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On the Relationship between Writing Proficiency and Instrumental/Integrative Motivation among Iranian IELTS Candidates

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Abstract—The present study aimed at making a comparison between integratively motivated IELTS candidates and their instrumentally motivated peers in terms of their proficiency. Moreover, the cohorts were compared based on their proficiency scores on IELTS Test. The participants were initially 245 Iranian IELTS candidates who had taken the actual IELTS test in Iran; in addition to that, a questionnaire by Laine (1987) was utilized to determine the type of motivation each participant possessed. The data made up two groups of 86 integrative and 110 instrumental candidates. Using the results obtained from the proficiency test, a one-way ANOVA was run. The results indicated there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups with regard to their proficiency. It therefore was concluded that the two cohorts stood at the same level of proficiency. Moreover, the statistical analyses, using one-way ANOVA, revealed there was no significant difference between the integratively oriented participants and instrumentally oriented ones as far as their writing performance exam was concerned.

Index Terms—instrumental, integrative, motivation, writing, IELTS

I. INTRODUCTION

Needless to say, motivation plays a pivotal role in life. According to Brown (1987, p.114) motivation is “an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action”.

In education, given the difficulties associated with learning and the required persistence in the process, motivation takes on a significant role. According to Chomsky (1988, p.181) “about 99 percent of teaching is making the students feel interested in the material”.

When it comes to language learning, motivation takes on a more crucial role. As regards the central part motivation plays in learning, Oxford and Shearin (1994) claim that motivation influences the amount of input learners receive in the target language, the amount of L2 learning strategies they utilize, the extent they interact with native speakers and the extent they maintain L2 skills after language study is over.

A. Types of Motivation

As for the classification of motivation, different kinds of motivation have been proposed. Deci and Ryan (1985) differentiate between intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is generally possessed by people having personal interest(s) in doing something. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, derives from an anticipation of rewards such as praise, awards, prizes, and evaluation, and fear for punishment. An extrinsically motivated student does the activity in order to obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself and this kind of motivation refers to learning situations where the reason for doing a task is something other than an interest in the task itself and undertaking the task may be something the person feels pressured to do rather than genuinely wants to do.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) differentiate between two kinds of motivation: instrumental and integrative. Integrative orientation occurs once a learner tries to identify himself with the culture of L2 group; it characterizes students who study a second language because they are interested in the cultural values of the target language group. An instrumental motive occurs when a learner wishes to attain a goal by means of L2 and refers to language situations where the student has a utilitarian goal for instance employment, professional advancement, or exam purposes. Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggest that integrative motivation is more effective for second language acquisition. It is believed that students who like the people that speak the language, admire the culture and have a desire to become familiar with or even integrate into the society in which the language is used are most successful (Falk, 1978). In contrast to integrative motivation, there is instrumental motivation. Hudson (2000) characterizes instrumental motivation by the desire to obtain something practical or concrete from the study of a second language. Brown (2007) makes the point that both

integrative and instrumental motivations are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Learners rarely select one form of motivation when learning a second language, but rather a combination of both.

Irrespective of the types identified for motivation, obviously motivation is an important factor in L2 achievement.

Globally, language learners attempt to attain certain goals, one of the most significant of which is writing achievement. Throughout the history of education, language researchers have been at pains to find effective ways to help students achieve writing as a major skill. It goes without saying that motivation has a leading role in gaining writing proficiency. The point at issue is what type of motivation can be more conducive to writing achievement.

B. Significance of L2 Writing

Writing is a mode of learning, a facility which gives students the power to create meaning and to affect those with whom they share their writing. Writing, then, is far more than merely the act of transferring thought to paper; the act of writing helps to shape and refine our thinking. It seems, however, that teaching and learning this skill can be the most demanding task for both teachers and students. This means that writing requires a good command of language knowledge as well as the orchestration of several processes. Therefore, it may be reasonable to survey different views concerning this skill as well as the different studies conducted on L₂ writing.

Academic writing ability has been particularly recognized as one of the most crucial aspects of language ability for successful academic achievement. Although many researches have been conducted concerning this ability, no study thus far has examined the motivational factors on students L₂ writing development. The present study aimed to investigate the role motivation played with its sub-types, instrumental and integrative, in writing proficiency among IELTS students in Chabehar, Iran.

C. The Current Status of IELTS

The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is widely recognized as a reliable means of assessing whether candidates are ready to study or train in the medium of English.

All IELTS candidates take the same listening and speaking modules. There is a choice of reading and writing modules according to whether a candidate is taking the academic or general training version of the test. The academic version of the reading and the writing modules is especially designed for candidates taking the test for entry to undergraduate or postgraduate studies or for professional reasons. The general training version of these modules, on the other hand, has been designed for candidates taking the test for entering to vocational or training programs not at degree level, for admission to secondary school, and for immigration purpose.

IELTS results are reported on a nine-band scale. In addition to the score for overall language ability, IELTS provides a score, in the form of a profile, for each of the four skills. These scores are also reported on a nine-band scale. Each Overall Band Score (OBS) corresponds to a descriptive statement which gives a summary of the English language ability of a candidate classified at that level.

D. The Academic Writing Module

The Academic Writing Module takes 60 minutes; there are two tasks to complete. It is suggested that about 20 minutes be spent on task 1 which requires candidates to write at least 150 words. Task 2 requires at least 250 words and should take about 40 minutes. The assessment of task 2 carries more weight in marking than task 1. In task 1, candidates are asked to look at a diagram or table and to present the information in their own words. They are assessed on their ability to organize, present, and possibly compare data, describe the stages of a process, describe an object or event, or explain how something works. In task 2, candidates are presented with a point of view, argument or problem. They are assessed on their ability to present a solution to the problem, present and justify an opinion, compare and contrast evidence and opinions, evaluate and challenge ideas, evidence or arguments. Candidates are also judged on their ability to write in an appropriate style.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Gardner and his associates (Gardner and Lambert, 1959 & 1972; Gardner, 1968, 1979 & 1985) draw a distinction between integrative and instrumental orientation to second language learning. The former means that the learner wishes to identify him/herself as part of the community where the target language is spoken. The latter occurs when the learner finds the utilitarian value in learning a language, such as a future career perspective.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) carried out empirical studies in different contexts showing the effect of two different types of integrative and instrumental motivation on L₂ learning. Students with integrative orientation were found to be more successful as compared with those with instrumental motivation.

Nevertheless, contrary to their expectations, Lukmani (1972) found that the two kinds of motivation were related to each other as well as ESL achievement. He reported that instrumental motivation was more highly correlated with achievement in English than integrative orientation.

Quite a few studies have been done after Gardner and Lambert's controversial researches and results; some have challenged their model and some have attempted to supplement their theories. Oller, Baca and Vigil (1977) carried out a study on Mexican-Americans in the state of New Mexico and reached the conclusion that the students who were anti-

integrative towards the Anglo-American majority but were instrumentally motivated did better on the proficiency test. One year later, Oller and Perkins (1978) conducted a study on a group of Chinese alumni in America and concluded that positive attitudes towards the students' own cultural group lead to proficiency. Their research to some extent supported the dichotomy of integrative/instrumental; however, they believed that these terms needed to be redefined based on personal traits of the community members. Glikzman, Gardner and Smythe (1982) tested students in grades 9, 10, and 11 at the beginning of the term and observed them in class once every two weeks for four months, and found that those students who were marked as integratively motivated, volunteered answers more frequently, gave more correct answers, and were rated as more interested in class than students who were not integratively motivated. These results were consistent for all assessments of classroom behavior.

Strong (1984) studied the relationship between integrative motivation and acquired second language proficiency among a group of Spanish-speaking kindergarteners in America. He found no positive relationship between integrative motivation and acquired English proficiency. A further comparison of beginners and advanced level English speakers showed the advanced learners had more integrative motivation towards the target language than the beginners.

Svanes (1987) investigated the acquisition of Norwegian language by foreign students from different cultures with regard to integrative and instrumental sort of motivation. The findings indicated that American and European learners were more integratively motivated than the Middle Eastern, African and Asian students while the latter group were more instrumentally motivated than their western peers.

Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) acknowledged the importance of integrative motivation in the classroom research. In their view in a setting where foreign language learning is largely an academic matter, students' motivation remains socially grounded. They do not regard instrumentality and integrativeness as two ends of an axis, which are antithetical; instead, they hold that they can correlate positively with each other. Van de Klein (1995)'s research did not support the suggestion of a relationship between integrative motivation and inclination to contact French people. Tamada (1996) carried out a study on 24 Japanese students who were learning English as a second language in the context of England and found that differences in motivation (instrumental versus integrative) significantly influenced the use of language learning strategies. Other studies done in this area are as follows: Ramazanian (1998); Hassanpur (1999); Chang and Huang (1999); Salimi (2000); Sedaghat (2001); Roohani (2001); Hassani (2005); Fazel and Razmjoo (2007); Neissi (2007); and Zarei (2009).

The present study is an attempt at finding the relationship between the type of motivation and language proficiency as determined through IELTS. The study is specifically after the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between instrumental motivation and writing proficiency among Iranian IELTS candidates?
2. Is there a relationship between integrative motivation and writing proficiency among IELTS candidates?
3. Is there any significant difference between the instrumentally motivated and integratively motivated candidates in their writing proficiency?
4. Is there a relationship between the writing proficiency of the instrumentally motivated candidates with their language proficiency?
5. Is there a relationship between the writing proficiency of the integratively motivated candidates with their language proficiency?

III. METHOD OF THE STUDY

A. Participants

The participants of the study were initially 245 Iranian IELTS candidates who had taken the actual IELTS test in Iran (academic module). All the participants sat for the actual IELTS test held in IELTS Center of International University of Chabahar in Tehran, on 26th May 2009. All participants, both males and females, were from Iran and spoke Farsi as their first language. To minimize the effect of age on the study, the range of 18 to 27 was chosen, as a result, 29 candidates whose ages were above or below the range were excluded from the study. The type of motivation each participant possessed was then determined. The participants of the study selected one of the five choices which were given for each item and their responses were scored on the basis of the Likert-scale. To avoid any confusion and enhance validity, the Persian version of the questionnaire was utilized. It went without saying that, items 9 to 12 and 13 to 16 were needed for the purpose of this study (Section 3.2.2). The choices were given numerical values from 5 to 1 that manifested the degree of the preference or tendency of the participants to the items of the questionnaire. The numerical value 5 was assigned to 'strongly agree', 4 to 'agree', 3 to 'undecided', 2 to 'disagree', and 1 to 'strongly disagree'. The scores for the items, then, are summed up and averaged. It was found that 86 candidates were integratively motivated, 110 instrumentally motivated and 20 stood in borderline. The twenty borderline candidates were left out and the remaining 196 candidates (110 instrumental candidates, and 86 integrative candidates) were selected for the purposes of the study. To make sure that the two groups did not differ in terms of their language proficiency, a one-way ANOVA was run on the scores of the students on the IELTS Test and no statistically significant difference was found.

TABLE 1.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR PROFICIENCY SCORES

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
IELTS Proficiency Scores	Between Groups	.561	1	.561	3.860	.051
	Within Groups	28.187	194	.145		
	Total	28.748	195			

As shown in Table 1, the computed significance is 0.051, which is greater than the significance level set for the study (0.05). Statistically, it follows that there is not a significant difference between the two groups. Consequently, the groups are not different in terms of their proficiency scores; it means that the candidates in the two groups are statistically at the same level in terms of their proficiency performance.

B. Instruments

1. IELTS Test

The information presented in this and subsequent parts are mainly gathered from IELTS Handbooks, and the official website of IELTS (www.IELTS.org). IELTS, the International English Language Testing System, is designed to assess the language ability of candidates who need to study or work where English is the language of communication. IELTS conforms to the highest international standards of language assessment (UCLES, 2005). It covers the four language skills _ listening, reading, writing and speaking. One of the steps of the present study was to assess the subjects' level of proficiency. A further problem was that the subjects' "writing proficiency" ability was in the focus of the study. In other words, the job of the investigator was to identify the subjects' level of proficiency and their writing proficiency ability. Moreover, practical considerations (like the subjects' unwillingness to cooperate) made it even more urgent to hit the two goals with one shot. The justification for this choice lies in the "reliability and validity" claims for the IELTS made by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). For further information, please refer to section 3.2.1.4.

1.1. Reliability of IELTS

IELTS differs from the Cambridge exams in that published reports recognize the need to address reliability and include information to that effect. For example, IELTS manuals describe a detailed approach to the certification of interviewers/assessors for the speaking test and raters for the writing component that requires re-certification procedures every two years. This process of training raters is commendable. IELTS developers report that the speech and writing samples are re-rated when there is an inconsistency in the profile of the scores and that centers are monitored as part of regular reliability studies conducted by the developers. Such information, while reassuring, needs to be augmented with research evidence.

It has always been important to maintain adequate reliability in both the objectively and the subjectively marked modules of IELTS. A rigorous process of test production has produced Reading and Listening versions with an average Cronbach Alpha of 0.88, calculated from the performance of over 90,000 candidates on thirteen reading and listening versions (UCLES, 2007). The reliability of Speaking and Writing Modules cannot be estimated in the same way, but quality is assured through a comprehensive program of training, certification, and monitoring of examiners. Performance in the Speaking Module is recorded onto cassette and the recorded interviews, together with scripts from the Writing Module, are kept by the test center for a minimum of two months. All IELTS results are routinely checked prior to release, and automatic remarking is required where consistent profile scores across the four skill areas are identified. In addition, a formal procedure now allows candidates to query their results within one month of the results being issued.

1.2. Reporting IELTS Composite Reliability

The IELTS exam contains four components upon which an overall band score is awarded. Thus an estimate of composite reliability offers a useful measure for overall test reliability. The method to estimating the reliability of a composite test used here is taken from Feldt & Brennan (1989).

Composite reliability estimates were carried out from the period 1st January to 20 December, 2004. To generate an appropriately cautious estimate, minimum alpha values were used for the objectively marked papers; and g-coefficients for the single rater condition on subjectively marked scores. The composite reliability estimate for the Academic module was 0.95 and produced a composite SEM of 0.21. This finding shows a 95% probability for a candidate's true score to fall within less than half a band (0.41) of the observed score. For General Training the composite reliability was 0.95 with a SEM of 0.23. In order to estimate how reliable the use of IELTS is, the reliability index for the IELTS was also found to be .83 with 541 Iranian learners through a pilot study by Salmani-Nodoushan (2002), which is considered a positive reliability.

2. Validity of IELTS

The phrase "international English language" in IELTS' name represents a distinguishing feature of this assessment as it acknowledges the ever-expanding status of English as an international language. Researchers such as Ingram and Wylie (1993) and Clapham (1996), however, indicate that IELTS' representation of the language construct is rooted in the skills and components models typically used in language testing.

IELTS' manuals point out that the internationalization of the test refers to the partnership of the British Council and UCLES, on the one hand, and the International Development Projects (IDP) Education Australia, on the other. Additionally, IELTS' publications state: "the fact that test materials are generated in both the UK and Australia ensures that the content of each test reflects an international dimension" (IELTS, July 1996, p. 16). Research documenting claims that IELTS can be used as a measure of English as an international language needs to be made available.

IELTS' commitment to research and its responsiveness to research findings is well documented in the literature. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, IELTS underwent major changes - from a test with three academic subject modules to its current form. According to Clapham (1996), IELTS had intended the change to be more of a revision. Nevertheless, based on the results of various investigations, IELTS' developers made more comprehensive changes to the test. As such, IELTS has shown commitment to test practices informed by research findings. As argued above, due to the fact that the IELTS is a standard test of proficiency, its validity and reliability were assumed to be satisfactory.

C. *Motivation Questionnaire*

The second data collection instrument was the motivation questionnaire. It was used to collect data on the students' instrumental and integrative motivation. The motivation questionnaire designed by Laine (1987) and validated by Salimi (2000). The reliability of the questionnaire was further tested through test-retest method of estimating reliability by Fazel (2002). The reliability index for the questionnaire obtained through this method was 0.80. To avoid any confusion and enhance validity, the Persian version of the questionnaire was utilized. The questionnaire is made up of 20 questions, questions 1 to 4 measure the students' direction of motivation, questions 5 to 8 attempt to measure the students' intensity (strength) of motivation, items 9 to 12 measure the students' instrumental motivation and questions 13 to 16 measure the students' integrative motivation and finally items 17 to 20 measure the students' cognitive motivation. The format of the questionnaire items was likert. The respondents were asked to indicate their motivation by choosing one of the five alternatives, strongly agree, agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly disagree. The participants of the study selected one of the five choices which were given for each item. The choices were given numerical values from 5 to 1 that manifested the degree of the preference or tendency of the participants to the items of the questionnaire. The scores for the items are summed up and averaged to yield a questionnaire score and interpreted the differences between shades of opinion from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Accordingly, the participants, based on their scores divided into instrumental and integrative motivation groups.

D. *Data Collection*

The required data were collected in two places in International Chabahar University and in IELTS Center of International University of Chabahar in Tehran. To gather the data, the motivation questionnaire was distributed among the candidates who took part in IELTS preparation course held in Chabahar International University. To avoid any confusion and enhance validity, the Persian version of the questionnaire was utilized. Fazel (2002) and Fazel & Razmjoo, (2007) also used that Persian version in their study. Before administrating the questionnaire the researchers explained the nature of the questionnaire and the participants were requested to complete the questionnaires patiently and with utmost attention and asked them to provide identifying information such as name, level and age. Then, instructed the students to read each statement carefully, chose the appropriate responses and put a tick on the answer sheet. It went without saying that, items 9 to 12 and 13 to 16 were needed for the purpose of this study.

The candidates sat for the actual IELTS test held in IELTS Center of International University of Chabahar in Tehran, on 26th May 2009, and their IELTS scores (reported to/ made available to the investigator by Chabahar International University) are utilized as data obtained from language and writing proficiency tests necessary for this thesis.

E. *Data Analysis*

In order to investigate answers to the proposed questions, the results obtained from the IELTS and the motivation questionnaire were analyzed and the following statistical analyses were run on the data:

1. One-way ANOVA: One-way ANOVA was used to compare the mean scores for two different groups of instrumentally oriented students with those of their integratively oriented peers so as to realize whether the participants in the two groups differ in their proficiency or not.
2. Pearson Correlation Coefficient: Correlation analysis was used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Descriptive Statistics*

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics for the scores of the subjects on the IELTS proficiency test. The table provides a summary of minimum, maximum and mean scores, as well as standard deviations in listening, reading, writing, speaking and overall IELTS scores.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SCORES OF THE SUBJECTS ON THE IELTS PROFICIENCY TEST.

Group motivation		L	R	W	S	IELTS Proficiency Scores
Integrative motivation	Mean	5.5767	6.5349	6.8140	6.1233	6.2622
	Std. Deviation	.79523	.81454	.71145	.97228	.40784
	Minimum	3.00	5.00	5.50	4.50	5.12
	Maximum	6.60	8.00	8.00	8.00	6.90
Instrumental motivation	Mean	6.5455	5.7600	6.6473	6.5273	6.3700
	Std. Deviation	.83651	.92282	1.02998	.87482	.35901
	Minimum	5.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	5.75
	Maximum	8.50	8.50	8.50	8.50	7.25
Total	Mean	6.1204	6.1000	6.7204	6.3500	6.3227
	Std. Deviation	.94819	.95595	.90582	.93822	.38396
	Minimum	3.00	3.00	5.00	4.50	5.12
	Maximum	8.50	8.50	8.50	8.50	7.25

As the table demonstrates, minimum scores for the participants in integrative-group and instrumental-group are recorded as ‘5.12’ and ‘5.75’ respectively. The maximum scores are ‘6.90’ for integrative-group and ‘7.25’ for instrumental-group. The resulting data demonstrate more or less the same characteristics of the subjects in the two groups.

As can be understood from the table above, there is a slight difference between the mean scores of the two groups (‘6.26’ and ‘6.37’ for integrative-group and instrumental-group respectively). This can be an evidence of more or less the same level of proficiency of the participants in each group.

The standard deviation measures how widely spread the values in a data set are. Then the obtained results for integrative -candidates (0.40) and instrument-candidates (0.35) indicate how far from the mean the data points tend to be. Since the standard deviations are small, the data set are said to be close to the mean. The small standard deviation indicates more or less homogeneous groups.

In the table below (Table 3) the participants are characterized with respect to their motivation type and their scores on the proficiency test as well as theirs on the writing performance test.

TABLE 3.
PARTICIPANTS’ MOTIVATION TYPES AND THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVELS

Motivation	Instrumental	Integrative
Number	110	86
Proficiency Mean	6.37	6.26
Proficiency SD	.35	.40
Writing Perf. Mean	6.64	6.81
Writing Perf. SD	1.02	.71

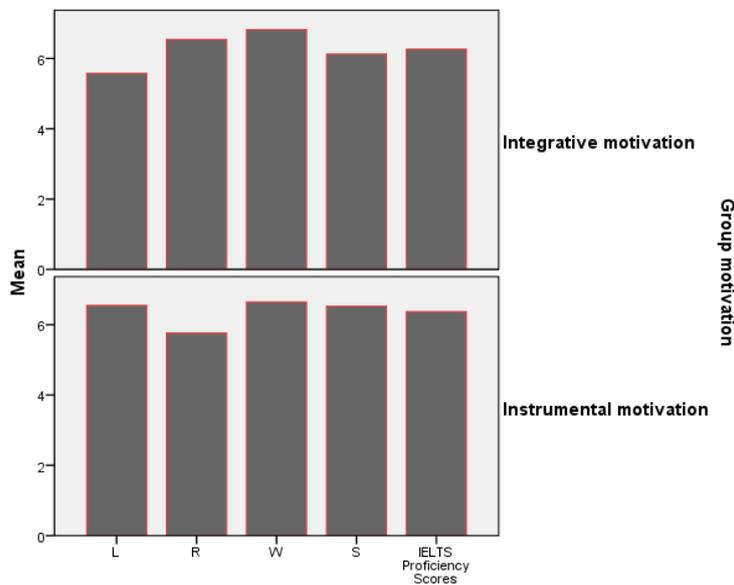


Figure 1. Bar graph based on the mean of participants in each motivation group

As shown in Figure 1, the mean scores of the listening, reading, writing, speaking in each section and overall IELTS scores is shown as a bar graph. Here is not a significant difference between the two groups (Integrative motivation and Instrumental motivation). Consequently, the groups are not different in terms of their mean scores.

