third translator. As for the feasibility concern, there is neither enough room for so many translators provided the translators are available, nor

enough money for such human resources. Just think of the situation in the United Nation (over 180 countries involved in some bodies). With the five official languages, the spending on translation and clerical work can easily bite up half of the total budget. (Crystal, 1997)

At this point, one might ask, even so, why it should be English instead of some other languages to take this responsibility. The answer can still go back to the economical concerns. In 2001, rough agreement was reached on the total number of English speakers, "between 700 million and 1 billion" (Pennycook, 2001, p.78), and it is reasonable to predict the number is even larger today. This number of speakers puts English in a favorable position than any other candidate language for being a common language. Esperanto might be an ideal image without any equality or justice issues involved in some linguists' minds, but suppose how much money will be spent to turn all people from outsiders to regular users. Other language might cost less than using Esperanto, but none enjoys the advantageous position as English concerning both the number and the range of distribution of its speakers.

With the pace of globalization, any place in the world is likely to become an "inter-national" body at some time to a much or lesser degree. For example, global trade is no longer a matter of bilateral arrangements between nation states, or between organizations economically rooted in nation states. Such is the complex structure of business ownership, through joint ventures and holding companies, that establishing any simple national pattern of ownership of the major enterprises is difficult. And many of the world's largest corporations can hardly even be called multinational; rather they have become transnational. It has been calculated that transnational corporations (TNGs) account for as much as two-thirds of international trade in goods, while 50 of the 100 larges economies are said to be not nation states but TNGs. The largest of the world's TNGs are involved in the energy and chemical industries (oil, pharmaceuticals) and the communications industry (airlines, telecommunications, media). The majority are headquartered in the Big Three trading blocs. At the present stage of global economic development, the international activities of TNGs are tending to promote English. At these not-so- formal occasions, the availability and quality of translators become even more of a problem, whereas the consequence of misunderstanding could be said to be not as costly but also definitely harms further communication. In similar ways, the spread of English could solve such problems by providing a common language at less cost.

B. More Information at Lower Cost

Through the global spread of English, people are enabled to achieve not only better understanding, but also more information. Today, who is the important assistant for people to get free and instant information they need? Internet for sure. However, if the information posted on different websites uses language unintelligible to us, it is not really accessible unless we were all multi-lingual genius, the uneconomical costs of which can be illustrated through the invention of bulb. Although Edison had invented the bulb, if people from other places do not have this information, they might invest their time and efforts to invent it and then think themselves as the inventor of bulb until the information somehow reaches that someone else has already done that before them and make their investment futile. This could be a bit exaggerated, but the point is, the resources all human beings possess are limited, so it is important to invest such resources as time, efforts or materials wisely and to avoid possible waste in redundant work, and in turn it is more important to get as much information as possible as to what has been done, what is about to be done, and what has not been thought of yet. Information posted in a global language is far more accessible than one that uses local language. Here again, English already takes up a favorable position. Such being the case, the promotion of English can provide people with more non-confidential information, like how to keep fit, how to take care of a pet, or how to decorate home from various brilliant brains all over the world rather than sticking to their local limited wisdom. As for the confidential information like Coca Cola recipe or techniques in sending off a satellite, people from other countries can choose to invest time and efforts on other things like effective ways of planting rice or procedures of building an aircraft, and through negotiation and trade, both sides can enjoy the benefits of what they need without redundant cost of resources and still keep their secrets to themselves. If anyone is concerned with underdeveloped countries not having any such confidential information to offer, it might be helpful to bear in mind what David Ricardo called relative advantage model, which can be interpreted here as even if the native English speaking countries are potentially good at everything and capable of working out all the confidential information by themselves, they will still invest their resources only in things they are most efficient at and benefit more from trading.

As for the accusation by Pennycook that English restricts access to technology for "the literature and conferences in which research findings are reported and through which researchers keep up to date with developments elsewhere are English based"(Graddol, 2001, p.33), it is true, but there seems to be few other choices left except the promotion of English. Without it, countries that are excluded will only remain outside, and the core native English speaking countries will remain leaders. The non-native English speaking countries can afford neither to be left outside forever nor to work out everything on their own. The revenue is much higher to invest on a communication channel and benefit from information exchange than to invest on all work necessary to generate information they need. Meanwhile, with a common language of English, it is less likely for the core countries to keep information to themselves for long. It is like Chinese people whose local dialects are similar to Putonghua are less likely to keep their conversation to themselves because anyone overhear it can understand without much difficulty. Having provided the above argument for English being an economical tool of effective communication, though, one last point can not be missed English serves people as a communicative tool. The instrumental nature requires people to preserve their own language and culture to define who

they are, and that they need to apply English to their local use as "Englishes" (Crystal, 2001, p.53) instead of chasing Standard English perfection.

III. The Future of English

The indications are that English will enjoy a special position in the multilingual society of the 21st century: it will be the only language to appear in the language mix in every part of the world. This, however, does not call for an unproblematic celebration by native speakers of English. Yesterday it was the world's poor who were multilingual; tomorrow it will also be the global elite. So we must not be hypnotized by the fact that this elite will speak English: the more significant fact may be that, unlike the majority of present-day native English speakers, they will also speak at least one other language – probably more fluently and with greater cultural loyalty.

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Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  o Submission of extended version
  o Notification of acceptance
  o Final submission due
  o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublisher.com/tpls/.

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