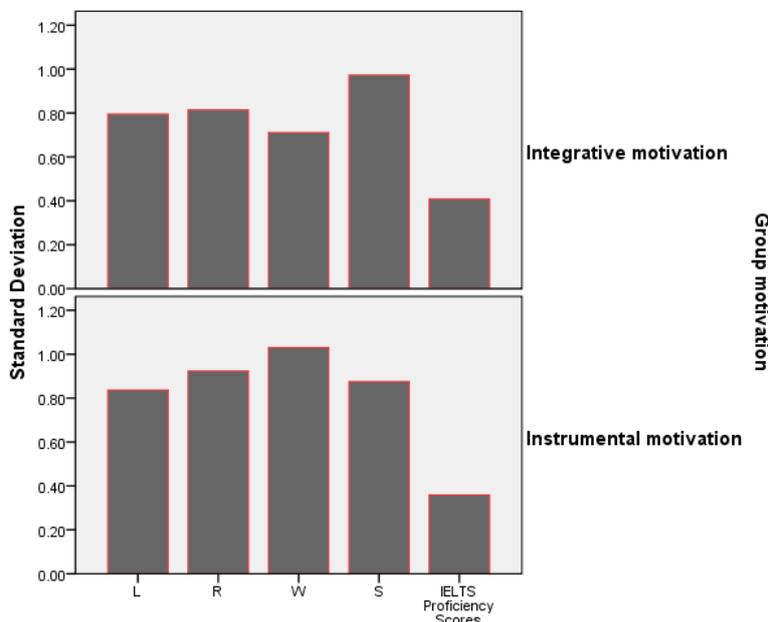


Figure 2. Bar graph based on the standard deviation of participants in each motivation group

As could be understood from the figure above, the standard deviation of the listening, reading, writing, speaking in each section and overall IELTS scores is indicated as a bar graph. There is not any significant difference between Integrative motivation and Instrumental motivation. Therefore, the groups are not different in terms of their standard deviation.

B. Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics deals with appropriate data analysis to answer the research questions of the study. In order to provide answers to the posed questions of the present study, the researchers have taken the following data analysis into consideration.

1. Is there a relationship between instrumental motivation and writing proficiency among Iranian IELTS candidates?

To find out whether there was any significant relationship between candidates' instrumental motivation towards their IELTS writing scores, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run between candidates' instrumental motivation scores and their IELTS writing scores. The results are summarized in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION AND WRITING PROFICIENCY

		Writing Proficiency Scores
Instrumental motivation	Pearson Correlation	.298**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	110

Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)**

As shown in Table 4, the correlation is ‘.298’ and p-value is ‘.002’. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a correlation between instrumental motivation and writing proficiency. The size of value of correlation usually can range from ‘-1.00’ to ‘1.00’. This value will indicate the strength of the relationship between language proficiency and the use of each subcategory. A correlation of 0 indicates no relationship, a correlation of ‘1.0’ indicates a perfect positive correlation and a value of ‘-1.0’ indicates a perfect negative correlation (Pallant, 2005).

2. Is there a relationship between integrative motivation and writing proficiency among IELTS candidates?

To find out whether there was any significant relationship between candidates' integrative motivation towards their IELTS writing scores, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run between candidates' instrumental motivation scores and their IELTS writing scores. The results are summarized in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION AND WRITING PROFICIENCY

		Writing Proficiency Scores
Integrative motivation	Pearson Correlation	.329**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	86

Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)**

As shown in Table 5, a significant relationship was found at 0.01 level of significance (P=.002). Thus, it can be concluded that there is a correlation between integrative motivation and writing proficiency.

3. Is there any significant difference between the instrumentally motivated and integratively motivated candidates in their writing proficiency?

In order for the study to find out which group (instrumental or integrative) of the candidates was better in terms of their writing performance, one-way Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA) was made use of. One-way ANOVA demonstrates the significant differences in the mean scores on the dependent variable (Pallant, 2005). In Table 6, the means of instrumental and integrative groups are compared, based on the mean of the scores obtained from the writing scores so as to determine which group (integrative or instrumental) scored higher on each test.

TABLE 6.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR INSTRUMENTAL AND INTEGRATIVE GROUPS IN TERMS OF THEIR WRITING PERFORMANCE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Writing Proficiency Scores	Between Groups	1.341	1	1.341	1.640	.202
	Within Groups	158.657	194	.818		
	Total	159.998	195			

As shown in Table 6, the existing significance value (.202) is larger than the significance level (p>0.05). In other words, there are no significant differences between the two groups of learners (instrumental vs. integrative groups) in terms of their writing performance.

The fourth research question:

4. Is there a relationship between the writing proficiency of the instrumentally motivated candidates with their language proficiency?

Table 7 provides the actual value of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the variables along with the p-value.

TABLE 7.
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN WRITING PROFICIENCY OF THE INSTRUMENTALLY MOTIVATED CANDIDATES WITH THEIR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

		IELTS Proficiency Scores
Writing Proficiency Scores	Pearson Correlation	.415**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	110

As the Table 7 shows, the correlation is ‘.415’ and p-value is ‘.000’. Thus, it can be concluded that the correlation coefficient is significant. On the other words, there is a significant correlation between writing proficiency of the instrumentally motivated candidates with their language proficiency.

5. Is there a relationship between the writing proficiency of the integratively motivated candidates with their language proficiency?

Table 8 gives the actual value of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient along with the p-value demonstrating the existing relationship between writing proficiency of the integratively motivated candidates with their language proficiency

TABLE 8.
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN WRITING PROFICIENCY OF THE INTEGRATIVELY MOTIVATED CANDIDATES WITH THEIR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

		IELTS Proficiency Scores
Writing Proficiency Scores	Pearson Correlation	.248*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.021
	N	86

As could be inferred from the table, the direction of the relationship between the existing variables is positive. It implies, the correlation is '.248' and the p-value is '.021'. It means that there is a linear correlation between the writing proficiency of the integratively motivated candidates with their language proficiency.

V. CONCLUSION

Motivation is probably the most frequently used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task. It is easy to assume that success in any task is due simply to the fact that someone is "motivated". There are many contributing factors in order for any kind of learning to take place. One of the determining factors recognized to be involved in learning is motivation.

On the other hand, writing as one of the four language skills, and most often as the last one, plays an important role in the processes of language learning. Chastain (1988) states that writing skill is viewed as a basic communication skill and a unique asset in the process of learning a second language. Writing is considered as a wing of literacy and plays a very important role in today's world. As a case in point, much of the information exchange around the world takes place through written texts. Besides, the rapid development in every field is due to the ability of the researchers to write their findings and actually record them. Nowadays writing is thought of as a skill in whose teaching all language skills are involved. In other words, it is a whole-language teaching skill since its teaching involves practicing all language skills (i.e., speaking, reading, listening, and writing). Writing proficiency seems to be necessary in both academic environments (e.g., writing papers, theses, etc.) and non-academic situations (e.g., writing letters, invitation, etc.). Finally, it increases language retention as well as ensuring availability for later use and reference. It seems, thus, that teaching and learning this skill can be the most demanding task for both teachers and students. This means that writing requires a good command of language knowledge as well as the orchestration of several processes. Therefore, it may be reasonable to survey different views concerning this skill as well as the methods writing has been taught in different periods of time.

Globally, language learners attempt to attain certain goals, one of the most significant of which is writing achievement. Throughout the history of education, language researchers have been at pains to find effective ways to help students achieve writing as a major skill. It goes without saying that motivation has a leading role in gaining writing proficiency. The point at issue is what type of motivation can be more conducive to writing achievement.

Finding ways around to enhance writing as a major skill has always been of great interest to educators in the field of language teaching. Numerous studies have been conducted on the influence of motivation and motivational factors; nonetheless, as yet there has not been a comprehensive study on the study of relationship between integrative and instrumental motivation of students and their relationship with writing proficiency among Iranian IELTS candidates. To this end, this study investigates the role motivation plays in improving writing and gaining writing proficiency, the results of which can serve to help the board of education at universities as well as institutes nationwide to take measures so as to instill stronger motivation among the students and consequently deal with the existing problems which students across the country experience in writing.

In addition to the afore-mentioned objective, the classification of motivation into integrative and instrumental by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and the effect each can have on writing as well as on proficiency is studied for the first time ever in an Iranian context, the results and implications of which can serve to give teachers an in-depth understanding of motivation as one of the factors which can optimize learning.

This finding accords with Gardner and Lambert (1972) who carried out empirical studies in different contexts showing the effect of two different types of integrative and instrumental motivation on L₂ learning. Results in Quebec and Ontario indicated that the kind of motivation and attitude towards speakers of the target language (L₂) played a key part in the process of L₂ acquisition. Students with integrative orientation were found to be more successful as compared with those with instrumental motivation.

The findings of the study also stand in contrast with Strong (1984) who studied the relationship between integrative motivation and acquired second language proficiency among a group of Spanish-speaking kindergarteners in America. He found no positive relationship between integrative motivation and acquired English proficiency.

To wrap up, Findings of the current study indicated that there is a significant relationship between both instrumental and interagative motivation and writing proficiency among Iranian IELTS candidates. However, There is no significant difference between the instrumentally motivated and integratively motivated candidates in their writing proficiency. On the other hand, There is a significant relationship between the writing proficiency of the instrumentally and integratively motivated candidates with their language proficiency.

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Selecting an English Coursebook: Theory and Practice

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Abstract—Research on coursebook selection and evaluation suggests that the process of selecting an English coursebook is a complex and multifaceted task. Especially at a time when the market is inundated with a host of coursebooks for the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, selecting a suitable coursebook becomes a critical process, since it can have an enormous impact on students' engagement, motivation to learn, and ultimately their language performance. In this article we present the theoretical background on coursebook selection. We first discuss the role of the coursebook in English language instruction, and a short literature review on the advantages and disadvantages of using it. We also describe the two main types of coursebook evaluation, predictive and retrospective evaluation. The next part deals with the critical issue of adapting English coursebooks, so that they cater for the specific students' needs and match the purposes of the curriculum. We finally deal with the pedagogical implications, offering practical advice and suggestions about how teachers might become more successful in selecting a coursebook in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language.

Index Terms—coursebook, teaching of English as a second or foreign language

I. INTRODUCTION

A common element in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language is the coursebook. Indeed, it has been argued that the coursebook is an almost universal element of ELT teaching (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). However, at a time when “the ELT market is inundated with state-of-the-art coursebooks teaching modern-day English” (Illes, 2009, p. 145), English teachers often have a difficult time selecting an appropriate coursebook that will suit the needs of their students and is in accordance with the curriculum. Researchers have supported the view that “the selection of a coursebook signals an executive educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial and even political investment” (Sheldon, 1988, p. 237).

Bearing this in mind, the aim of this paper is to provide a synthesis of theory and practice and present an effective implementation of the process of coursebook selection in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. Although a lot of research has been conducted on the theoretical principles underlying coursebook design, evaluation and selection, it remains a challenge to select and appropriate English coursebook. Thus, our purpose is to fill this research gap between theory and practice, and in doing so to provide teachers with an array of easy to follow suggestions and strategies which they can use in the coursebook selection process, after taking into account their unique teaching situation and their students' needs.

II. WHY DO WE NEED COURSEBOOKS?

It is widely accepted that the coursebook lies at the heart of any English language teaching situation (Sheldon, 1988; Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). They offer advantages for teachers and language students alike, and they constitute a useful resource for both teachers and learners (Richards, 1993). They are a convenient basis “on which to mould the unpredictable interaction which is necessary to classroom language learning” (O'Neill 1982, p. 104). According to Sheldon (1988) the following reasons justify the widespread use of coursebooks in the teaching of English as a foreign or second language throughout the world. Firstly, coursebooks are indispensable in ELT contexts because it is difficult for teachers themselves to create their own teaching material. In addition, coursebooks lessen preparation time by providing ready-made teaching texts and learning tasks and. Finally, coursebooks can serve both as a syllabus and as a framework of classroom progress, a measure by which teaching can be evaluated by external stakeholders. Coursebooks usually serve multiple roles in ELT, such as (Cunningsworth, 1995):

- a) a resource for presentation material (spoken/written)
- b) a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction.
- c) a reference source
- d) a syllabus
- e) a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work.
- f) a support for less experienced teachers.

III. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF COURSEBOOKS

A growing body of research examines the advantages of using a coursebook. In the relevant literature the following positive outcomes of the effective exploitation of coursebooks in the English classroom are mentioned:

- a) Coursebooks are psychologically indispensable for students since their progress and achievement can be measured concretely when they are used in the English classroom (Haycroft, 1998)
- b) Published materials have more credibility for students than teacher-generated or "in-house" materials (Sheldon, 1988)
- c) Coursebooks are usually sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not written specifically for them, they save time and money, and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation to suit the requirements of a given teaching situation (O'Neill, 1982)
- d) Coursebooks are relatively inexpensive and need little preparation time for lesson planning, whereas teacher-generated materials can be defective in terms of time, cost and quality. They also reduce the danger of teacher occupational overload (Sheldon, 1988)
- e) Coursebooks constitute an effective resource for self-directed learning and for presentation of material, a source of ideas and activities, a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who may be lacking in confidence (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Apart from the above benefits, coursebooks provide structure and a syllabus for a program, they help standardize instruction, maintain quality, provide a variety of learning resources, are efficient because they save teachers' time, can provide effective language models and input, and are usually visually appealing and attractive for students. Furthermore, they can provide the initial framework which can be adapted by teachers to suit the needs and learning style of students (Cunningsworth, 1984). Empirical research in ELT settings has provided strong evidence that coursebooks can provide practice activities, a structured language program for teachers to follow, present language models, and information about the language (Richards, Tung, and Ng, 1992).

Finally, Harmer argues that "where a textbook is involved there are obvious advantages for both teacher and students. Good textbooks often contain lively and interesting material; they provide a sensible progression of language items, clearly showing what has to be learnt and in some cases summarizing what has been studied so that students can revise grammatical and functional points that they have been concentrating on. Textbooks can be systematic about the amount of vocabulary presented to the student and allow students to study on their own outside the class. Good textbooks also relieve the teacher from the pressure of "having to think of original material for every class" (Harmer, 1991, p. 257).

Despite the above undeniable benefits of coursebooks, however, coursebooks have also been criticized for the following reasons.

- a) Coursebooks are not flexible and generally simply mirror the pedagogic, psychological, and linguistic preferences and biases of their authors
- b) Coursebooks contain social and cultural biases, such as gender bias, sexism, and stereotyping (Carrell and Korwitz, 1994; Renner, 1997)
- c) They are often too contrived and artificial in their presentation of the target language. For example many scripted language models and dialogues are unnatural and inappropriate for communicative or cooperative language teaching
- d) Textbooks may prevent teachers' creativity if teachers are obliged to follow the coursebooks sequence to the letter (Skierso, 1991, p. 432)
- e) The teacher's role is undermined. Teachers may find themselves as mediators; they only carry out teaching practices imposed on them (Ur, 1991).

Among the main negative effects of the use of coursebooks is that they may contain inauthentic language, may distort content, they may not satisfy students' needs and they may be expensive to buy.

Summarising the above research findings, it should be noted that both the benefits and limitations of the use of coursebooks need to be considered in the critical process of coursebook selection for the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. If the coursebooks that are being used in a program are judged to have some negative consequences (e.g. they do not stimulate the students; interest, and/or they contain a few authentic reading texts), remedial action should be taken, e.g. by adapting or supplementing books or by providing appropriate guidance and support for teachers in how to use them appropriately.

IV. TYPES OF COURSEBOOK EVALUATION: PREDICTIVE AND RETROSPECTIVE EVALUATION

As has already been stated, one of the most challenging tasks English teachers are often faced with is that of choosing a coursebook suitable for their teaching situation. They have to select a coursebook that suits the needs of their students, their unique characteristics and their preferences and one that the teacher believe will motivate them. The ultimate purpose, of course, is to choose a coursebook that will help the students increase their language performance. However, choosing a coursebook is a demanding task, because "it is clear that coursebook assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick" (Sheldon, 1988, p. 245). Selecting a suitable coursebook is not a straightforward process, as "selecting a suitable coursebook is not a simple task" (Chambers, 1997, p. 29). In the process of evaluating teaching material there are some

pedagogical factors to be considered such as “suitability for the age group, cultural appropriateness, methodology, level quality, number and type of exercises, skills, teacher's book, variety, pace, personal involvement, and problem solving” (Chambers, 1997, p. 29-30).

A brief review of the literature on materials evaluation reveals that most researchers distinguish between two types of materials evaluation: a) predictive evaluation, and b) retrospective evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1997). The basic principles and theoretical assumptions of each type are presented below.

A. Predictive Evaluation

Predictive evaluation refers to evaluation with the aim of deciding what materials to use. Teachers first take into consideration the materials available to them, and then they determine which are “best suited to their purposes” (Ellis, 1997, p. 36). There are two main ways through which teachers can conduct this kind of evaluation. First, they can depend on evaluations and assessment of teaching materials and coursebook conducted by experienced researchers and educators. For example, they can rely on evaluations published in scientific journals, in which the reviewers describe the criteria they have used, and their general philosophy for evaluation. Second, teachers may decide that it is best for them not to rely on other people’s evaluations (no matter how experienced they may be), but instead, they may wish to carry out their own evaluation. It is also possible that teachers can use both types of predictive evaluation. If they want to conduct their own evaluation, they will need to read and consult books and articles dealing with materials evaluation, which provide a set of criteria for evaluating teaching materials. For example, a number of researchers provide checklists and sets of relevant criteria that help teachers in the evaluating process (Cunningsworth 1984; Skierso, 1991; McDonough and Shaw, 1993). The underpinning philosophy is that such sets of criteria assist teachers conduct a predictive evaluation in a systematic way. For example, Cunningsworth (1995) proposes the following criteria for the evaluation of coursebooks:

- a) Coursebooks should correspond to learner’s needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language-learning program.
- b) Coursebooks should reflect the uses (present or future) learners will make of the language. Textbooks should be chosen that will help students use language effectively for their own purposes.
- d) Coursebooks should take account of students’ needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes, without dogmatically imposing a ‘rigid’ method.
- d) Coursebooks should have a clear role as a support for learning.

B. Retrospective Evaluation

The term retrospective evaluation refers to evaluation designed to examine materials that have actually been used. The teacher does not carry out an evaluation with the ultimate aim of predicting whether a given coursebook is suitable for his/her teaching situation. Instead, the teacher makes a decision as to a coursebook s/he has used was worth using, if, in other words, was in accordance with the learners’ needs, if the tasks and activities included in it motivated them, and helped them improve their language performance. In this way the teacher decides whether a specific coursebook is worth using again, or if a new one has to be used. There are two main ways through which retrospective evaluation can be conducted. The first, and the most commonly used way of conducting retrospective evaluation, is to engage in what is known as “impressionistic evaluation”. This involves teachers’ assessing, during the language course, which activities and materials were actually beneficial, so that at the end of the course they can make a summative judgement of the materials they have used (Ellis, 1997). The second way to carry out retrospective evaluation is to try to collect information in a more systematic manner, and conduct an empirical evaluation. This usually involves a “micro-evaluation”, which requires an overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has proved to be beneficial and suitable in a given teaching situation. Most commonly a micro-evaluation of teaching materials is carried out in relation to a task, defined as an activity in which meaning is of primary importance, there is a correlation to real-life situations, and the evaluation of how well students performed in the task is carried out on the basis of the outcome of the task (Skehan, 1998). The evaluation of a given task involves the following steps (Ellis, 1997):

- Step 1:* Choosing a task to evaluate
- Step 2:* Describing the task
- Step 3:* Planning the evaluation
- Step 4:* Collecting the information for the evaluation
- Step 5:* Analysing the information
- Step 6:* Reaching conclusions and making recommendations
- Step 7:* Writing the report

V. EVALUATING TASKS IN COURSEBOOKS

When we evaluate the quality of reading tasks and activities included in an English coursebook, four questions are important:

- a) Do the reading tasks contribute to the learners’ language acquisition and development of reading skills? Some activities included in textbooks are convenient for teachers (e.g. multiple choice activities which have one “correct”

answer), but they do not necessarily contribute to the learners' reading development. Coursebooks should include reading tasks that offer students opportunities to practice their reading skills. For instance, activities that require students to draw inferences, read between the lines, attend to writer bias, may support the development of reading skills and help students negotiate for meaning in real-life situations.

b) Are the activities balanced in format, containing both free and controlled practice? Multiple choice tasks, or fill-in-the-blank activities guide students to a single correct answer. Free practice involves open-ended activities (such as writing or speaking in the post-reading stage, making a prediction in the pre-reading stage or confirming predictions in the while-reading stage) which offer students an opportunity to read with a real-life purpose (e.g. to read in order to confirm or reject a prediction).

c) Do activities progress in such a way that they capitalize on what students have already learned? Activities should progress from simple to more complex, both linguistically and cognitively. Coursebooks should require more from students as their language skills develop to keep them interested and challenged.

d) Are the activities challenging and varied in format? Routine can make students lose interest and lead to boredom. Tasks and texts should serve as a stimulus for communication and lead to stimulating writing or speaking tasks. For example, many coursebooks rely too heavily on comprehension questions, depriving students of an opportunity to read a text with a real-life purpose. Coursebooks need to include reading activities that demand students to make use of a wide range of cognitive skills so as to be challenging to students.

VI. ADAPTING ENGLISH COURSEBOOKS

An essential skill for teachers is to be able to adapt the coursebooks they use in their classrooms so as to cater for their students' level of language development, and to address weaknesses of the coursebooks. Through the process of adaptation the teacher a) personalizes the text making it a better teaching resource, and b) individualizes it for a particular group of foreign language learners. Normally this process takes place gradually as the teacher becomes more familiar with the book since the dimensions of the text which need adaptation may not be apparent until the book is tried out in the classroom.

It is therefore virtually impossible for a given coursebook to be used without some form of adaptation. Adapting the coursebook is almost inevitable in the English classroom because a coursebook is not designed and written with a particular classroom of students in mind, and as a result, it may contain materials and tasks that the teacher feels are not suitable for his/her teaching situation. As a result, teachers will almost certainly need to adapt the coursebook, after taking into account: a) the specific needs and experiences of their students, b) the general context in which the coursebook will be used, and c) material constraints (e.g. they may not be able to choose expensive coursebooks). This adaptation may take a variety of forms. For example, teachers may choose the following types of adaptations to the coursebook they use:

1. *Modification of the content of the coursebook.*

The content may need to be modified because it does not suit the target learners, perhaps because of factors related to the learners' age, linguistic level, infrastructure restrictions of the school or/and classroom, or even cultural background.

2. *Addition or deletion of the content of the coursebook.*

The book may contain too much or too little. It is not unlikely that parts of units throughout the book should be omitted. For example a coursebook may focus primarily on listening and speaking skills and hence writing activities in the book will have to be added.

3. *Reorganization of the content of the coursebook.*

Teachers may decide to reorganize the book, and arrange the units in what they believe is a more appropriate order.

4. *Dealing with important omissions of the coursebook.*

The text may omit items that the teacher feels are important. For example a teacher may add vocabulary activities or grammar activities to a unit.

5. *Modification and alteration of language tasks and activities.*

Tasks, Exercises and activities may need to be changed to give them a different content and/or focus. For example a listening activity that focuses only on listening for information can be adapted so that students listen a second or third time for a different purpose.

Gabrielatos (2000) argues that the adaptation of the coursebook can take the following forms: a) teachers may omit materials and tasks included in a coursebook, b) teachers may re-order/combine materials and tasks included in a coursebook, c) teachers may replace materials and tasks included in a coursebook, and d) teachers may add materials and tasks. For instance, he argues that teachers may choose to omit or modify materials and/or tasks for the following reasons:

- a) Learners are already familiar with a language point, or are already competent in a skill.
- b) There are too many tasks on a specific area.
- c) The item/area concerned is not a priority.
- d) The item/task is not well designed.
- e) The item/task is not well-suited for its aim.
- f) The topic is not appropriate for the learners.

- g) Texts are of inappropriate length (e.g. too long)
- h) Materials are inappropriate for the aim they were designed to fulfil.
- i) Materials are inappropriate for the learners' age, needs or experience.
- j) Materials are unclear, confusing, or misleading.
- k) Tasks are not well designed.

VII. A CASE STUDY

The following case study is intended to illustrate a very common phenomenon in many English language classes in Greek state secondary schools. The vast student diversity in terms of language performance and knowledge presents many difficulties for the English teachers, who find it hard to work with the coursebook they use.

Mrs Andreou, a junior state high school English teacher is very concerned about the coursebook she uses. More specifically, the overall classroom level is low intermediate, so she has chosen an English coursebook of that level. However, there are marked differences between the students as far as their proficiency level and foreign language performance are concerned. First, some students, who receive private tuition have very high performance. However, she feels that the private supplementary tutoring has also negative effects on her teaching situation, because, as it has been noted in the relevant literature, it exacerbates diversity in the classroom, upsets the sequence of learning, and distorts the curriculum. In addition, all these students' parents knew English, so they could help them with assignments. For example, these students already know the materials taught in the classroom, and the coursebook as well as the language activities and tasks are "easy" for them. They complete assignments, tasks and activities in a very short period of time, and usually disrupt their fellow students who need more time to finish. They also lack motivation, because they believe that the teaching of the English language at school has very little, if anything, to offer them. By contrast, for the majority of students, the coursebook and the teaching materials represent a challenge, and they can usually complete assignments if they apply reasonable effort. The level of the coursebook corresponds to their language level, and they find the materials and the language tasks interesting and worth studying. However, their motivation is hampered by the fact that some of their fellow students' language level is substantially above the level of the coursebook and the teaching materials. Finally, a significant minority of students finds it very hard to keep up with the rest of the classroom. Their knowledge of the English language is well below the level of the coursebook (e.g. in terms of vocabulary, reading and speaking skills). None of these students' parents or older siblings knew English, so they could receive any help at home. As a result, they remain withdrawn most of the time during classes, and suffer from communication apprehension, because they are afraid that they will make too many mistakes when they speak.

On the basis of the literature presented in this chapter, the following may prove to be helpful: The three students may be provided with supplementary material and individualized tasks, while some coursebook tasks can be adjusted to their ability level. Students' parents should be informed that supplementary material aimed at helping the students, and is not a form of punishment. Engaging parents in their children's progress is a characteristic of successful teachers (Brophy, 2004). Personalizing the curriculum will also entail creating specific short and long term goals for these students, which are clear, challenging, but achievable with reasonable effort.

VIII. PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR EFFECTIVE COURSEBOOK SELECTION

Despite the fact that there are many important features of coursebooks that need to be taken into consideration when selecting a coursebook, the following criteria and principles can be used to help teachers with the often daunting task of selecting a coursebook.

- a) Is task design appropriate for the aims and goals of the syllabus?
- b) Do students find the tasks and texts interesting and relevant for them?
- c) Is the language in the tasks relevant?
- d) Is there variety in the types of tasks?
- e) Are the tasks authentic, simulate real-life situations, or are they too contrived?
- f) Are the objectives clearly stated for each task, so students know why they engage in a given task?
- g) Are tasks and texts culturally suitable for the students?
- h) Moreover, the following should be considered (Ornstein, 1995, p. 200-201):
- i) The coursebook should be in line and support the teaching objectives, the teaching situation.
- j) The materials in the coursebook are well organised.
- k) There is a match between the difficulty level of the coursebook and students' linguistic ability.
- l) The coursebook is well designed. The coursebook should be attractive with pleasant and clear illustrations, the print should be readable, with adequate margins, legible typeface, and comfortable type size.
- m) The instructional design of individual tasks and of task sequences should be carefully planned.
- n) The number of different materials should be limited so as not to overload or confuse students.
- o) Artwork in the materials must be consistent with the text.
- p) Cute, nonfunctional, space- and time-consuming materials should be avoided.

q) When appropriate, materials should be accompanied by brief explanations of purpose for both teachers and students.

In addition, an effective coursebook should contain authentic texts, which provide students with motivation and increase engagement. The concept of authenticity refers to “actually attested language produced by native speakers for a normal communicative purpose” (Widdowson 1983, p. 30). Authentic texts are “created to fulfil some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced (Little, Devitt, and Singleton, 1988, 27). Authentic materials are important, because they are more meaningful to students, challenge their cognitive abilities, engage them personally, and increase interest and intrinsic motivation. As regards the characters in the stories in coursebooks (whether they are fictitious, or real), they shouldn’t be “two dimensional and static personae who leave little for individual interpretation or imagination” (Illes, 2009, p. 6).

Apart from the issue of authenticity, coursebooks should be designed so that they provide opportunities for students to cooperate with others, engaging in project work, which can lead to increased social, cooperative skills, and group cohesiveness (Fragoulis and Tsiplakides, 2009). In addition, coursebooks should help students to develop their self-confidence. For example, effective and well written coursebooks help to build up students’ confidence by providing tasks or activities that students can cope with provided they apply reasonable effort. Coursebooks should also meet students’ needs. What is covered in the textbooks should be relevant and useful to what the students need to learn and what they want to learn.

Of course, English teachers should bear in mind that an effective coursebook evaluation is not limited to assessing only the coursebook, since it is usually part of a whole package. Most publishers offer English coursebooks which are accompanied by:

- a. Teacher’s Book (with suggestions, lesson plans, teaching ideas, etc.)
- b. Workbook
- c. Activity Book
- d. Companion
- e. CD with the listening texts
- f. Tests
- g. DVD
- h. CALL materials
- i. Internet support

IX. CONCLUSION

In the above discussion we have attempted to provide a synthesis of theory and practice. The overall aim of the article is to provide English teachers not only with a theoretical framework for the evaluation of coursebooks, but also with a set of practical suggestions. It has to be noted, however, that the strategies and suggestions suggested can be adapted and used by teachers in various teaching situations after taking into consideration their own teaching context.

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A Comparison of Two Different Types of Vocabulary Treatment: Inclusion or Exclusion of L1?

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Abstract—The use of language learners' mother language has traditionally been banned and the potential uses of it still continue to be undermined and neglected. To date, research has not conclusively demonstrated a detrimental effect resulting from use of learners' mother language in foreign language learning classes. On the other hand, there are many studies which have demonstrated the potential power of using the learners' mother language in different areas of foreign language learning. This study examined the possible role of the learners' mother tongue in learning new vocabulary items through a relatively unexplored presentation technique. The results showed the group that learned the words through first language definitions outperformed the group that learned the words through English definitions.

Index Terms—vocabulary, mother tongue, word association

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of lexicon and knowledge of lexical items in foreign language learning is quite obvious. Vocabulary plays a central role in the mastery of all four language skills, namely speaking, listening, reading and writing. Research has demonstrated the importance of vocabulary knowledge for language learners in reading (Haynes & Baker, 1993; Huckin & Bloch, 1993), speaking (Joe, 1998), listening (Elley, 1989; Ellis, 1994), and writing (Hinkel, 2001; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Lee, 2003; Walters & Wolf, 1996).

Among different possible vocabulary treatments, incidental approaches to vocabulary acquisition have been in vogue for quite a long time; however, not many people refer to the role of the learners' first language (L1) in vocabulary acquisition.

The use of the learners' L1 in foreign language learning has been frowned upon for a long time. It was after questioning the grammar translation method and the beginning of the audio-lingual approach that the rule of "English only" came into prime and it still has its own advocates. Right now in the majority of Iran's English language institutes, the rule of "English only" or "No Farsi" is quite prevalent. This tabooing of the use of the learners' L1 in the process of second language acquisition has spread to all areas of foreign language learning, particularly vocabulary learning. Philipson (1992) has named this prevalent belief the "monolingual tenet" according to which the teaching of English as a second or foreign language should be done entirely through the medium of English. Similarly, Stern (1992) calls this approach toward L1 the "Intralingual Strategy," which refers to the marginalization of the use of L1 in foreign language classes. And, as one can see, this seems to be based on a propagated belief rather than sound theoretical foundations. Although the behavioristic principles behind the audio-lingual method regarded learners' L1 as an interfering factor to be avoided and overcome, the tenets of the communicative approach to language teaching do not prohibit the use of L1 and allow for it whenever it can be helpful (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983).

Similarly, in the realm of vocabulary such a common belief exists that the learners' L1 is not an appropriate tool for vocabulary learning. Folse (2004) aptly introduces this as one of the myths in second language vocabulary acquisition. Another myth mentioned is that the best dictionary for second language learners is the monolingual dictionary. He appropriately calls these notions myths because they are both widespread and wrong. In both of the above mentioned myths we see the trace of the wrongly held belief that there should be no place for language learners' L1 in vocabulary learning whatsoever. This problem has been the vogue in language learning and still continues to be.

The significance of lexicon

The importance of lexicon in learning a foreign language has recently attracted the attention of scholars more than it did in the past. In the field of linguistics, with the emergence of minimalistic theory and later corpus linguistics, the words and chunks of language, as its building blocks, gained a more important position. In the field of ELT, materials

writers started preparing materials based on words and chunks as central units of language learning and teaching. Examples of such materials are the lexical syllabus (Willis, 1990), lexical phrases and language teaching (Nattinger & DeCarrico 1992), and the lexical approach (Lewis 1993). Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (2001) mention a new innovation which has added to the ease of incorporating lexical items into classrooms: advances in computer-based studies of language (referred to as corpus linguistics) have also provided a huge, classroom accessible database for lexically based inquiry and instruction. These studies have focused on collocations of lexical items and multiple word units. A number of lexically-based texts and computer resources have become available to assist in organizing and teaching the lexicon.

Many researchers have worked on the importance of lexical knowledge on different language skills and have found it to be a significant and determining factor. For instance, Zareva, Schwanenflugel and Nikolova (2005) studied the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and general proficiency factor and found some aspects of vocabulary knowledge to be highly related to overall proficiency. They finally suggest that the measures identified as sensitive to capturing the overall state of vocabulary knowledge of learners were also good indexes of language learners' general proficiency.

In the realm of vocabulary acquisition, the state of the art approach has been incidental vocabulary acquisition. For instance, Krashen (1985) refers to extensive reading as a most suitable way of incidental vocabulary acquisition. Other researchers have expressed more or less the same view. Ellis and He (1999) discuss the possible effects of input and output on the incidental acquisition of lexical items. Gardner (2004) lays emphasis on the role of extensive reading on incidental vocabulary acquisition. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) maintain incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading thematically related topics. Rott (1999) investigates the effect of exposure frequency on incidental vocabulary learning and retention through reading and finds a significant relationship between exposure and vocabulary acquisition. However, researchers have voiced disagreement regarding incidental vocabulary learning, too. For example, Gass (1999) has argued against the notion of "incidental" and argues that it is not an easy job to define what incidental means or whether the type of learning experience that the learners are having is really incidental, if by incidental one means that the learner's attention is not drawn to the lexical item. Elsewhere, Huckin and Coady (1999) review the related literature on incidental vocabulary acquisition and raise several unresolved questions about this concept and sum up by concluding that research findings about incidental vocabulary acquisition are yet inconclusive.

Inasmuch as the importance of knowledge of lexicon is not deniable in the overall proficiency of language learners and its profound importance is agreed upon, the search for a more efficient way of vocabulary acquisition has always been continuing throughout the history of foreign language learning. Yet because of the traditional tabooing of native language use in language learning the potential use of the learners' L1 in the process of learning a foreign language has been neglected.

As indicated earlier, the use of the learners' L1 particularly in vocabulary acquisition has not been investigated seriously as an option. Rather, it has been undermined and disdained as either an interfering factor or otherwise harmful device.

In the present study, the researchers have used a new approach in putting the native language of the learners to use for the acquisition of lexical items of the second language. The researchers did not provide the learners with simple word lists as commonly known and used by many. The words were given with their explanations instead of simply giving their synonyms in the learners' mother tongue. The researchers believe this is significant in several respects, some of which are discussed below:

The problem of synonymy: the fact is that one can seldom find an exact synonym for a given word either in the same language or in another language. The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* provides the meaning of words in form of sentences and explanations and avoids giving synonyms for words even as supplementary for explanations because it is believed that complete synonymy does not exist between any two words; by the same token, it can be claimed that one had better clarify the meaning of the words in another language in the form of explanations instead of giving translations which are believed to be the synonyms of that word in that language. It has been argued that any concept can be explained in any language though not necessarily through words. As Wardhaugh (1976) put it, "It appears possible to talk about anything in any language provided the speaker is willing to use some degree of circumlocution" (p. 74).

The problem of wrong associations: any word in any language is ordinarily associated with some other words which appear with it in different contexts. This is also referred to as collocation of words or syntagmatic relations. The problem with giving synonyms for words in this regard is that the assumed synonym or the translation of the word in another language may not have the same word associations and collocations. Therefore, equating a word in one language with a closely related word in another may lead the learner to create wrong associations for the word and this in turn causes problems in subsequent production of the given word. On the other hand, using explanations for making the words understood for the learners can safely avoid such a problem since it just gives the underlying concept of the word to the learners and does not equate it with any false equivalents the in learners' mother tongue.

The problem of production slowing: learning vocabulary items through using bilingual word lists has not been a very good experience. It is said that when students learn the meaning of words by associating them with their L1 equivalents (i.e. through bilingual word lists), they will always have to depend on remembering the native language

word translation at the time of comprehension and production as a prerequisite, and this can slow the process of comprehension and especially production to a considerable extent (second researcher's personal communication with several EFL teachers). This is not expected to be the problem when explanations replace single words since the underlying concept of a word is given in the form of a sentence or a clause and not in the form of a word to be associated with the newly learned word forever and based on Ausubel's (1968) Obliterative Forgetting, the message itself (in this case the meaning explanation) is expected to be forgotten after some time while the information (the meaning of the word in this case) is retained by the brain.

Given the above problems, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the potential power of language learners' L1 as a source of help and a constructing factor for acquisition of foreign language lexical items. Thus, the study is guided by the following research questions:

1- Is there any difference between learning the meaning and form of the lexical items through English explanations versus Persian explanations?

2- Is there any difference between the long-term retention of lexical items learned through English and those learned through Persian?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants for this study were 42 EFL intermediate students (both male and female) who were selected on the basis of not knowing the target words and later tested in the study. The participants, whose age ranged from 18 to 35, were taking a general English course at Zaban Negar Institute in Tehran, Iran.

B. Instrumentation

The major instrument used in this study was the vocabulary test given to the students in both pretest and posttest. The test, including 20 vocabulary items selected for the purpose of the study, followed the VKS scale. This scale was developed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996) and tests both receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary. The knowledge of each vocabulary item can be scored from 1 to 5 in the following format:

1. I don't remember having seen this word before.
2. I have seen this word before, but I don't know what it means.
3. I have seen this word before, and I think it means (Synonym or translation)
4. I know this word, and it means (Synonym or translation)
5. I can use this word in a sentence: (If you do this section, please also do section IV.)

The other instruments were the vocabulary lessons prepared by the second researcher and made available in print for both groups, one of which with the target words accompanied by English explanations taken from *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* and the other with the same words accompanied by the same explanations translated into Persian by the second researcher and approved by the first researcher. There were two lessons prepared, each consisting of 10 words.

C. Procedure

Twenty vocabulary items were selected and presented to the students who participated in the study. Among those students who received the lowest scores on the pretest, 42 intermediate students were selected for the study and were randomly assigned to either of the two experimental groups.

One of the groups received the list of the target words accompanied by explanations from a monolingual English dictionary, and the other group received the words with the same explanations in their native language, i.e. Persian (see Appendices A and B). The first group was called the English explanation group (EEG) and the second the Persian explanation group (PEG). A list of ten words was given to the students in each of the two treatment sessions. The English explanations were extracted from a monolingual dictionary (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*) and the Persian explanations were the same sentences translated into Persian. The follow up examples were provided for both groups. After the two treatment sessions, a posttest containing the taught words was given to both groups and their knowledge of the given words was taken as a measure of the efficiency of the treatment for each group.

D. Data Collection

The data used in this study came from the results of the vocabulary test given to the students serving as both the pretest and the posttest. As mentioned previously, the test was based on the VKS scale. There were 20 vocabulary items on the test, each having a score ranging from 1 to 5. Therefore, the test had a maximum score of 100. Needless to say, each student took the same test twice as the pretest and the posttest.

E. Data Analysis

A *t*-test was run between the posttest scores of the two groups after the data collection in order to see if there was any significant difference between the performances of the English and Persian groups in terms of vocabulary learning. There did not need to be any comparison between the pretest scores of the two groups or between the pretest and

posttest scores of each group because the participants were selected on the basis of having little or no familiarity with the target words. Therefore, their scores on the pretest turned out to be very low.

III. RESULTS

The posttest was administered as planned after the two treatment sessions. Each participant's score was calculated out of 100 and a *t*-test was employed to compare the mean scores of the two groups and look for any significant differences. The descriptive statistics related to the analysis of the results are displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR BOTH GROUPS

Groups	n	M	SD
EEG	21	45.71	14.51
PEG	21	55.09	1.356

The results obtained from the *t*-test revealed that the mean score of the PEG group (55.09) is significantly higher than the mean score for the EEG group (45.71), $t(40)=2.16$, $p=.03$. This suggests that the instructions given to the PEG group were more effective and practically more successful.

IV. DISCUSSION

As mentioned above, the PEG outperformed the EEG on the posttest. This can be due to several reasons and is congruent with the findings of other studies (Celik, 2003; Ramachandran & Abdul Rahim, 2004; Rott, Williams & Cameron, 2002) as well as expectations raised by the literature on the possible role of L1 in language learning in general.

One important reason is the ambiguity which low proficient students face when reading the English explanations of word meanings. This ambiguity is virtually zero in the case of Persian explanations, since all the students have a high level of proficiency in their mother language.

The other issue is the limitations that exist on the explanation of concepts in English. The writers of monolingual English dictionaries need to stick to a limited number of words (defining vocabulary) to be able to assume that understanding the explanations will be possible for students, though as stated above, with some degree of ambiguity. This, however, does not need to be the case with Persian explanations due to the high proficiency of the learners which was mentioned above. This was a fact that the researchers came across while trying to translate the word definitions into Persian.

The other advantage that one could assume for the use of Persian explanations is that they are expected to be easier for the learners to learn or memorize. Although some readers may object to this, it should be noted that a second language learner with limited level of proficiency in the second language could easily claim that memorizing two statements of the same length, complexity and difficulty is certainly harder in a language at which one has a more limited proficiency.

One might claim that there is one big advantage in learning new words through using a monolingual dictionary as it exposes learners to a large amount of extra input in the form of word definitions that they have to read. This input, however, will be absent if the definitions are given in the learners' mother tongue (i.e. use of bilingual word lists or dictionaries). Although this is a remarkable criticism, one could see how much better it would be for the learner to learn the concept and the meaning of the word more concisely and efficiently and then go about receiving extensive input through other sources since the process of reading has been facilitated by clear knowledge of words. Otherwise, they could keep struggling with the meaning of words whenever they see them inasmuch as they have not learnt them well in the first place.

Therefore, the researchers recommend the use of language learners' mother tongue (especially in the form of word definitions instead of synonyms) in the process of language teaching in general and vocabulary learning in particular. This is feasible for classes where the learners share the same first language since the implementation of this strategy in ESL contexts where students might have different mother tongues would be very hard if not impossible; however, in situations like what we have in Iran, it is hard to find a reason for all the negligence that has ever existed about the potential uses of learners' first language.

V. CONCLUSION

It seems that despite the bulk of studies that have demonstrated a potentially useful role for language learners' L1 in the process of learning a foreign language, there is still an unannounced consensus on the "harmful" presence of language learners' mother tongue in foreign language leaning. Although making use of learners' L1 is very difficult, even impossible, in classes where learners come from differing first language backgrounds, good use of learners' L1 could be practical in classes with students who share the same L1, as is the case in our native country, Iran.

The results of this study demonstrate the potential positive effect of using learners' L1 in vocabulary treatment in the form of word lists with Persian definitions. Moreover, further research is needed to shed light on the long term retention of acquired words through this technique since the researchers did not have a chance to examine this aspect of vocabulary learning through this technique. It seems that more constructive roles can be determined for learners' L1 in other areas of language learning as well and teachers and learners need to stop viewing the learners' L1 simply as an interfering factor.

While the findings of this study might be of interest to the advocates of using L1 in their English classes, it should be noted that this study was not faultless and suffers from a number of limitations, the most important of which is lack of a comparison group against which to compare the outcomes of the two vocabulary learning conditions in the present study.

APPENDIX A. A SAMPLE LESSON OF THE ENGLISH GROUP

Process (n.): a series of things that are done in order to achieve a particular result
 To begin the difficult process of educational reforming
 So-called (adj.): used to show that you do not think that the word or phrase that is being used to describe sb/sth is appropriate
 The opinion of a so-called 'expert'
 Productive (adj.): Doing or achieving a lot
 A productive meeting
 Involvement (n.): The act of taking part in sth
 US involvement in European wars
 Feature (n.): something important, interesting or typical of a place or thing
 An interesting feature of the city is the old market
 Determined (adj.): Very certain that you will do sth
 She is determined to win the match
 Conservative (adj.): opposed to great or sudden social change, showing that you prefer traditional styles and values
 The conservative views of his parents
 Grateful (adj.): Feeling or showing thanks because sb has done sth kind for you or has done as you asked
 I am Extremely Grateful to all teachers for their help
 Chairman (n.): a man in charge of a meeting, who tells people when they can speak, etc
 Sir Herbert took it upon himself to act as chairman

APPENDIX B. A SAMPLE LESSON OF THE PERSIAN GROUP

Process (n.): یک سری اقدامات که برای دستیابی به هدف خاصی صورت می پذیرد
 To begin the difficult process of educational reforming.
 So-called (adj.): استفاده می شود تا نشان دهد به نظر شما کلمه یا عبارتی که برای توصیف کسی/چیزی بکار می رود نا مناسب است.
 The opinion of a so-called 'expert'
 Productive (adj.): بسیار نتیجه بخش یا دارای دستاورد های مطلوب
 A productive meeting
 Involvement (n.): درگیری یا مشارکت داشتن در روند یا فرایندی
 US involvement in European wars
 Feature (n.): مشخصه ی مهم، جالب یا معرف مکانی یا چیزی
 An interesting feature of the city is the old market
 Determined (adj.): دارای عزم راسخ و اراده استوار برای انجام کاری
 She is determined to win the match
 Conservative (adj.): مخالف با تغییرات بزرگ یا سریع اجتماع، به علت ترجیح سبکها و ارزشهای سنتی از سوی شما
 The conservative views of his parents
 Grateful (adj.): متشکر یا قدردان به علت این که کسی به شما لطفی کرده یا کاری را برایتان انجام داده
 I am Extremely Grateful to all teachers for their help
 Chairman (n.): مردی که مسئول هدایت یک جلسه است، که به حضار میگوید چه زمانی صحبت کنند.
 Sir Herbert took it upon himself to act as chairman

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An Empirical Study of English Pragmatic Failure of Chinese Non-English Majors

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Abstract—This paper analyzes the phenomena of pragmatic failure committed by non-English-major college students in intercultural communication from pragmatics perspective, and discusses the manifestations of pragmatic failure in real communication. After getting a better understanding of the phenomena of pragmatic failure, some suggestions are made on how to raise the pragmatic awareness, and foster the pragmatic competence of non-English majors.

Index Terms— pragmatic failure, pragmatic competence, linguistic competence

I. INTRODUCTION

As mankind's communication tool and information carrier, language, like the air we breathe, is something which the society and its members cannot do without, not even for a short period of time. English, as an international language, is the most widely used all over the world. As a result, it is absolutely vital for many Chinese learners to have a good command of English. However, although many Chinese learners have little difficulty understanding the literal meaning of target language in authentic communication situations, they may not interpret the utterances correctly, or express themselves appropriately. Intercultural communication sometimes breaks down in real situations, not because of the non-native speaker's errors in grammar, or their inaccurate pronunciation in the target language, but because of their pragmatic incompetence, which leads to pragmatic failure. In other words, they may be incapable of using target language effectively in intercultural communication.

Pragmatic failure, which is first proposed by Thomas (1983), refers to the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. She points out that interference in communication is generally referred to as pragmatic failure, which has nothing to do with grammatical mistakes but comes from inappropriate ways of speaking or the unconventional expressions resulting from different perceptions of what is considered as appropriate linguistic behaviors (Thomas, 1983). He (1988) defines it as "failure to achieve the desired communication effect in communication". He proposes that pragmatic failure is not the general performance errors in using words or making sentences, but those mistakes which fail to fulfill communication because of infelicitous style, incompatible expressions and improper habit (He, 1988). Pragmatic failure belongs to the field of cross-cultural pragmatics, a new branch of pragmatics which has been developed rapidly in the past two decades. Several main studies about pragmatic failure have been conducted at home (Huang, 1984; He & Yan, 1986; Wang, 1990; Hong, 1991; Gu, 2003; Li, 2005) and abroad (Thomas, 1983; Wolfson, 1983; Leech, 1983), but few have been done on Chinese Learners of English, especially non-English majors.

With the advancement of society and economy, communication among people from different countries is more frequent and important, which makes a claim for higher requirement for English learners' pragmatic competence. In 2007, Chinese College English Curriculum Requirements for non-English majors clearly states that the ability of students' comprehensive language application should be trained. However, the fact is often that college graduates' pragmatic competence can hardly be expected to meet the needs of practical work. Therefore, we should not only find the reasons theoretically but also deal with it in actual practice.

Through questionnaire survey, this paper attempts to analyze the phenomena of pragmatic failure committed by non-English majors and discuss the manifestations of pragmatic failure in real communication. And then, some suggestions are made on how to avoid pragmatic failure and foster the pragmatic competence of non-English majors.

II. EMPIRICAL STUDY

A. Research Purpose

So far, many studies which have been made on pragmatic failure mostly aims at college students of English major or research into the inspiration of English teaching in general. Few studies have been carried out on Chinese non-English majors. Therefore, author attempts to investigate the pragmatic failure of Chinese non-English-major college students. Then the paper tries to come up with some countermeasures to improve the method of English teaching, which may benefit the avoidance of college students' pragmatic failure and the improvement of their pragmatic competence. In order to get a clear knowledge of pragmatic competence of non-English majors, and take appropriate instructional strategies, a survey is carried out with questionnaires in some college students of non-English majors from Zhengzhou

Institute of Aeronautical Industry Management (hereinafter called ZZIA). These can be illustrated by the research questions as follows:

- 1) After acquiring the knowledge of language system, will Chinese non-English-major college students be able to naturally use language?
- 2) Will Chinese non-English majors with good grammatical competence necessarily develop their pragmatic competence in English?
- 3) In what aspects pragmatic failure will occur as far as Chinese non-English majors are concerned?

B. *Subjects & Instruments*

The subjects in the research are 220 freshmen and 188 sophomores of non-English majors in ZZIA. Although they cannot represent all the non-English majors in China, the test results can offer some inspirations for further researches. 220 freshmen are non-English-major learners who mainly study liberal arts, such as, Chinese and literature, philosophy and economics, law, history, etc. It is generally assumed that students who major at liberal arts have a better command of linguistic competence because they are much more sensitive to language. Whereas 188 sophomores are non-English majors who passed CET-4 (College English Test Band-Four). They should have certain linguistic competence. Freshmen and sophomores are chosen in the study because they are needed to confirm the conclusion, which is proposed by Bardovi-Harlig (1999), that high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee concomitant high levels of pragmatic competence.

The instruments employed in this study are questionnaires, which are designed on the basis of He's (1988) "English Pragmatic Competence Investigation" attached to "A Survey of Pragmatics" and He & Yan's (1986) "The Pragmatic Failures of Chinese Students in Communication in English — An Investigation of Chinese-English Pragmatic Difference". The content involves some common pragmatic phenomena in our daily lives, which included rejection, request, invitation, apology, praise, acknowledgement, greeting, etc.

C. *Procedure of the Study*

Methods of this study are conducted by using an anonymous questionnaire with random sampling and literature analysis. The questionnaire covers two parts: the first part includes some personal information, such as grade, gender and the range of average score of regular quizzes, midterm exams, final exams, etc. The second part goes to the questionnaire to which subjects are required to respond according to the situation given. In order to improve the accuracy of statistical analysis, each item of questionnaire is followed by scales of confidence investigation through which mental attitudes of subjects can be clearly observed when choices are made.

408 subjects from ZZIA aged from 18 to 21 are asked to respond to some items of refusal, instruction, acknowledgement, praise, request, greeting, apology, etc. in the questionnaire. Before the questionnaires are distributed to the subjects, it is made clear to them that the purpose is to test their pragmatic competence and get the valuable data about current situation of their pragmatic failure. They have to finish the questionnaire individually. The answer sheets of questionnaires are collected soon after the subjects finish responding to them in order to keep them from discussing and altering their choices. All the subjects have to hand in the questionnaires. All items in the questionnaires should be responded to. Otherwise, such questionnaires will be excluded from this research. All questionnaires should be valid.

The study has roughly gone through three periods: First, the investigation about English pragmatic competence and pragmatic failure, which started in September, 2010 and ended in October, 2010. Second, the collection of reference materials and statistical analysis about pragmatic failure from the testing results from October, 2010 to November, 2010. Third, attempt to illustrate some inspirations on how to avoid pragmatic failure based on the statistical analysis about the research findings from November, 2010 to March, 2011.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Contrastive Analysis of Pragmatic Competence between Freshmen and Sophomores*

During research, 408 pieces of questionnaire are handed out among freshmen and sophomores with 395 pieces handed in which accounted for 96.8%. Through random sampling, 360 pieces of questionnaire from freshmen and sophomores are chosen for research analysis. And then, the result data of questionnaire responses are fed into the computer. Microsoft Excel 2003 is adopted to make an accurate analysis. Research findings are demonstrated in the table as follows:

TABLE I
INVESTIGATION ON PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF SUBJECTS

Items	Subjects (Freshmen)				Subjects (Sophomores)			
	Number of Subjects (Correct Answers)	Number of Subjects (Wrong Answers)	Pragmatic Failure Rate	Average Failure Rate	Number of Subjects (Correct Answers)	Number of Subjects (Wrong Answers)	Pragmatic Failure Rate	Average Failure Rate
1	26	154	85.6%	48.6%	25	155	86.1%	49.2%
2	131	49	27.2%		134	46	25.6%	
3	66	114	63.3%		64	116	64.4%	
4	59	121	67.2%		57	123	68.3%	
5	101	79	43.9%		104	76	42.2%	
6	144	36	20%		141	39	21.7%	
7	104	76	42.2%		100	80	44.4%	
8	122	58	32.2%		126	56	31.1%	
9	130	50	27.8%		125	55	30.6%	
10	33	147	81.7%		37	143	79.4%	
11	142	38	21.1%		139	41	22.7%	
12	91	89	49.4%		92	88	48.9%	
13	155	25	13.9%		145	35	19.4%	
14	64	116	64.4%		69	111	61.7%	
15	119	61	33.9%		117	63	35%	
16	42	138	76.7%		48	132	73.3%	
17	78	102	56.7%		73	107	59.4%	
18	49	131	72.8%		46	134	74.4%	
19	107	73	40.6%		106	74	41.1%	
20	86	94	52.2%		84	96	53.3%	

In 20 items of the questionnaire, the average pragmatic failure rate for freshmen is 48.6%, and that of sophomores is 49.2%, which is 0.6 percent higher than that of freshmen. This clearly shows that those sophomores, who have passed CET-4, are assumed to have a better command of linguistic competence, are inferior to freshmen in pragmatic competence. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no direct relationship between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence, that is to say, a language learner who is proficient in grammatical rules does not necessarily well in pragmatic competence. Even for everyday language spoken by people, for example, “It doesn’t matter”, “Never mind”, “That’s all right” which are taught at English beginners’ level, some Chinese English learners still can not use them appropriately in reality, which is illustrated by item 1 of questionnaire. The pragmatic failure rate for freshmen and sophomores are respectively 85.6% and 86.1%.

Also, out of 360 pieces of questionnaire, 90 pieces are randomly sampled in the process of research, which are used to count their average pragmatic correctness rate according to the range of average score of regular quizzes, midterm exams, final exams, as follows:

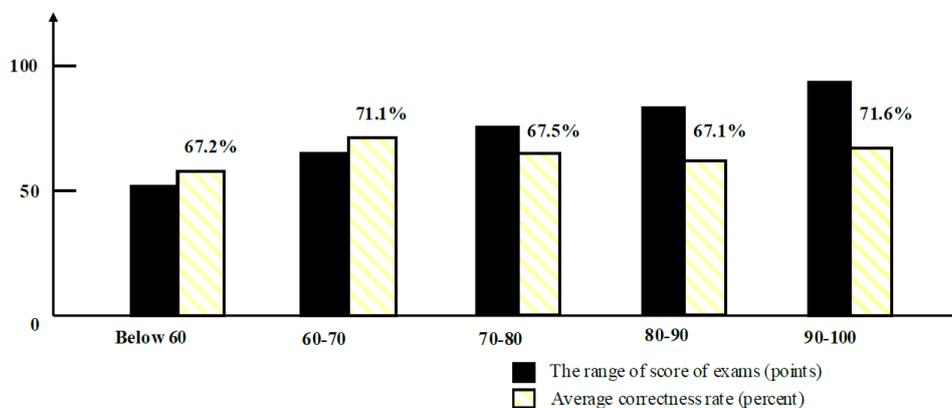


Figure 1. The range of score of quizzes & exams and average correctness rate

Fig.1 shows us that students with a better command of linguistic competence don’t have the advantage in pragmatic competence. Although research findings above are not absolute, it bears out the conclusion that high levels of

grammatical competence do not guarantee concomitant high levels of pragmatic competence again.

B. Manifestations of Non-English Majors' Pragmatic Failure

In order to explore the manifestations of non-English majors' pragmatic failure, 140 pieces of questionnaire which are randomly sampled are used to carry out items analysis.

TABLE II
ANALYSIS OF PRAGMATIC FAILURE OF TYPICAL ITEMS

Communicative Function	Items	Failure Rate
First Part	rejection	13
	phone calls	11
Second Part	order	9
	acknowledgement	2,19
	instruction	6,17
Third Part	expressing concern	4,15
	praise	8,12,18
	request	5,7,16,20
	regular usage	3
	greeting	14
	responding to apology	1,10

From Table II we can see that the students perform well in items 13, 11 and 9 with failure rate at 4%, 13% and 21% respectively. It shows the students, as for refusal, phone calls and order, have got a good command of cross-cultural communication, and can be qualified for communicating with English native speakers. Nevertheless, they are poor at the proper use of regular usage, greetings and responding to apology with failure rate at 67%, 69% and 93% respectively. It brings home to us that the students' pragmatic competence should be improved through cultural teaching. Here is a concrete analysis of manifestations of non-English majors' pragmatic failure.

1. Misusing expressions against English idioms

In item 1, one day, when an American lady accidentally bumped into a Chinese young man, she apologized, "I'm terribly sorry". Out of 140 students, 106 for "It doesn't matter", only 10 at correct answer "That's all right". As a matter of fact, students are familiar with four expressions in item 1, but the difficulty comes in how to correctly use in the real situation. Although the choices both "It doesn't matter" and "Never mind" are used to respond to others' apology, they both suggest making others not mind and comforting others. These choices whose correctness rates are not higher are also tested in item 2, 4 and 5 with expressions of acknowledgement, concern, request respectively. Once again, the result demonstrates that students' weakness lies in correct usage of these expressions.

2. Negative transfer because of ignorance in the cultural difference

Native language, as for English learners, has an impact on correct usage of English expressions. The involvement of native language and the influence of native culture can lead to negative transfer. For example, Chinese students hold the idea that they should remain modest when praised, because they are educated on the Chinese cultural background which is different from western culture since childhood. Therefore, in item 8, when it comes to the context Miss Ma is praised, "Your English is quite fluent", 29 % students make the choice at "Oh, no. Far from that. I still have a long way to go." Another example is just as item 19 shows, Xiao Li as a secretary in the International Computer Engineering Corporation is praised, "Thanks a lot. That's a great help." For this item, 27% students at the answer, "Oh, it's nothing". Although students answer the questions with strictly observing the principles of modesty and politeness, yet this makes listeners feel suspicious of their own understanding.

3. Inappropriate for the Cooperative Principle (CP)

Famous linguist and language philosopher Grice (1975) proposes the Cooperative Principle (CP) in the article, *Logic and Conversation*. In Grice's opinion, in all verbal communication, in order to achieve specific aims, there is a tacit understanding between the speaker and hearer, a principle that should be obeyed by speaker and hearer. He called this principle as the Cooperative Principle of conversion. There are four maxims in Cooperative Principle.

(1) The maxim of quantity

- a. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange);
- b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

(2) The maxim of quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true, especially:

- a. Do not say what you believe to be false;
- b. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

(3) The maxim of relation

Be relevant

(4) The maxim of manner

Be perspicuous, and specifically:

- a. Avoid obscurity of expression;
- b. Avoid ambiguity;

- c. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity);
- d. Be orderly.

If everyone obeys the four maxims strictly, the communication would be the most reasonable and efficient. But in real communication, in order to be polite or something else, the participants often flout the cooperative principle and its maxims.

For example, in item 12, Soon after Mr. Smith's lecture, Li Hua goes on the platform and wants to express the praise for Mr. Smith. 41% students at the choice, "Dr. Smith, you've made a wonderful lecture". Apparently, it is inappropriate, because in westerners' eyes, academic report should be authentic, which can not be described by the word "wonderful". Also, in item 13, "if someone offers you some food that you really don't like, you might say", obviously, the choice C is not proper for real situation of speaker. As a result, this is against the maxim of quality.

Another example is in item 7, "Xiao Li wanted to ask his advisor, Mr. Smith, to revise his application so he went to his office, entering the room and said", 39 students choose their answer at D: "I am sorry to interrupt you. You see I've never written a letter in English before, so I've probably made lots of problems", which embodies some information beyond requirement, thus it offends against the maxim of quantity.

4. Inappropriate for the Politeness Principle (PP)

The linguist Leech (1983) agrees with the Cooperative Principle (CP) and in his *Principles of Pragmatic* says that there exists a set of maxims that guide and constrain the conversation of rational people. But he claims that the CP should be modified because it can not explain very well why people do not often observe the CP. Therefore, he proposes Politeness Principle which makes up for the lack of Cooperative Principle and increases the expression of politeness. He patterns on Grice's CP and divides the PP into six maxims, each of which has two sub-maxims as follows:

- (1) Tact maxim (in impositives and commissives)
 - a. Minimize cost to other
 - b. Maximize benefit to other
- (2) Generosity maxim (in impositives and commissives)
 - a. Minimize benefit to self
 - b. Maximize cost to self
- (3) Approbation maxim (in expressives and assertives)
 - a. Minimize dispraise of other
 - b. Maximize praise of other
- (4) Modesty maxim (in expressives and assertives)
 - a. Minimize praise of self
 - b. Maximize dispraise of self
- (5) Agreement maxim (in assertives)
 - a. Minimize disagreement between self and other
 - b. Maximize agreement between self and other
- (6) Sympathy maxim (in assertives)
 - a. Minimize antipathy between self and other
 - b. Maximize sympathy between self and other

Leech notes that not all the maxims are equally important. Tact maxim appears to be a more powerful constraint on conversational behavior than generosity maxim, while approbation maxim is more important than modesty maxim. And he suggests that "politeness is focused more strongly on other than on self" (Leech, 2003, p.536).

For example, in item 14, "Wei Dong meets his English teacher, Dr Johns, outside the classroom. Wei says", 46 students agrees with the choice "Hi, Dr Johns." But, we know that the words "Hi" and "Hello" are qualified for friends, rather than the elders, thus, this is against Politeness Principle.

However, over-politeness also is not too tactful, as in item 20, sixty-five students' the choice at B "Excuse me, would you mind taking me to the airport?" and C "Would you please take me to the airport?" which accounts for 47%. In fact, it is OK for you to say "Airport, please!" to taxi driver.

IV. CORRESPONDING SUGGESTIONS FOR AVOIDING PRAGMATIC FAILURE

According to survey findings and analysis of pragmatic failure, it can be apparently seen that the phenomenon of non-English majors' pragmatic failure is very common. To some extent, much pragmatic failure is more serious than grammar mistakes. Wolfson (1989) points out, in communication with foreigners, they are more lenient towards those mistakes on pronunciation and grammar, while for violation of communicative principles, they will consider it impolite. Language learners must not only acquire the correct forms and sounds of the target language, but also the knowledge of how language is pragmatically used in the target culture (Leech, 1983). Therefore, pragmatic competence seems more important than linguistic competence. The reasons of non-English-major college students' pragmatic failure lie in many facets, such as inappropriate teaching concept, ignorance of pragmatic knowledge, lack of interactive English learning environment, etc. Thus there are some advice for improving English learning and teaching and avoiding pragmatic failure in the following:

A. *Raising English Teachers' and Learners' Intercultural Awareness*

Cross-cultural awareness is the term used to describe sensitivity to the impact of culturally-induced behavior on language use and communication. In order to successfully interact with English native speakers, we have to understand our own and target cultural values, norms, customs and social systems. Teachers should not only teach language knowledge but also the culture connotation and try to integrate the target culture into English teaching, and remind the students of understanding the pattern of thought, social convention, value orientation, life style, history tradition, etc. between China and western countries. Try to provide opportunities for students to know about the English-speaking countries' culture as much as possible, training the comprehensive competence of cross-culture communication. It is practical to make good use of textbooks together with authentic materials such as English film scripts, plays, newspapers, articles and Internet, etc. to provide relevant cultural information so as to widen the students' cultural knowledge. In addition, it is possible to develop their ability to identify areas of possible misunderstanding so as to avoid such miscommunication.

B. *Instructing Pragmatic Knowledge as Much as Possible*

Many researches have explored the impact of instruction on pragmatic development in several facets, such as implication (Kubota, 1995), pragmatic fluency (House, 1996). Hymes (1972) points out that grammar rules will be useless if one does not know the applied principles of language. It is well accepted that the ultimate purpose of language learning is for successful communication, which demands both linguistic and pragmatic competence. Kasper (2001) proposes that learners' awareness of appropriate pragmatic behavior can be raised through explicit teaching and meta-pragmatic treatment of pragmatic features by way of description, explanation, and discussion. As a result, English teachers should provide students with explicit teaching on pragmatic knowledge, exposing learners to the pragmatic aspects of language. Also, teachers should create much more opportunities for students to increase their use of pragmatic knowledge. Eslami-Rasekh (2005) suggests that awareness-raising activities, such as what is considered an offence in their culture compared to the target culture and what are different degrees of offence for different situations in the two languages (L1 and L2), are helpful to expose students to the pragmatic aspects of language and provide them with the analytical tools they need to arrive at their own generalizations concerning contextually appropriate language use. Since pragmatic knowledge is as important as linguistic knowledge, teachers should integrate pragmatic knowledge teaching into English teaching.

C. *Creating an Interactive Language Learning Environment*

Definitely, a favorable language learning environment is essential for students to pick up English well. It involves in many aspects. Undoubtedly, in class, it is necessary for English teachers to create a relaxing, interactive environment and offer some opportunities for learners to use the target language rather than one-way learning from the teachers. The teachers should create some situations close to reality, such as how to interview for a job, how to teach as a teacher, how to do business as a boss, etc. Role-play, simulation and drama engage students in different social roles and provide opportunities to practice the wide range of pragmatic and sociolinguistic abilities (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). Fostering pragmatic competence relies largely on the practice of pragmatic knowledge in interactive communication. Therefore, we should adopt various kinds of modern teaching media and methods in order to make the students have an immersed sense and learn English naturally. For instance, students should be encouraged to communicate with English native speakers on and off campus, or through the Internet as much as possible, for constant exposure to use of the language. Also, we may introduce some English original movies as much as possible to students and let them contact a large number of real English materials through surfing on the English websites, which help widen students' horizon and intensify the understanding of culture difference between China and English-speaking countries. On the whole, a good language learning environment has greater influence on English learning of the students. Every teacher and every student should realize the crucial role that an interactive language learning environment plays in arousing the students' passion of learning English well.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper carries out questionnaire survey on Chinese non-English-major college students, aiming at analyzing the phenomena of pragmatic failure committed by non-English majors in the real communication with native English speakers. After analyzing and generalizing some common manifestations of non-English majors' pragmatic failure, some suggestions for avoiding pragmatic failure and improving English teaching and learning are come up with above. As the core of communicative competence, pragmatic competence is the prerequisite to successful intercultural communication. Since communication is a dynamic process which consists of coding and decoding, it is not possible to convey all pragmatic rules to students, but it is necessary to strengthen students' awareness of those rules by exposing them to authentic English materials and practice in context.

From the survey findings and analysis above, it can be seen that the phenomenon of non-English majors' pragmatic failure is very common. "High levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee concomitant high levels of pragmatic competence" (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, p.686). We gain the inspiration that only by integrating the pragmatic knowledge and culture teaching into the training of pragmatic competence and linguistic competence and then

innovating teaching concept, teaching method, teaching content, etc. can we intensify the students' pragmatic consciousness, reduce their pragmatic failure and strengthen their pragmatic competence.

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The Reading Strategies Awareness among English as a Second Language (ESL) Learners in Malaysia's University

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Abstract—This research paper aims to measure the awareness level of reading strategies of the English as Second Language (ESL) Learners in Universiti Teknologi MARA, Penang. This study has included the measurement of their perceived use of reading strategies while reading academic materials since reading of specialized academic material in the second language is beginning to receive attention. This type of academic reading is also important to test the learners' reading comprehension skills and their knowledge of the text. An instrument of the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) was used for this study where it consists of three broad categories of reading strategies namely, Global Reading strategies, Problem Solving Strategies and Support Strategies. Analysis of the collected data revealed that the learners perceived the three strategies with a different frequency level depending on the purpose of reading academic materials. The data also provided evidence that they were able to practice them. The findings of the reading strategies awareness of ESL learners are discussed.

Index Terms—reading strategies, global reading strategies, problem solving strategies, support strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading strategies are important as they can actually assist the ESL learners' reading process and gives them a clear sense of direction on what they are actually digesting while reading. English as Second Language (ESL) learners in general have employed different reading strategies that suit them well especially when they have different reading materials. However, most of them have no knowledge of what these reading strategies are as they might not have been exposed to the various reading strategies. As such, it is not known to them that should these reading strategies be employed, it can enhance their understanding and memorizing of the materials being read. This results in having both effective skills that may help the ESL learners to succeed in examination. There are different kinds of reading strategies

that are employed by ESL learners namely, Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) and Support Strategies (SUP). Basically, these reading strategies can be employed simultaneously on one reading material such as, the academic materials but some ESL learners are not aware of which reading strategies they have employed.

Strategies as defined by Winograd & Hare, 1998 (as cited in Anderson, 1999) are “deliberate actions that learners select and control to achieve desired goal or objectives.” Finding out which reading strategy is employed and effective in improving or helping a learner in understanding or memorizing any reading materials such as the academic materials, can be a great help in determining which strategies should be included in the syllabus when teaching the reading comprehension skill.

In the context of second language learning, learners use the strategies to make learning more effective and improve comprehension. According to Singhal (2001), reading strategies “indicate how readers conceive a task”, help them to understand and guide them to comprehend. It is important for second language readers to be aware of their comprehension processes during reading. In order to do that, strategies are selected to assist in getting at the meaning of what they read. Indirectly, metacognitive awareness, which is the “readers’ awareness of strategies during the reading process” is the skill that second language readers used while reading to make them better readers. (Singhal, 2001). Therefore, students who are deficient in metacognitive awareness, tend to use extra time to understand words than to construct meaning from the text. As a result, they “often have difficulties coping with academic materials and “tend not to possess the necessary reading strategies and skills for efficient comprehension.” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002).

Consequently, to increase students’ awareness of such strategies, it is not easy and not the learners’ responsibilities solely. Teachers play a vital role in helping to use the “given strategy” and also “taught how to determine if they are successful in their use of that strategy” (Anderson, 1999). Grabe (1991) cautions, “effective strategy training is not a simple or easy matter” since it needs “duration of training, clarity of training procedures, students responsibility and strategy transfer.” As highlighted by Mokhtari & Sheory (2002), for students “to be strategic and constructively responsive readers” it is strongly recommended to introduce skilful academic reading to accomplish in academic. As for teachers to implement reading strategies is not an easy task. It takes time to be taught and requires guided practice on the teachers’ part on “how to teach; why, when and in what problems or circumstances to use a strategy” and it also “involves frequent modelling and re-teaching specific strategies when necessary” (Ciborowski, 1991).

Although excessive research and reliable instrument in assessing reading awareness of native English speakers have been done, it is Mokhtari & Reichard’s, 2002 stand that there is yet a specific design to measure metacognitive awareness of adolescent and ESL learners that has prompted us to use and adopt the instrument such as SORS in this study. The significance of using SORS is to measure awareness of ESL learners’ reading strategy as well as to provide suggestions to improve their reading skills. This instrument can help to identify the learners’ strategies in comprehending and acquiring the academic text. SORS are categorized in three different strategies such as Global Learning Strategies, Problem Solving Strategies and Support Strategies, which help the readers to control, evaluate and manipulate the reading materials during the process of reading.

It is vital for ESL learners to be aware of their reading strategies in order to aid their comprehension in the tasks assigned. By having the metacognitive strategies and being aware of the strategies used, it may help students to be responsive as well as to be able to construct meaning from the text. The information provided in the research could perhaps increase the awareness of reading strategies of the readers while reading and to improve their understanding of the process and help them to be “thoughtful, constructively responsive and strategic readers” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). Second language readers should know how to comprehend the reading strategies to help them in absorbing the academic materials better.

Therefore, in short, the objectives of this study are three-folds, namely to identify differences in the reading strategies employed by learners, to identify learners awareness in employing reading strategies, and lastly is to highlight the effectiveness of some reading strategies that help the learners to understand the text better.

Apart from that, a median and mode analysis were also conducted on the overall means of each sub-scale category so as to shed some light on the answers to our research questions of:

- 1) What is the most prominent type of reading strategy as perceived to be employed by these students when reading academic materials?
- 2) What are the frequencies for the three categories of reading strategies as perceived to be employed by these students when reading academic materials?

II. METHOD

The Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) questionnaire that were constructed and validated by Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002) was used.

A. Sampling Design

Using a simple random sample, the subjects of this study were sixty (60) third semester students who came from the Engineering Faculty of UiTM Penang. This sample population refers to about 20% of the total number of third semester students who were pursuing Mainstream English II (BEL 250) Preparation for MUET (BEL260) of this institution

whereby about sixty percent of the subjects were male and forty percent were female aged between nineteen to twenty-one years old.

B. Questionnaire

A selected-response format of thirty items was measured using the Likert –Scale that provided us with an ordinal scale measurement. The instrument was adopted, constructed and validated by Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002. The responses were then rated based on a five-point Likert-scale which ranged from numbers one to five;

- 1 means “never” or “almost never”
- 2 means “only occasionally”
- 3 means “sometimes”
- 4 means “usually”
- 5 means “always” or “almost always”

These 30 items were categorised into three categories of reading strategies comprising of Global Reading Strategies (13 items), Support Strategies (9 items) and Problem Solving Strategies (8 items) by Mokhtari & Shoerey (2002), adapting this formula from the work of Oxford & Stock (1995). All the items in this questionnaire were mainly used to indicate the extent of awareness to which the respondents perceived themselves to be using the described strategy when reading academic materials.

Frequency and percentage were carried out on all the responses made by the sixty samples in this study. The descriptive statistics of frequency and the percentage were used to determine the level of awareness of the reading strategies preferences among the students in UiTM Penang.

In addition to that, mean and mode scores were used to determine the sub-scales and frequency of reading strategy awareness as perceived by the respondents.

C. Data Analysis

The data collected from the 60 respondents were computed and analyzed using the SPSS 11. Individual scores from the questionnaire that were grouped together according to their sub-scale category namely the Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) and Support Strategies (SUPP) were recorded and added up to obtain the total score for the entire instruments. The statistical procedures used in this study were the descriptive statistics – mean and mode scores and also frequency and percentage. The overall means for each sub-scale are categorized as below:

- High – (mean of 3.5 or higher)
- Moderate – (mean of 2.5 to 3.4)
- Low – (mean of 2.4 or lower)

III. RESULTS

A. The Awareness of Reading Strategies Employed

TABLE 1:
MEAN FOR GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES (GLOB)

Mean	n	%
H	14	23.3
M	42	70.0
L	4	6.7

The data above shows the moderate usage of designation of reading strategies being the most prominent with 70% of the respondents showing their awareness in various techniques such as highlighted in Table 1. About forty-two students fall under the moderate usage designation of reading strategies as compared to only a mere 6.7 percent of the total respondents showing the lack of awareness of such techniques. This shows that a majority of the respondents are able to monitor and manage their reading such as being aware that they do actually preview the text, have a purpose in mind about the text and use typographical aids, tables and figures. The high mean score, as suggested by the SORS; made up of 3.5 and higher sees only a total of fourteen respondents being in this category.

TABLE 2:
ANALYSIS OF PERCENTAGE OF GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES (GLOB)

Item No.	Description of Items		1	2	3	4	5
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read	n	0	4	34	16	6
		%	0.0	6.7	56.7	26.7	10.0
3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read	n	0	7	20	27	6
		%	0.0	11.7	33.3	45.0	10.0
4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before I read it	n	4	9	23	19	5
		%	6.7	15	38.3	31.7	8.3
6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose	n	2	15	21	18	4
		%	3.3	25.0	35.0	30.0	6.7
8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organisation	n	4	13	25	15	3
		%	6.7	21.7	41.7	25.0	5.0
12	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore	n	3	12	28	11	6
		%	5.0	20.0	46.7	18.3	10.0
15	I use tables, figures and pictures in text to increase my understanding	n	8	18	18	10	6
		%	13.3	30.0	30.0	16.7	10.0
17	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading	n	2	9	20	26	3
		%	3.3	15.0	33.3	43.3	5.0
20	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information	n	10	16	14	13	7
		%	16.7	26.7	23.3	21.7	11.7
21	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text	n	4	15	30	9	2
		%	6.7	25.0	50.0	15.0	3.3
23	I check my understanding when I come across new information	n	0	8	28	18	6
		%	0.0	13.3	46.7	30.0	10.0
24	I try to guess what the content of the text is about when I read	n	1	4	18	25	12
		%	1.7	6.7	30.0	41.7	20.0
27	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong	n	6	8	20	21	5
		%	10.0	13.3	33.3	35.0	8.3

As for Item 21 in Table 2, fifty percent of respondents indicated that they sometimes critically analyse and evaluate their reading texts in answering comprehension questions. In gauging their frequency of awareness on item 17 - *I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading*, the majority of respondents which amounted to forty-eight percent of respondents stated a higher degree of awareness in using contextual clues while reading. This shows that the technique of using contextual clues is a skill the respondents need especially in making intelligent guesses about a certain lexis or vocabulary based on the context of the reading passage.

TABLE 3:
MEAN FOR PROBLEM-SOLVING READING STRATEGIES (PROB)

Mean	N	%
H	39	65
M	20	33
L	1	1.7

As can be seen from Table 3, the Problem Solving Strategies (PROB) which skill readers are to have localised, the focus technique especially when understanding of textual information is hindered, the respondents of this sub-skill strategies account to 65% (39 respondents). This suggests that these respondents do indicate a higher level of awareness in applying some of the Problem Solving Strategies; for instance adjusting one's speed of reading when the text become difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown word and rereading the text to improve comprehension. Contrastively, the Problem Solving mean score for the lower usage designation only recorded the one and only respondent as showing the least awareness of such strategies to be applied in his academic reading. Since the focus is on the reading of academic materials, usually the readers are given specific time to comprehend the texts.

TABLE 4:
ANALYSIS OF PERCENTAGE OF PROBLEM-SOLVING READING STRATEGIES (PROB)

Item No.	Description of Items		1	2	3	4	5
7	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading	n	0	4	10	24	22
		%	0.0	6.7	16.7	40.0	36.7
9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration	n	0	8	10	29	13
		%	0.0	13.3	16.7	48.3	21.7
11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading	n	1	13	22	18	6
		%	1.7	21.7	36.7	30	10
14	When text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I am reading	n	1	8	11	27	13
		%	1.7	13.3	18.3	45.0	21.7
16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading	n	7	15	23	13	2
		%	11.7	25.0	38.3	21.7	3.3
19	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read	n	4	9	17	21	9
		%	6.7	15.0	28.3	35.0	15.0
25	When text becomes difficult, I reread it to increase my understanding	n	2	3	8	25	22
		%	3.3	5.0	13.3	41.7	36.7
28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	n	1	5	16	28	10
		%	1.7	8.3	26.7	46.7	16.7

In Table 4, for item 7, a majority of forty two respondents acknowledged the awareness of staying focussed and not being easily side-tracked. In fact, more than 40 respondents acknowledged that they have usually, always or almost always used the strategies as given in items 9, 14 and 25.

TABLE 5:
MEAN FOR SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES (SUPP)

Mean	N	%
H	19	31.7
M	31	51.6
L	10	16.7

Table 5 as shown above preview another moderate usage of designation of reading strategies being the most prominent but this time, with 51.6 percent of the respondents showing their awareness in techniques used such as highlighted in Table 6 below. About thirty-one students fall under this moderate usage designation of reading strategies as compared to other group of means, of the same strategy. The percentage of 31.7 shows the high mean score whereas, 16.7 percent indicates the low mean score, which can be observed as showing the lack of awareness of techniques in the items such as shown in Table 5. This shows that a majority of the respondents are aware of the strategy that could assist them to understand the text so that they would be able to interpret it as what has been requested by the questions.

TABLE 6:
ANALYSIS OF PERCENTAGE OF SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES(SUPP)

Item No.	Description of Items		1	2	3	4	5
2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read	n	3	26	18	11	2
		%	5.0	43.3	30.0	18.3	3.3
5	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read	n	12	10	15	17	6
		%	20.0	16.7	25.0	28.3	10.0
10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it	n	6	10	16	15	13
		%	10	16.7	26.7	25	21.7
13	I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand when I read	n	3	9	13	17	18
		%	5.0	15.0	21.7	28.3	30.0
18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) of better understand what I read	n	5	10	27	11	7
		%	8.3	16.7	45.0	18.3	11.7
22	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it	n	6	12	25	16	1
		%	10.0	20.0	41.7	26.7	1.7
26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text	n	4	14	21	18	3
		%	6.7	23.3	35.0	30.0	5.0
29	When reading I translate from English into my native language	n	5	9	13	12	21
		%	8.3	15.0	21.7	20.0	35.0
30	When reading I think about information in both English and my mother tongue	n	3	5	24	22	6
		%	5.0	8.3	40.0	36.7	10.0

In Table 6, as seen in item 13 - *I use reference materials (e.g., a dictionary) to help me understand what I read*, shows that the respondents are very concerned about the needs to understand the text given. Item 29 nonetheless recorded a number of 42 respondents who stated that they frequently translate from English Language into their native language as compared to other items which shows a range of 13 to 35 respondents attesting to their frequency in resorting to the strategies provided under the Support reading strategies.

B. The Effectiveness of Reading Strategies Employed

The technique of using contextual clues in Global Reading Strategies is a skill the respondents need especially in making intelligent guesses about a certain lexis or vocabulary based on the context of the reading passage. Since the aim of this study is merely to measure their levels of awareness, to conclude the analysis and observations made on the validity and reliability of such techniques of gauging their level of awareness and perceived use of reading strategies, we applied a t-test and below is the summary:

TABLE 7:
T-TEST SCORE

	Mean	Std Deviation	p-value
GLOB	3.18	0.48	0.000
PROB	3.59	0.50	0.000
SUPP	3.17	0.62	0.000

From Table 7, with reference to the Global strategies, the average of this data recorded a mean of 3.18 which therefore can be inferred that the respondents themselves are consistent in using the much-discussed items provided in the SORS, in their daily readings of academic texts. It could also be said that these respondents do possess the necessary reading strategies and skills for efficient comprehension.

As for Problem – solving strategies, the average mean is 3.59 and it can be concluded that there is a tendency for the students to be involved in the actions and procedures in working directly with the text they read. Being active readers and thinkers as advocated by this study is highlighted in their level of awareness of such skills that necessitate better comprehension of the academic texts.

The mean for the Support Strategies meanwhile is 3.17 which indicates that the respondents have identified themselves well with the reading strategies in this sub-scale category.

Thus, it can be summarized that since the level of significance is lower than 0.05, therefore the difference between means of the samples is significant.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study concludes that learners are aware of some reading strategies which they use when reading academic materials. Their level of awareness may differ since they do not know that they perceive certain strategy unless someone tells them about it. Their preference to certain strategy is due to their ability to read and understand the materials and to know the purpose of doing so. Data indicate that a lower level of awareness and strategy use would be related to the low ability readers. Contrastively would be the high-ability readers who can easily identify themselves with a variety reading strategies. Instances of higher level usage strategies are re-reading, main ideas detection, meaning-analysis through context. The students used mainly problem-solving strategies that involve using their concentration while reading and monitoring one's comprehension. This shows that learners are more concerned about the text comprehension because this may somehow, helps them answering the reading comprehension questions better.

With these findings, the awareness of reading strategies (SORS) should be instilled or rather inculcated in students as the advantages of realising and putting them into actual use when reading academic materials far outweigh the disadvantages and the lack of awareness on these selected strategies. This would also enable them to acknowledge the needs and importance of reading comprehension skills. The realization on the relevance of this skill for the learners is basically for their daily academic tasks and for the performance and achievement in it. This may result in becoming active readers and thinkers.

This is especially significant and relevant in the case of these respondents since the course they are taking, outlines a 45% of the total assessment.

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A Lesson Model for Enhancing Motivation in EFL Writing Classes

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Abstract—Not many students relish writing; instead, they fear it and avoid it. A lack of motivation is the prime reason behind their predicament. Teachers can positively encourage and motivate their students to write by employing the most appropriate teaching techniques and materials in the classroom. This study aims to propose a lesson model for enhancing motivation in EFL writing classes. The suggested lesson plan was experimentally employed wherein the students were observed and interviewed during and after the class. For data collection of the study, we also utilized a combination of classroom observations and product analysis. The collected data when analyzed and interpreted in the findings of the study indicated that the suggested lesson model was effective in motivating the learners well and encouraging them for writing.

Index Terms—increasing motivation, writing in a foreign language, content-based approach, a lesson model

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation, writing and content-based instruction

Research on the psychological aspects of writing commenced a few decades ago, giving away to the motivational reasoning of writing. Encouraging students' positive beliefs about writing, fostering authentic goals as well as contexts for writing and creating a positive classroom environment are some elements that affect students' motivation to write (Bruning and Horn, 2000). According to Jones (1988) "an important challenge for the ESL/EFL writing teacher is to interest and challenge students enough with the course curriculum for them to want to learn to write well" (p. 340). Assigning students appropriate writing topics increases learner motivation and leads to an exciting writing classroom experience (Irmscher, 1979).

One way of increasing students' motivation in writing classes is to employ a content-based instruction methodology. It has been previously used in a variety of language learning contexts for the last few decades. Content-based instruction implies an integration of language learning and content learning while the language is learned within the context of a specific academic subject. In a content-based approach, language class activities are specific to the subject matter being taught and they stimulate students to learn through the use of the target language (Brinton, Snow&Wesche, 1989). According to Stryker and Leaver (1997), content-based approaches enhance students' motivation and accelerate their acquisition of language proficiency. The four major principles underlying content-based instruction are: automaticity, meaningful learning, intrinsic motivation and communicative competence (Brown, 2001). Brown (2001) also suggests "content-based classrooms may yield an increase in intrinsic motivation and empowerment, since the students are focused on subject matter that is important to their lives" (p. 49- 50). By generating content instruction and materials, content-based instruction keeps students interested and motivated. Content-based classroom is learner centered (Littlewood, 1981) where students actively engage in the learning process. Content-based instruction introduces students to the discourses of their future professions and motivates them to work with authentic language resources (Swales & Feak, 1995 in Grabe& Stoller, 1997). The teaching of writing to non-native speakers of English has matured since 1966. Raimes (1996) discussed this development under four approaches: A form-dominated approach, a process approach, a content-based approach and an English for specific purposes approach. In content-based writing instruction, writing is connected to an academic subject matter and it is considered as a means of teaching the content (Beach&Bridwell, 1984; Emig, 1977; Fulwiler, 1982). Shih (1986) suggests "It is argued that such instruction develops thinking, researching, and writing skills needed for academic writing tasks and does more realistically than does traditional instruction..." (p. 1).

II. METHOD

This qualitative study aims to propose a lesson model to increase learner motivation in EFL writing classes using the content-based approach. The lesson is prepared to teach writing to a group of intermediate level Turkish students learning English as a foreign language at the Department of Tourism at a university in Turkey. The lesson aims to teach a piece of content in an enjoyable writing class and help students profit most from the applied approach during the lesson. It is thought to serve a good model for teachers who want to increase learner motivation in writing classes. Twenty-three Turkish students, 13 boys and 10 girls took part in the study. All participants, chosen randomly, were

freshman students enrolled in the department of tourism. Before the conduction of the study, consent from both the teacher and their students and school principals was obtained. The suggested lesson model was conducted in the writing class by the researcher in a regular classroom environment, and included an interview as a data collection instrument on the participants. Classroom observation was the second source of data collection procedures. The collected data were analyzed and necessary recommendations were made in the results of the study.

The suggested lesson model was designed to teach writing to the learners of English as a foreign language with content-based instruction. The lesson model was designed taking several points and features of content-based instruction into account. A “six-T’s Approach” to unit design by Stoller and Grabe (1997) constituted a basis for the suggested model. The theme selected is of interest to the students enrolled in the department of tourism (a summer holiday resort- the Maldives) while the activities developed meet the needs of the students (replying to e-mail messages, the role of a tourist guide and writing a tour program to the Maldives). It includes the pre, while and post writing stages, and utilized authentic resources in the target language (e.g., an informative power-point slide show). The tasks are communicative in nature (e.g., replying to an e-mail, a role-play) and activities are based on cooperative learning (e.g., learning in pairs, in groups). Students develop the four language skills (power-point slide for listening and reading; replying to an e-mail develops writing; role-play develops listening and speaking skills). Three experts in the field were consulted for the validity, the reliability and the practicality of the suggested model. Their opinions about the suggested model in terms of form and content were obtained. All of the experts agreed that the model was appropriate both in form and in content.

III. SUGGESTED LESSON MODEL

The suggested model was presented under two sub-headings: lesson plan and classroom applications. The level of the students, the subject and the duration of the course, the course objectives were given and the three stages of the writing lesson (pre-writing, while writing and post-writing) were described in detail in the lesson plan. In the classroom applications part, the teaching steps were described in detail.

A. Lesson Plan

Replying to e-mail messages

Students: Freshman students (enrolled in the Department of Tourism) learning English as a foreign language

Course: English

Level: Intermediate

Subject: A glimpse of the Maldives

Duration: 45+45 minutes

Approach: Content-based Instruction

Materials: Teacher-created slides: a visual resource for clarifying content and developing writing skills

Lesson Objectives:

-learning about the Maldives

-picking up necessary language from the slides

-responding to a customer e-mail giving detailed information about the Maldives

Pre-writing stage:

Classroom Discussion: The students talk about their favourite holiday resorts.

Introducing relevant vocabulary and idioms before writing

Note Taking: Students take notes during the slide show (22 teacher produced slides).

While writing stage:

The students are asked to write an e-mail replying to a customer who is asking for advice about a nice summer holiday resort for his summer vacation. They will write a detailed e-mail about the Maldives by introducing the resort to the customer. They will write in groups of 3 students (Group work). For the task, the students use their notes taken from the slide show.

Post- writing stage:

The students were placed in pairs and assigned to play the roles of a tourist and a tourist guide.

Student A: A tourist in the Maldives wants to learn about it as much as possible, asks whatever he wants to learn from the tourist guide.

Student B: A tourist guide, answers the guest’s questions as much as he can.

Peer editing and giving feedback

Rewarding the best writer

Homework:

The students write a package tour program to the Maldives individually.

Instruction: You are a tour operator and required to write a package tour programme to the Maldives in detail (250-300 words). Write about tour dates, the cost of the tour, transportation and accomodation, the planned daily activities on the island, and etc.

B. Classroom Applications

The researcher herself conducted the lesson. First, she held a warm up session, motivating the students and focussing their attention to the topic. Later, she conducted the pre-writing stage consisting of a class discussion activity, during which the students discussed their favourite holiday resorts. After the class discussion, the informative slides about the Maldives were presented and the students took notes from the slides in order to use them in their writing. Finally, they were asked to do the writing task (writing a reply to an e-mail). The students were given ample time to write the task. They did the task in groups of three students. Having completed the task, they read it aloud and received feedback from the researcher and from the whole class. After the task was over, a role-play activity was conducted by pairs of students as a post-writing activity playing the role of a tourist and a tourist guide. With the post-writing activity, writing was integrated with speaking and the subject matter was reinforced. The students were assigned homework at the end of the class.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to Gardner (1985), three components are necessary for motivation language learning: effort to achieve a goal, desire to learn the language and satisfaction with the task of learning the language. Characteristics such as effort, persistence, and attention are the descriptors of the motivational behaviour and such characteristics of an individual can be perceived by an outside observer (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The researcher, as an observer, assessed the students' motivational behaviour in the classroom. The students were found to be persistent; they attended to the task for a long period of time, signalling high learner motivation (Maehr & Braskamp, 1986). In addition, they directed attentional effort to the writing task. As there is a close link between motivation and attention (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991), the students were considered highly motivated during the lesson. They spent considerable energy on taking notes, participating in pairs and group works, and writing dialogues, giving additional signs of motivation.

The students seemed to enjoy the lesson and participated successfully by taking notes, writing the task and interacting with one another. They did not show any signs of boredom during the lesson. On the contrary, they were very much interested in the topic and undertook the task successfully. They seemed to enjoy the group-work and pair-work activities. They also showed positive attitudes in working with class-mates.

Their written products also confirmed that they were motivated and performed well during the lesson. When the written products were evaluated, they were found to be complete in form and meaning. Composed of syntactically and semantically appropriate sentences, the written products included the necessary vocabulary items to describe the intended facts and opinions. Furthermore, the written products were found to be cohesive, coherent and relevant with all ideas supporting one central theme using suitable linking devices. The written texts were also successful in terms of function; the e-mails written to a customer to persuade him to buy a package tour to Maldives were extremely effective and persuasive as the students wrote about all the attractions in the islands.

The students were interviewed following the lesson and their opinions about the lesson were recorded and subsequently investigated. The question "What do you think about the writing lesson you were taught?" was directed to all of them and the replies were as follows: (mechanical errors corrected and identical responses written once only)

- I noticed I like writing for the first time.
- I liked the lesson, it was enjoyable.
- It was not boring as regular writing classes, I enjoyed it.
- I liked the slides, they really helped me with my writing. I used the ideas and the vocabulary presented in the slides.
- I find it very beneficial, it is related to my field. I like learning English related to my field.
- It was fun, I wanted to write.
- I usually waste a lot of time before I start to write as I usually do not know what to write and how to start. But this lesson was different; it taught ideas and the words before writing.
- I liked the topic "The Maldives", I wanted to write about it although I don't like writing.
- I liked to write and speak in English while learning about a touristic place. Previously, I did not know much about this island.
- I think we should always learn English related to our field, I will need to use English in the field of tourism in the future.
- It was easier and more comfortable to write with my friends.
- The lesson was so interesting for me. I learnt a bit more about the real world.
- I liked the slide show, it really helped me with my writing. I used the ideas and the vocabulary presented in the slides.
- It was even easier to play the roles of a tourist and a tourist guide after learning the necessary vocabulary.
- I never like writing but I wrote an e-mail and participated in the activities.

The students' responses to the interview showed that they enjoyed the lesson and the topic. The students liked the topic as it was authentic and related to their field. The answers reveal that they had no difficulty in generating ideas and using the required vocabulary as they were previously introduced to them in the slides. They considered the lesson beneficial as it was related to their fields of study. They indicated their desire to learn language related to their fields. The results of the study support previous research in that important and interesting content provides motivation to learn

(Irmscher, 1979; Stryker&Leaver, 1997; Brown, 2001). They find writing with their friends easier and more comfortable. Their responses correspond with research on cooperative learning. When students work in groups, there is improvement in students' learning (Slavin, 1995). The answers indicate that they all did the task willingly. They also reported to have enjoyed the integration of speaking as a post-writing activity.

The model worked well in the class in encouraging writing. Based on the result of the study, the lesson model is suggested to be adapted and used by teachers in writing classes to motivate and encourage students to write. This study is limited to the teaching of writing and to a small number of participants. Thus, it is suggested that further studies be conducted with larger numbers of participants for proposing new models of teaching other language skills. With regard to data collection in future studies, additional methods may be applied with a larger number of participants, such as detailed product analysis, and using motivation scales.

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Improving L2 Writing Ability in the Light of Critical Thinking

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Abstract—With a cursory glance into the field of SLA, one can vividly recognize that the place of writing has been marginalized in comparison to other skills. Likewise, with the widespread implementation of communicative approaches to language teaching, writing has turned to a Cinderella skill in current EFL classes since most of the attention is paid to speaking and listening activities. However, improving writing ability has always been a concern for teachers, materials developers, and researchers. In this paper, the role of critical thinking (CT) in improving the writing ability of EFL learners was investigated. For this purpose, 70 EFL learners were asked to write a composition about a unique topic they had never thought before. A placement test was given to learners to divide them into proficient and less-proficient groups to see whether there is any variation between them. The common themes of the writings of these two groups were examined before introducing the principles of CT. After the first drafts of learners' compositions were gathered, all of the learners were taught some underlying principles of CT. The results showed that after explicitly teaching the principles of CT, learners' writings, in both groups, improved qualitatively and quantitatively; however, it had better effects on proficient learners. Background knowledge was also considered. It was revealed that having sufficient background knowledge is not the main key toward success in better writing. The findings proved that CT remained useful even when learners did not have any background information about the topic they were asked to write. Critical thinking was a way to provide learners with specific tools, namely, *imaginative*, *supportive*, and *disciplinary*. Finally, some recommendations are given.

Index Terms—critical thinking, writing skill, background knowledge, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

As a great analogy, Brown (2001) likened writing to *swimming*. With more considerations, one can readily recognize the subtle commonalities that exist between these two skills. Writing is not an ability which is innately given to human beings and even when it is learned, there is a range of qualities as it is the case with swimming. No matter how excellent one swims, the sea will challenge even the best swimmers just like a writer who should always deal with a world of uncertainties. Writing sometimes becomes a nerve-racking activity even for native speakers. Here a thought-provoking statement by Brown (2001, p. 334) comes to forefront which stated that “What is it about writing that blocks so many people, even in their own native language”? Surely, the answer is not totally related to *lexical* or *syntactic* knowledge. A mature person is able to build complex structures and can understand or produce novel sentences which have never been heard before. S/he is also able to easily distinguish the nuances in a conversation between two individuals in his/her first language but writing a paragraph will be drudgery for him/her.

Researchers have endorsed the importance of writing skill in the success of learners. As Pecorari (2006) mentioned, “learning to write appropriate text is an essential component of academic success” (p. 5). There are many occasions that one needs to write as writing a letter or a composition, to name a few. Learners have a lot of problems dealing with writing skill and it is worthy to propose some solutions to reduce the problems. It requires a great deal of studies to find a way to remove some barriers of L2 writing skill. Therefore, it is important to improve learners' L2 writing skill so that they would be able to represent their thoughts at a satisfactory level.

Throughout the history of SLA, some methods and approaches toward language teaching have targeted the writing skill to show its nature and its intricacies. Whole Language proponents, for instance, advocated that “writing is not primarily as a means of demonstrating knowledge to a teacher, but a way of discovering for oneself what one thinks” (Rigg, 1991, p. 522). Maybe it is the process of thinking itself which render the task so cumbersome. Moreover, as it is mentioned by Cottrell (2005), it is difficult for many individuals to manage their thoughts in a logical and consistent way. Maybe the key to success in improving writing skill is laid outside the realm of linguistic elements. For solving the mystery of writing skill, other areas such as the ability to reason and logic may prove to be useful—two major aspects of critical thinking.

When words such as *discovering* and *introspection* are highlighted in a particular activity, the role of thinking becomes much more obvious. Some researchers have stated that thinking and writing skill go hand in hand and are inseparable (Brown, 2001); therefore, the better one thinks, the better that person is going to deal with writing. Unfortunately, EFL curriculum is alienating itself from such important aspect of education—critical thinking. Moon (2008) believed that, “although thinking must surely be at the heart of education, it is not often explicitly taken into consideration in pedagogy” (p. vii). As learners grow up in their academic life, some crucial elements of education become much more outstanding though unknown to most learners and, disappointingly, to many educators. In order to think well, one should impose *control* and *discipline* on his/her thinking. This imposition is called *critical thinking*.

The importance of critical thinking has been addressed variously through educational life. Taylor and Mackenny (2008) stated that “critical thinking is a natural outgrowth of normal educational efforts” (p. 131). In *Toward a postmethod pedagogy*, Kumaravadivelu (2001) proposed the idea of “liberatory autonomy” in which the learners are empowered with critical thinking skills (p. 547). As the review of literature reveals, critical thinking is an underlying element of any educational effort and surely one cannot separate writing from critical thinking. According to Zamel (1982, p. 197), “writing is the record of an idea developing” in which individuals should manage their thoughts to come up with a consistent and coherent writing. Critical thinking is a subject of considerable current interest, both in terms of theory and pedagogy and most researchers have advocated the integration of critical thinking into other areas of foreign language learning (Bailin, Case, Coombs, & Daniels, 1999).

Research on composition has traditionally been concerned with the written product (Zamel, 1982). This line of research mainly focused on the belief that a better pedagogical approach, particularly one that focused on usage, structure, or correct form, would improve writing (Zamel, 1982). However, with the advent of task-based approach and communicative language teaching, meaning and purpose gained importance. Witte and Faigley (1981) argued that the quality of compositions should be evaluated according to features of the text that extend across sentence boundaries. They believed that traditional approaches are too short-sided in order to distinguish the value of essays and besides explicit links within a text (cohesion), a text must conform to a reader’s expectations for particular types of texts and the reader’s knowledge of the world (coherence). Van Bruggen (1946) conducted a study in order to obtain a quantitative measure of the rate of flow of words during written expression and to determine what factors affect it and to discover differences in composing structure of superior and inferior compositions of pupils.

Crossley and McNamara (2009) examined how lexical differences distinguish between texts written by first and second language writers of English. They used two corpora one of them was essays written in English by native Spanish speakers and the other was a matching L1 corpus collected from undergraduate students. The results of this study revealed that L1 writers use more abstract and hierarchically connected words than L2 writers of English. In order to obtain this finding, they used a computational tool which was called Coh-Metrix.

Tuzi (2004) explored the relationship between electronic feedback and its impact on second-language writers’ revisions. In this study Tuzi developed a database-driven web site and participants were required to write their essays in this web. Results of this study showed that learners prefer oral feedback but e-feedback proved to be more useful. The study focused on the role of online collaboration in improving writing skill. In another study which was conducted in this line of research, Gunel, Hand, and McDermott (2009) implemented a quasi-experimental design of a biology course. They used four groups of participating students and investigations aimed at finding the impact of writing-to-learn on students’ understanding and the value of writing to different audiences. Bitcher, Young, and Cameron (2005) studied the effect of corrective feedback on L2 writing. Their study comprised 53 post-intermediate ESOL learners. The results of this study showed that different types of corrective feedback on three targeted linguistic errors helped learners improve the accuracy of their writing when producing new texts. Lee (2008) studied the relationship between writers’ perceptions and their performance. Two tests were used in the study: a newly established FS test and an ESL placement test. The analysis of the relationships among the prompts, examinees’ perceptions, and their performance showed that only the effects of the FS test prompts on students’ perceptions were significant. The above-mentioned studies and so many similar investigations have shown how vast and complex the writing skill is. Although there have been considerable researches studying the nature of writing skill, interdisciplinary studies regarding the relationship between writing and other fields are not so welcomed.

The effect of critical thinking on writing skill is still ambiguous for most instructors and researchers. So many researchers have tried to find the answer of high-quality writing in the realm of linguistics ignoring the fact that writing is an interdisciplinary skill, as the line of research showed above, which interacts with various levels of thinking one of which is critical thinking. In this article we tried to find the effects of critical thinking on writing skill. Moreover, this study will shed some light on some difficulties that L2 learners encounter when dealing with writing skill.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

- Writing skill challenges even the native speakers. Therefore, writing skill is not rooted *just* in linguistic competence.
- A mature person is able to build complex structures and can understand or produce novel sentences which have never been heard before. S/he is also able to easily distinguish the nuances in a conversation between two individuals in his/her first language but writing a paragraph will be drudgery for him/her.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

To see whether critical thinking skills can help learners achieve better proficiency in their writings, 70 randomly-chosen learners (41 female, 29 male) were investigated who were studying EFL in language institutes in Mashhad, Iran. They were mainly around 18 and the main textbooks of most of them were *Passages* and *Interchange Third Edition*. All of the learners were from the same native language (Persian). Among these learners, 39 were in less-proficient group and the rest 31 were proficient learners (according to their scores in a placement test). The average year of studying English for the learners was two.

B. Procedure

In order to investigate the effect of critical thinking on writing skill, all of the learners were given a paper in which there were presented a list of strange and unusual topics. Then, they were required to check those topics they had no idea about. The purpose was to choose topics that learners had not any background knowledge. We wanted to see whether lack of background knowledge can hinder learners continuing writing or they would improvise something.

When background knowledge on a specific topic is at minimum, learners have to resort to other devices which exist outside the realm of linguistic elements and the role of thinking will be much clearer. The titles which most learners selected as being unique were chosen. One of those titles—which was unique for the learners—along with a general topic was given to learners and they were asked to write three paragraphs for each. The motive behind giving learners a general topic was to consider whether having enough background information is the main key to success in writing skill and whether it leads to high-quality writings. There may be some arguments that if individuals know the background to a topic, they write better. The title, *Problems of transportation*, was given to learners to see whether background knowledge is the main concern in writing.

It should be mentioned that learners were taught right after the first draft of their writings were gathered. The teaching session did not postpone to another time, for there may be some enhancement in knowledge due to passage of time. Thus, there was no delay between the first draft and the second draft of the composition. The main interval was the teaching process which took about two hours and in this session some principles of critical thinking were taught. We gave some examples in order to make the point clear.

After the data were gathered, they were carefully investigated to gauge the quantity and quality of learners' writing. At the first level, all the compositions were gathered and they were studied. At the second level, all the learners were taught some underlying principles of critical thinking which are presented in Cottrell (2005, p. 2). They were used as the guidelines in order to familiarize learners with critical thinking processes. After this, learners were asked again to write a composition about the topic they had written once: *You have three more days to live, what would you do in these three days?* The compositions were gathered and they were compared with learners' first drafts. In order to consider the effect of background knowledge, the entire learners were given a very general topic for which all the learners had something to write. The data were examined and the results were compared using the two drafts of learners' writings.

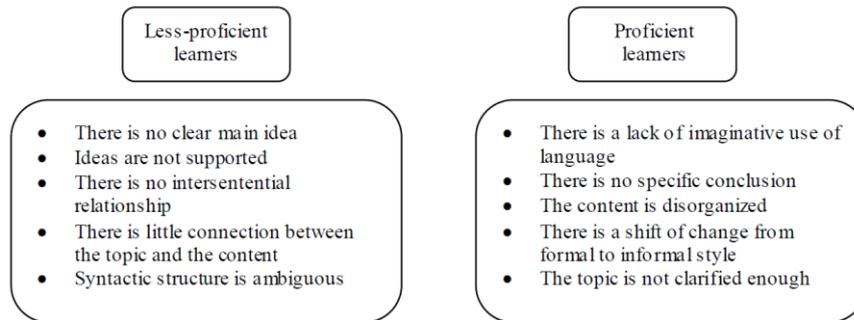
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the first phase of the study, we tried to find the quality of learners' writing. All of the learners were first given a list of peculiar and bizarre topics and they were asked to check those topics they had no idea about. There were ten topics included in the list. Table 1 shows the results of this investigation:

TABLE 1
THE DISTRIBUTION OF TOPICS AND ITS PECULIARITY ACCORDING TO LEARNERS' VIEW

Topics	Number of learners who select the topic
1. Going to March	70
2. Future of Earth	62
3. Lost in the middle of a desert	67
4. Teaching a class full of noisy children	60
5. Winning a large sum of money in a lottery	61
6. Interviewing the president of your country	70
7. Traveling to a foreign country	50
8. Your plane encounter turbulence and drops	67
9. You have three more days to live	70
10. Lost in a jungle full of wild animals	64

As Table 1 reveals, most of the learners chose topics number 1, 6, and 9 as being unique and strange for them. Numbers 4, 5, and 7 were the topics marked as being more common to learners. They were asked to write a composition about the topic which was, *"You have three more days to live, what would you do in these three days?"* Learners had 15 minutes to finish their compositions. Learners' papers were gathered and were investigated. After giving the learners a placement test, we divided the data into proficient and less-proficient learners. The following are common themes gathered from learners' writing in these two groups before acquitting them with critical thinking:



The common themes which were mentioned above are to some extent different regarding proficient and less-proficient learners. For proficient learners, problematic areas are more related to elements outside the realm of vocabulary and syntax. The problematic areas are mainly related to organizational factors, style, persuasive devices, and imaginative skills. Lexical and syntactic knowledge is more related to less-proficient learners. In general, problematic areas in both proficient and less-proficient groups are provided in Table 2:

TABLE 2
PROBLEMATIC AREAS IN LEARNERS' WRITINGS BEFORE TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING ABILITIES

Category	Problematic areas
Imaginative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imaginative ability is ignored • Truth value of sentences are mostly advocated • Writings are not provided with open-minded expressions
Supportive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The view points are not clarified • The viewpoints are not verified or exemplified • Main ideas are not supported • Details are not provided • Persuasive devices are not used
Disciplinary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The whole text is disorganized • There is no clear main idea • Sentences are attached to each other purposelessly • Syntax is ambiguous • Style shifting is used in writings • Language is not accurate • Sentence connectors are not used

Learners' writings had some positive points too. For instance, some of the learners understood the topic well and they did not deviate from the main points. There were some errors but the writings were comprehensible above all. The topic is "you have three more days to live." Learners are asked to write a composition about what they would do in these three days (Case 1a, one of the learners' writings before teaching the principals of critical thinking):

Case 1a (The composition before teaching the principles of critical thinking)

You have three more days to live

Every time should be ready to die. I go to a holy shrine or mosque. I want God to forgive my sins. I ask people around me to forgive me. I believe the best things to do to be kind with people and helping to them. Because every thing is died except good deeds. Then I thank my parents and family because all of their kinds. I wanna happy them. The last point is I ask God forgive my sins because of his kindly. And I am kind to people and my friends.

The example in Case 1a shows some problems which were mentioned earlier in this paper. Sentences are short and the whole composition is not well-organized. Sentences are attached to each other arbitrarily, without any relationship between them. The learner has used *wanna* which is an informal way of saying *want to*. This shift of style is one of those problematic areas mentioned earlier and learners should be explicitly taught not to use informal structures in their writings.

In the next phase, we taught all the learners using four underlying principles which are mentioned below. As it is mentioned in Cottrell (2005), there are some underlying principles that can foster better critical thinking abilities:

- *Evaluating the evidence for alternative points of view.* This requires seeing one issue from different glasses to come up with new ideas. In other words, a writer should be able to read between the lines, seeing behind the surface. This would make the composition eye-catching and outstanding since it contributes something new, something from nowhere but existing.

- *Weighing up opposing arguments and evidence fairly.* This means that a writer should put the prejudices aside and evaluate different view points in a clear way. This would surely help the writer to have an open mind which allows the information to come to his/her mind. For example, it is helpful to form arguments in the writing. One case in point is the use of opposite views in writing. A good writer always considers different viewpoints of a particular event or activity. In a particular topic, for instance, one may write about this idea that "We should increase prison sentences for crime." Another argument which may add to the quality and quantity of writing is forming counterarguments. For instance, in

the previous sentence, one can use the following sentence as a way of expanding the thought: "Increasing prison sentences is not helpful" (Cottrell, 2005). It is a suitable way to increase the writing skill and this requires the writer to put his/her prejudices aside and form fruitful arguments. Geertsen (2003) mentioned that "proper attitude shapes good thinking" and further defined the proper attitude as having an open mind. He stated that in order to see hidden and unnoticed places, an open mind is necessary (p. 5).

- *Recognizing techniques used to make certain positions more appealing than others, such as false logic and persuasive devices.* A good writer always tries to convince the reader by using some examples or by giving some statistics and the like. This would insure the reader that what is written is not a junk good for the trash can. Some of these devices that can make the writing as colorful as possible are, "poems," "numbers," "scientific sentences," "expressions," "personal experiences," "words of the eminent people," and "common belief," to name a few.

- *Presenting a point of view in a structured, clear, well-reasoned way that convinces others.* A good strategy to write a composition is to bring order to the information. That is, the data should not be presented on the paper in a haphazard fashion. This would surely bring confusion to the reader. The writer should keep the flow of writing in a clear way like a soap opera. Every paragraph should be dedicated to one point and different ideas should not be mixed without any link between them since writing is not like a hotchpotch to be served. Using some *formulaic writing* can help writers to present a more academic composition which is appealing to the eyes of the reader. Sentences such as, *recently, it has been suggested that...* makes the composition more meaningful and organized.

After teaching these principles, all of the learners were asked to write the composition again. Learners were familiarized with some principles of critical thinking and they were given some examples to make the point clear. When the teaching session finished, they were asked to write about the same topic they had written once. There was no delay between the first draft and the second draft but the teaching process itself. This would reduce the effect of knowledge which is likely to increase due to passage of time. The following writing is from the same learner his writing was presented in Case 1a. This is about the same topic but *after* teaching the principles of critical thinking (Case 1b):

Case 1b (The composition *after* teaching principles of critical thinking)

You have three more days to live

The first thing that I think is necessary and vital for me is that I would go to holy shrine or mosque and say pray at there. Because these are the first things that will come to help you there when you are in front of God. You know what because I think that the forgiveness of God is necessary I try to worship and adore and say to God forgive me. God is so kind and will forgive my sins.

The second thing that is important it can be people who are around me. I want do the something that I say to God. I want people to forgive me and try to relent and don't be strict about what I has done before. And the guys can be my parent at first and then my brother and sister and relatives and my intimate friends. I try to do good things for them and try to make them happy.

The last one I should do, is that enjoy myself and have fun in three days that I think two day take time for forgiveness and just 1 day left. In one day I try to be friendly and sociable with people and the guys around me and I went to be lovely.

It is obvious that, comparing the two writings of Case 1a with Case 1b, both the quality and quantity of writing have increased to a considerable degree. The information is more organized and the learner's point of view is more vivid (disciplinary tools of critical thinking). The learner has organized his writing by categorizing each paragraph using words such as *the first, the second, and the last*. The learner, his two drafts are presented above, was able to improve the quality of his writing and make it more appealing just after he was taught the principles of critical thinking. In the second draft, the learner has used some persuasive devices to convince the reader that he is right and to support his ideas (supportive tools). It is one of the principles of CT which was about recognizing techniques used to make certain positions more appealing than others, such as false logic and persuasive devices:

"Because these are the first things that will come to help you there..."

Moreover, in the second draft, the learner has come to a new insight, *to enjoy himself* (using alternative view points). This idea is in contrast with the idea of death. Usually the term (death) brings with itself a kind of regret and misery but this learner is going to *enjoy* life and to forget dying altogether (imaginative tools).

After all the data were investigated, common themes of learners' writings were found and categorized under specific headings. Most of these changes are related to clarifying the writings and organizing the paragraphs with providing specific tools. Table 3 refers to common themes of learners after teaching the principles of critical thinking:

TABLE 3
COMMON THEMES IN LEARNERS' WRITINGS AFTER TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING PRINCIPLES

Category	Problematic areas
Imaginative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imaginative ability is considered • More open-minded sentences are used
Supportive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The viewpoints are verified or exemplified • Different view points are considered
Disciplinary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writings are categorized in different paragraphs • Use of conjunctions are more common • The main idea is clear • Sentences are clearer • Sentences are attached to each other purposefully

Below is presented another composition from another learner. The results remained the same for this learner too. The following compositions make the point clear (Case 2a, learner's composition before teaching the principles of critical thinking):

Case 2a (The composition before teaching the principles of critical thinking)

You have three more days to live

If I would have three more day to live, I will do all the things that I wanted to do. I travel around the world and go to sight seeing. I go to the nature and speak to God.

One point that we may think about it, is our sins and wrong deeds. What can we do in this short time? Just small things satisfying people and being kind to them and giving back the money or other things that I had borrowed. I asking God to forgive us.

I would do good deeds and being kind with others especially with our parents. In a testament I give my things to family. Then I make myself ready to leave this world.

It is clear that the same problems which were observed in Case 1a can be seen in Case 2a. The learners mostly tried to see the point realistically without considering various points that are relatable to the topic (lack of imaginative power). For instance, Case 2a shows that the learner has adhered to truth value of sentences. Two issues she has mentioned are *doing good deeds* and *respecting others*. It would be of interest to use some imaginative sentences to make her writing more appealing. It is also obvious that paragraphs are too short. There is not a good conclusion at the end of the writing and it may be realized that she has just written what has come to her mind without organizing them (lack of disciplinary power). The following is from the same learner her writing was presented in Case 2a. After teaching some underlying principles of critical thinking, she was given the same topic and she was asked to write three paragraphs about it. The following represents her writing (Case 2b):

Case 2b (The composition after teaching principles of critical thinking)

You have three more days to live

Being alive just for three days. If I know that I'm alive just for three days, I try to do all the things that I wish to do in my life. I always want to travel around the world and see beautiful places all over the world but because I'm not alive more than three days I can't do it and go inside the nature and think about myself and speak with God to forget dying.

I also try to be kind with people even more than before. I should be very careful with people around. For example I should give back the money I borrowed from people. It is very important for me. Others view toward me is very important. If they are unhappy about me I should satisfy them.

Finally, I write a testament and give my things to my family and my friends. If I had a problem with somebody and solve it and want to forgive me. I try to get ready for die mentally and physically. I must accept it and be ready to leave this world and all the things that are related to this world. I ask God forgive me for all my sins.

Comparing the two writings in Case 2a with Case 2b, it is clear that in Case 2b the content is more organized and there is more clarification of ideas (supportive tools). Use of words such as *finally* and *also* (structured writing) reveals that the learner has tried to connect the paragraphs to each other to increase the organization of the writing (disciplinary tools). The concept of *beautiful places* (opposing arguments) is not compatible with the concept of *dying* which is included indirectly in the topic. However, the learner has used her imaginative power to increase the quality of her writing. Supportive tools will contribute to the improvement of writings quantitatively. The learner has used some persuasive devices too. *To forget dying* is the phrase which is used to give the reason why it is needed to go to the nature and speak with God. In addition, the learner has used *I must accept it* to relieve herself. The sentence *because I'm not alive more than three days I can't do it*, is used to show that traveling is not possible since there is not enough time to do so.

Background Knowledge vs. Critical Thinking

As it was mentioned earlier, a general common-sense topic was given to learners for which they were supposed to have background knowledge. The results showed that even in general topics, principles of critical thinking can be beneficial. With a comparison between the first drafts and the second drafts of the writings above, it is clear that the second drafts (after teaching the critical thinking skills) of learners' writings are more organized and the information is presented more clearly. In addition, writings are richer regarding supportive, imaginative, and disciplinary skills. The findings showed that explicitly teaching the principles of critical thinking can bring considerable change to learners'

writings. The following are two drafts of a learner's composition about the *Problems of transportation*. (Case 3a, a general topic is proposed and learners are asked to write three paragraphs about that):

Case 3a (The composition before teaching the principles of critical thinking)

Problems of transportation

The first problem is the system which is unorganized. The incorrect organization system of traffic time and street is not standard for vehicles. There are many old vehicles in city. There are so many people in bus stops and it took a lot of time they come. The road is also a problem. Roads outside the cities are too dangerous and it causes accident.

Every days factories are producing new cars and over producing of cars are problems to transportation. People be used to use the private car and another point is over using of vehicles for transportation and the lack of public vehicles for use.

In Case 3a, there is little organization between paragraphs. Furthermore, sentences are combined with each other without any relationship between them. The opinions are not clarified and there is no example to persuade the readers. With administrating the four principles of critical thinking, the learner was able to write the following passage. (Case 3b, the same learner his writing was analyzed in Case 3a is asked to write the same writing but this time after teaching the principles of critical thinking):

Case 3b (The composition after teaching the principles of critical thinking)

Problems of transportation

One of the most important problems is an unorganized system. I think if we improve our organization we could solve our problems. For example if we consider the number of vehicles, population and jam we could have better public transportation.

The second problem is old vehicles that use in the city and the number of them. It's not sufficient for the population and most of the times a lot of people standing at taxi and bus stops and waiting for a long time especially in certain times of the day that the streets are busy it is worse. Cars should be reduced otherwise the people will be reduced as the result of pollution. We can replace old vehicles with new ones.

The third problem is road. A lot of our roads between cities are one way and it's too dangerous and causes a lot of bad accidents. They must change and be more safty. In cities we don't have standard roads and most of the times cause bad accidents.

After teaching some underlying principles of critical thinking, learners take more time to contemplate the topics. When asking learners to write about a general topic, Case 3a, they were supposed to have enough information in their minds. However, even with enough background knowledge, some problems occurred. It was revealed that critical thinking skills influenced the quality of writings. Explicit teaching of critical thinking strategies had great effects on learners' writing. One of the critical thinking principles, which is organizing information, helped learners to classify and organize their thoughts; this is clear in Case 3b, in which the learner has used phrases such as *one of the most important problems*, *the second problem*, and *the third problem*. The sentence *especially in certain times of the day that the streets are busy*, is used as a persuasive device. From this example we can conclude that background knowledge is not the main road to success in L2 writing skill. An individual may have enough background knowledge and may be familiar with the topic, but presenting the information in an acceptable and precise manner is not in the scope of familiarity with the topic. It does not mean that background knowledge is completely useless, but it should be attached to other fields such as critical thinking skills in order to present a fine piece of writing. The learner has used alternative viewpoints in Case 3b. The sentence *the people will be reduced as the result of pollution*, is used to show that cars are dangerous for peoples' health since they produce gases which pollutes the air. The learner has related the two concepts in a smart way to convey the meaning in an appealing manner.

The principles of critical thinking had better effect on proficient learners since they were more cognitively ready and their better underlying linguistic system helped them get the most out of the feedbacks they received. For instance, proficient learners were ahead of the others (less-proficient learners) in using sentence connectors, forming counterarguments, providing conclusion, providing details, using persuasive devices, using imaginative tools, and categorizing information. This superiority may be the result of their higher sensitivity to feedback they received during the session in which some principles of critical thinking were taught. Since proficient learners can benefit more from the input they receive, the feedback had better effects on them.

V. CONCLUSION

In this study we tried to investigate the effects of critical thinking on improving learners' L2 writing skill. During the first phase of the study, learners were asked to write a composition about an unknown topic and then the writings were studied carefully. In the next phase, learners were explicitly taught some principles of critical thinking skills immediately after they have finished the first draft of their writings. Most of the learners had a considerable improvement both qualitatively and quantitatively. However, critical thinking principles were more useful for proficient students since they are cognitively much ahead of the others and this positive point helped them to be more sensitive to the input and feedback. Moreover, after teaching the principles of critical thinking, learners' composition enjoyed much more discipline and order. In general, critical thinking provided learners with three powerful tools which proved to be useful in improving L2 writing skill. These tools are:

- **Imaginative** (e.g., counterarguing, open-minded views)
- **Supportive** (e.g., giving examples, clarification of ideas)
- **Disciplinary** (e.g., clear main ideas, paragraph organization)

Besides critical thinking, in order to improve L2 writing skill, it is helpful to take into account the following recommendations which were driven from the results of this study:

- Learners should reflect on an issue or happening
- Learners should analyze their classmates' writings
- Learners should synthesize new and incomplete ideas and information
- Learners should take into account the reader when they write
- Teachers should explicitly explain the differences between critical thinking and thinking
- It is good to manage workshops in which learners can extend their thinking
- Learners should be taught to compare and contrast their thoughts with various perspectives

It should be mentioned that one cannot put all the responsibilities of better L2 writing skill on the shoulder of critical thinking. Writing is a skill which is related to many fields critical thinking is only one of them. However, through teaching the principles of critical thinking, learners are more likely to overcome some of the problems that they will encounter in the process of writing. As it was mentioned in this study, learners were able to organize their compositions after they were acquainted with critical thinking skills and their implications. Moreover, learners' compositions were much clearer and void of undue ambiguities in the second draft. There were some learners who came up with new insights. The effect of drafting itself should not be underestimated. The process of drafting may have some effect on the learners' compositions; however, the changes are more related to the principles of critical thinking.

Authorities and teachers can bring change to the teaching of L2 writing skill by integrating critical thinking skills into the writing system of a foreign language. Teachers also can help learners increase their insights so that they would be able to be judges of their own writings. To put it in a nutshell, teaching L2 writing can go further than considering the linguistic elements. Increasing learners' consciousness and higher-level thinking processes can improve learners' proficiency in dealing with writing and even with other aspects of L2 competence.

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On Graded English Teaching Models—A Case Study of Tianjin University of Technology*

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Abstract—Graded English Teaching Model is based on Krashen’s Input Hypothesis and Learner-centered Theory. Based on the two theories, Three-Division Model of Graded College English Teaching is put into practice in Tianjin University of Technology. The data shows that the Model has been well received by the students and the positive result has been achieved.

Index Terms—Graded English Teaching Model, Input Hypothesis, Learner-centered Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the enrollment of colleges and universities expanded in 1999, the number of the colleges students has increased greatly. In 2001, there were 11,000,000 students in China’s colleges and universities, but in 2005, the number has reached 23,000,000, which, especially, is considered to be a big challenge to the English teaching in colleges and universities of China. A statistic conducted by Foreign Languages Committee shows that the average size of the English class in colleges and universities is 50 students. In 2007, *College English Curriculum Requirements* was formally issued, which indicates college English education has entered into a new phase. Requirements points out that “As China is a large country with conditions that vary from region to region and from college to college, the teaching of college English should follow the principle of providing different guidances for different groups of students and instructing them in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific need of individualized teaching”.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. *The Theory of the Input Hypothesis*

The Input Hypothesis, advanced by Stephen Krashen, a famous American applied linguist, in the late 1970s and the early 1980s, is an all-round theory concerning second language acquisition. The theory provides a good theoretical framework for China’s foreign language teaching. The Input Hypothesis is the most important one of Krashen’s theories of second language acquisition. The input hypothesis attempts to explain how learners acquire a second language. In other words, this hypothesis is Krashen’s explanation of how second language acquisition takes place.

Krashen argues it is essential not to focus on explicit grammatical structures or learning activities but rather to occupy classroom time with acquisition tasks or activities. Therefore, the Input Hypothesis is only concerned with “acquisition”, not “learning”. Given the correctness of the Natural Order Hypothesis, how do acquirers move from one stage to another? More generally, how do acquirers move from stage “i”, where “i” represents current competence, to “i+1”, the next level? The Input Hypothesis makes the following claim: a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage “i” to stage “i+1” is that acquirers understanding input that contains “i+1”, where “understanding” means that acquirers focus on the meaning but not the form of the message. According to this hypothesis, acquirers improve and progress along the “natural order” when they receive second language “input” that is one step beyond their current stage of linguistic competence. How is this possible? This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information. That is, acquirers use more than their linguistic competence, context, knowledge about the world, extra-linguistic information, to help understand language that contains structures a bit beyond their current level of competence.

Furthermore, the Input Hypothesis says that input must contain “i+1” to be useful for language acquisition, but it need not contain only “i+1”. If acquirers understand the input, and there is enough of it, “i+1” will be provided. In other words, if communication is successful, “i+1” is provided automatically. This implies that the best input should not even attempt to deliberately aim at “i+1”. While the teaching syllabi try to deliberately cover “i+1”. Usually both teachers and learners feel the aim of the lesson is to teach or practice a specific grammatical item or structure. Once the structure is mastered, the syllabi proceed to the next one. On the basis of the Input Hypothesis such a deliberate attempt to provide “i+1” is not necessary.

The Input Hypothesis also states that acquirers must not be forced to produce early. Their production is not taught directly. That is, a certain amount of comprehensible input must be built up before acquirers start to produce their own

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structures. Acquisition will come when acquirers feel “ready”. For example, if an acquirer is at a stage “i”, then acquisition takes place when he/she is exposed to enough comprehensible input that belongs to level “i+1”.

The best methods are therefore those that supply “comprehensible input” in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are ‘ready’, recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production. (Krashen, 1985).

Krashen believes that by means of context and other extra-linguistic cues language acquisition is caused by acquirers’ understanding input “i+1” which is slightly beyond their current stage of knowledge “i”. Krashen defines “i+1” as comprehensible input which means that learners should be able to understand the essence of what is being said or presented to them. Comprehensible input is particularly beneficial in acquisition and production. It is crucial that acquirers receive the input that is comprehensible and challenging enough to lead to improve in linguistic competence. The main task of a teacher is to provide comprehensible input to the students as much as possible. When an acquirer is provided with comprehensible input, his/her LAD is activated and he/she acquires. Comprehensible input has four characteristics: (1) comprehensible; (2) interesting and relevant; (3) not grammatically sequenced; (4) sufficient “i+1”.

B. *Learner-centered Theory*

Learner-centered teaching is an approach to teaching that is increasingly being encouraged in higher education. Learner-centered teachers do not employ a single teaching method. This approach emphasizes a variety of different types of methods that shifts the role of the instructors from givers of information to facilitating student learning.

Traditionally instructors focused on what they did, and not on what the students are learning. This emphasis on what instructors do often leads to students who are passive learners and who did not take responsibility for their own learning. Educators call this traditional method, “instructor-centered teaching.” In contrast, “learner-centered teaching” occurs when instructors focus on student learning.

Educators commonly use three phrases with this approach. Learner-centered teaching places the emphasis on the person who is doing the learning (Weimer, 2002). Learning-centered teaching focuses on the process of learning. Both phrases appeal to faculty because these phrases identify their critical role of teaching in the learning process. The phrase student centered learning is also used, but some instructors do not like it because it appears to have a consumer focus, seems to encourage students to be more empowered, and appears to take the teacher out of the critical role (Blumberg, 2004).

III. RESEARCHES ON GRADED COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A few researches have been conducted to investigate the graded English teaching in China. Huang (2009), Wang (2008) and Qu (2007) study the major factors involved in this regard, such as class division, teaching methods and curriculum design. Huang (2009) surveys 26 universities and colleges in China about class division for graded teaching. The research shows that 2-level class division is adopted in 5 colleges and universities, 3-level class division in 16 and 4-division in 5. At the same time, each university carries out the graded English education according to its own evaluation and class division system. The survey also shows that students’ English marks for college entrance examinations are used for the measure of class division in 5 colleges and universities; a test is administered by 13 colleges and universities to test the students’ different language skills and divide them into different levels based; 8 colleges and universities adopt the combination of the two. Ming Anyun (2009) also focuses his research on class division of graded English teaching. In his research, he has put class division into four categories: 3-level class division.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. *Procedures of Graded Teaching*

To explore the feasible approaches and effect, we, School of Foreign Languages, Tianjin University of Technology, experimented with the teaching reform with graded teaching for Grade 2008, 2009. The concrete methods are as follows:

B. *Class Division*

We began to try graded teaching among the students of Grade 2008 and 2009. In this new teaching program, the freshmen of each Grade were divided into new classes with levels A, B, C according to their actual English scores upon entrance. 20—30% of the students with higher scores were graded into levels A to begin their study, which were supposed to attain the higher requirement and pass CET Band 4 at the end of the first year. The students with medium—level B (40—60%) and low—level C (20—30%) learn the courses according to the original teaching program to attain the general requirement in two years.

C. *Curriculum Design*

We made curriculum adjustment according to the new teaching program mainly for the students of classes A. When those students of classes A passed CET Band 4 in the first year, they were classified into advanced classes once again in

the second year and were provided with some practical courses like Advanced English, Practical Translation and Writing, Listening—Speaking course and English and American Culture, etc. These courses aimed to create a supportive environment to excite the students motivation so that they could exert their internal learning mechanisms to study actively and independently.

D. Promoting and Demoting Mechanism

At the end of each term all the students used a one—level test paper to participate in the final examination. 10% of the students of classes B or C could go on the more advanced classes to study respectively or vice versa, namely those students of classes A or B who failed to pass the examination would be descended to the lower classes. This kind of competitive mechanism urges all the students to study harder to meet the requirement of the course.

E. Benefits of Graded Teaching

Until now, we carried out graded teaching for three terms. The experiment showed that the mode of the graded teaching stimulated greatly students' initiatives and participation in study, and realized individualized learning and met the needs of students' different levels and learning styles. The teachers and students benefited from it. The nearly 70% the students with classes A passed when they took part in CET Band 4 by the end of the second term. Most of them not only mastered necessary linguistic knowledge but also learnt language practical application and improved expressing abilities in spoken and written English. The students with classes B or C played the solid foundation in linguistic basic knowledge. In a word, all the students made greater progress in it. In order to know the effect brought by graded teaching, after a year in December, 2010, we made an investigation which contains students' perspectives and benefit from graded teaching. The students investigated were selected from three different classes (A, B, C). We delivered 400 questionnaires and got back 370 effective ones. The result is as follows:

TABLE 1
THE STUDENTS' RESPONSE TO GRADED ENGLISH TEACHING

	Necessary	Partly Necessary	Not Necessary	Total
Number	301	34	35	370
Percentage	81.4%	9.2%	9.4%	100%

TABLE 2
THE STUDENTS' BENEFITS FROM GRADED ENGLISH TEACHING

	Very Beneficial	Beneficial	Not Beneficial	Total
Number	77	261	32	370
Percentage	20.8%	70.5%	8.7%	100%

Table 1 shows that students suited to his / her English level study all along. The students who considered graded teaching necessary took up 81.4% of the total number. Most of them took positive attitude towards graded teaching. The statistic of Table 2 shows that the students who benefited from graded teaching took up more than 90% of the total and not beneficial only 8.7%.

V. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis we can see the experiment of graded teaching in Tianjin University of Technology has achieved success. The mode of Graded Teaching also stimulates the students to take initiatives in their English study and improve their English level. At the same time, the students can exercise more choices to choose the textbooks tailoring to their needs than before. Graded teaching has become a wide scope in our college and gave an unparalleled advantage which displayed new vitality. It will produce the positive and profound effect on college English teaching reform.

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Analyzing the Unreliable Narrator: Repetition and Subjectivity in Raymond Carver's "What Do You Do in San Francisco?"*

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Abstract—The focus of this paper is on a further investigation into the growing area of research in the idea of unreliability in literary studies. The paper seeks to examine the issue of unreliability with reference to Raymond Carver's seminal short story "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" The first part of the paper provides an overview of the contrasted key theoretical investigations into the concept of unreliability, and in the second part, I have made an analysis of Carver's story by applying the ideas of unreliability, mainly A. Nünning's cognitive model. Even with the publication of Booth's (1961, [1983]), narrative element assumes the central significance in narratology. In recent times, many theorists have taken issue with Booth and have even denounced some of the fundamental ideas propounded by Booth. Taking into cognizance both sides of the arguments, my paper, besides discussing the notion of unreliability, attempts a detailed analysis of Carver's narrative. In essence, the paper highlights how the foregrounded language of the surface of the story contributes to the reader's suspicion of the reliability of the narrator, thus forcing him/her to scrutinize its depth in an attempt to fathom an ample meaning.

Index Terms—unreliability, cognitive analysis, stylistics, Raymond Carver, narratology

I. INTRODUCTION

Taking cue from Chenetier's (qtd. in Runyon, 1992) important observation on Carver's stories that "perpetually suggest that surfaces tend to have two sides and that the one we see is not the one that matters" (p. 7), I propose to investigate how such a technique has been employed by Carver. Although most critics have taken notice of this feature, none to my knowledge, has endeavored to present a thorough analysis of Carver's stories pointing to this element. This paper is an attempt to address this argument by analyzing one of Carver's most amazing short stories "What Do you Do in San Francisco?" Deploying A. Nünning's (1998) cognitive model of unreliable narration in the story, the paper shows that the narrator's unreliability can be determined by textual signals. The reader first detects the narrator's unreliability through the textual signals based on the surface of the narrative, and then s/he moves beyond the literal meaning of the text to dig out a meaning in its depth. Interpreting the story as an unreliable narrator allows the thematic meaning of the story to be easily identified.

II. UNRELIABILITY IN NARRATIVE

Since Wayne Booth's introduction of the concept of unreliable narrator in 1961, it has been one of the most hotly debated issues in narratology. The idea has led several recent studies to promote a critical re-examination of the traditional understanding of the unreliable narrator. For Booth, a narrator is "reliable when he speaks for or acts in accordance with the norms of the work (which is to say, the implied author's norms), unreliable when he does not" (p. 158-159). He observes further that the "narrator is often radically different from the implied author who creates him" (p. 152). In other words, a narrator is considered to be unreliable if his remarks and expressions convey perceptions and values that deviate from those of the implied author.¹ Accordingly, the notion of the unreliable narrator is seen as a "text-internal" issue between the "postulated narrator" and the implied author "(the author's 'second self')" (p. 151). Olson notes that "Booth's emphasis on the pleasures of exclusion suggests that the reader and implied author belong to

* A text world analysis for the short story, "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" was initially presented at the 2004 Poetics and Linguistics Association Conference in New York City. I am very grateful for comments and suggestions, I received on that talk from several specialists, to re-analyzed the story by using the theories of unreliability. Their suggestions have helped me to produce this paper. Also, I am especially grateful to professor Willie van Peer who always finds time to listen to my questions and for his reading and valuable comments.

¹ See Kindt and Müller (2006) for a thorough discussion of the notion of the implied author. The concept of "implied author" first appeared in Wayne C. Booth's *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (1961[1983]) as the "core of norms and choices" in any text (p. 74). The implied author is different from the narrator in that the implied author does not narrate events or dialogue, but instead is present through ideology. The principal idea behind suggesting an implied author as distinguishable from the real author is to accommodate a sense of an authorial presence within a given literary work without being assigned directly to the real author him/herself.

an in-group that shares values, judgments, and meanings from which the unreliable narrator is ousted" (p. 94). Although, Booth's definition of unreliable narrator remains the chief inspiration for narratologists, it went through further refinement and classification by a number of narratological scholars who mainly pay a considerable attention to the interrelationship between author, narrator and reader without achieving unanimous agreement (see Chatman, 1978, 1990; Cohn, 2000; Rimmon-kenan, 1983).

In recent times, several cognitive and literary theorists have raised issues with Booth's traditional definition of the unreliable narrator for its reliance on the implied author, e.g., Yacobi, Wall, Olson, Zerweek, Vera Nünning, Cohn and Hansen. Pioneer among them is Ansgar Nünning, a cognitive narratologist, who contests the rhetorical approach, suggesting that the technique of the unreliable narration can be reinterpreted within a cognitive approach. He criticizes Booth for his view of unreliable narrator as a matter of relationship between the implied author and the personified narrator which led to the exclusion of the reader's role in the perception of the concept of unreliability. Unreliability develops in the process of reception, depending on the reader's interpretive strategies. For that reason, he proposes to renounce the notion of the implied author for its inadequate definition in support of a "reader-oriented" approach (see A. Nünning, 2008, for more discussion). He also claims that critics who rely on the notion of the implied author to detect unreliability are those whose aims are to represent their own values onto texts (Olson, 2003, p. 79). Nünning supports his argument by a research conducted by Vera Nünning (2004) who takes the cultural context into consideration and proves that the historical variability of values and norms affects our perception of the concept of unreliability, for instance, *The Vicar of Wakefield's* narrator Primrose was interpreted as sympathetic and trustworthy by two centuries of readers, only to have his reliability questioned during recent decades" (ibid). V. Nünning's elucidation of the concept of unreliable narration is regarded as a fundamental change towards a wider view of discernment. This is because ignoring the cultural context or ahistorical interpretation of any text will do injustice to the complexity of the concept (V. Nünning, p. 238). In V. Nünning's words:

The historical variability of values and norms, therefore, centrally affects the evaluation of unreliable narration. Since the criteria for judging what counts as "common sense", "normal," or "good" differ from epoch to epoch as well as from culture to culture, critics from different times and cultures will evaluate the unreliability of narrators differently. (ibid)

In view of that, A. Nünning posits that unreliable narration should be (re)conceptualized within the context of frame theory "as an interpretive strategy or cognitive process of the sort that has come to be known as 'naturalization'" (qtd. in Zerweek, 2001, p. 151). In fact, A. Nünning adopted the notion of "naturalization" from Culler (1975) and Fludernik (1996) which the former explains, in such terms, that "naturalization processes are reading strategies which familiarize the unfamiliar, and they therefore reduce the unexpected to more manageable proportions, aligning it with the familiar" (1996, p. 34). When readers detect any obvious contradiction or discrepancies acted or narrated by a narrator, then they can relate such contradiction or discrepancies to their frames of experiences (p. 98). Olson further mentions that:

According to theories of "naturalization" (Culler; Fludernik, *Fictions* and *'Natural' Narratology*), readers relate what they read to ordinary human actions, motivations, and behavioral scripts. They impose their expectations about how texts should work and how people tell stories onto the text in order to make sense of it. A part of this process of fitting the text into one's worldview is identifying the narrator (if there is a clearly identifiable one) and deciding what sort of person that narrator is on the basis of one's referential frames. (2003, p. 98)

In A. Nünning's vision, unreliable narrators are not to be comprehended "as a structural nor as a semantic aspect of the textbase alone, but only by taking into account the conceptual frameworks that readers bring for the text" (qtd. in Hansen, 2007, p. 228). In the current age of increasingly rapid movements towards cognitive sphere of influence, A. Nünning's cognitive re-conceptualization of the notion of unreliable narrator represents a radical shift.

In order to simplify his interpretive strategy of how to detect unreliable narration, A. Nünning suggests a detailed list of textual signals: (1) the narrator's explicit contradictions and other discrepancies in the narrative discourse; (2) discrepancies between the narrator's statements and actions; (3) divergences between the narrator's description of herself and other characters' descriptions of her; (4) contradictions between the narrator's explicit comments on other characters and her implicit characterization of herself or the narrator's involuntary exposure of herself; (5) contradictions between the narrator's account of events and her explanations and interpretations of the same, as well as contradictions between the story and discourse; (6) other characters' corrective verbal remarks or body signals; (7) multiperspectival arrangements of events and contrasts between various versions of the same events; (8) an accumulation of remarks relating to the self as well as linguistic signals denoting expressiveness and subjectivity; (9) an accumulation of direct addresses to the reader and conscious attempts to direct the reader's sympathy; (10) syntactic signals denoting the narrator's high level of emotional involvement, including exclamations, ellipses, repetitions, etc.; (11) explicit, self-referential, metanarrative discussions of the narrator's believability; (12) an admitted lack of reliability, memory gaps, and comments on cognitive limitations; (13) a confessed or situation-related prejudice and (14) paratextual signals, such as titles, subtitles, and prefaces (adapted from Olson, 2003, p. 97-98). However, although the theory of unreliable narration has undergone a paradigm shift towards cognitive domain, it does not escape criticism either because A. Nünning "exaggerates his difference with Booth, since the norms of the implied author are of course also arrived at through an interpretation of textual data" (D'hoker, 2008, p. 465) (see also Olson, p. 105 and Cohn, 2000, p. 307). By and large, A. Nünning's and V. Nünning's hermeneutical study of unreliable narration produces a promising package for

a reliable analysis as it opens a world of interpretive possibility by showing us how unreliability meaning functions within a larger reading community.

Irony is also targeted within the concept of unreliable narration. Irony is a rhetorical device, in which there is a discordance between saying and doing. In *A Rhetoric of Irony*, Booth (1974) posits that unreliable narrator is "the butt of the ironic point" (p. 304). He proposes four steps through which a reader can elicit irony in any fictional text and hence measure out the possible existence of unreliability:

1. Reader has to reject the literal meaning, identifying a disagreement between what he reads and what he knows.
2. Reader has to try out alternative interpretations or explanations.
3. Reader makes a decision about the author's knowledge or beliefs.
4. Reader chooses a new meaning or cluster of meaning with which a reader can rest secure. (p. 11-12)

If a reader recognizes striking discrepancies between the narrator's values and those noticeable in the fictional text as a whole, then the narrator will be received as unreliable, taking him to be the focus of the text's irony. On the other hand, if the narrator is viewed as "egotistical know-it-all" who turns out to be the "butt of the joke" in his own story, then the reliability will be questionable (V. Nünning, 2004, p. 239). Olson notes that those who make sense of irony and elicit unreliability "share the insider joke and enjoy having survived the initiation ritual the text appears to require" (2003, p. 94-95). Whereas, A. Nünning claims that "unreliable narration can be explained in terms of dramatic irony because it involves a contrast between a narrator's view of the fictional world and the contrary state of affairs which the reader can grasp" (qtd. in D'hoker, 2007, p. 466). In fact, my analysis of Carver's story "What do You do in San Francisco?" will deploy A. Nünning's cognitive model which is basically a reader-oriented approach along with his constructive list of the textual signals as the main strategies for detecting the unreliability of the story's first person narrator.

III. RAYMOND CARVER

Carver is often acknowledged as the most influential American short story writer after Ernest Hemingway. Many critics, including Campbell, Chenetier, Facknitz, Henning, Meyer, Runyon, Saltzman, among others, have paid significant attention to Carver's surface style and structure asserting that the surface of every story tends to have two sides of meaning: one, on the surface which looks calm and ordinary, and the other, beneath the lines. Nevertheless, these critics fail to address how a reader can distinguish between these two sides of any given story or to explain the implicit involvement of any specific rhetorical indicators which could mark out Carver's technique. This is, perhaps, because these critics have failed to notice the issue of foregrounding (conveyed in various forms of regular patterns of pragmatic or linguistic choices, prominence and repetition) which can be seen as one of the most consistent elements in Carver's style that could assist the reader in making a distinction between the two surfaces of any given story. Another issue that those critics have overlooked is the concept of (un)reliable narration.

IV. NARRATORIAL UNRELIABILITY IN "WHAT DO YOU DO IN SAN FRANCISCO?"

By taking one of Carver's most interesting short stories "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" as a case study, the paper attempts to show how right from the beginning of the story, the reliability of the narrator is thrust into question. Additionally, it will be shown, how, at a certain point when regular repetition of many parts of the main narrative begins to be visible, my initial understanding of the main narrative of the story comes out to be evidently suspicious. Hence, unavoidable questions have been raised, namely, how far the narrator can be trusted upon? What is implication of this foregrounded narrative? And how does answering these two questions can reveal the thematic meaning of this rather short story?

The story "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" is basically narrated by a first person narrator, a post mail worker, who is recalling a flashback story of a young couple who moved to his neighborhood. The events of the story are presented in the past tense with some shifts to the present tense. As the narrative develops, more filtering of setting information is provided. Gradually, we receive more detailed accounts of the place where the characters live, the location of the small town, its people and its surrounding and the life style of the young couple.

The narrative of "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" is peculiar, initially, on account of its opening paragraph and the account of the story as a whole. The narrator, with a definite tone, begins his story by discharging himself from any responsibility for what he is about to narrate:

This has nothing to do with me. It's about a young couple with three children who moved into a house on my route the first of last summer. I got to thinking about them again when I picked up last Sunday's newspaper and found a picture of a young man who'd been arrested down insane Francisco for killing his wife and her boyfriend with a baseball bat [...] (Carver, 1993, p. 82, emphasis added)

Yet, right from the second paragraph, the narrator contradicts himself and begins introducing himself in a fairly long paragraph:

Henry Robinson is the name. I'm a postman, a federal civil servant, and have been since 1947. I've lived in the West all my life, except for a three-year stint in the Army during the war. I've been divorced twenty years, have two children I haven't seen in almost that long. I'm not a frivolous man, nor am I, in my opinion, a serious man. It's my belief a man

has to be a little of both these days. I believe, too, in the value of work-the harder the better. A man who isn't working has got too much time on his hands, too much time to dwell on himself and his problems. (ibid. emphasis added)

This passage stands out from the rest of the story and appears as a surprising twist. The conspicuous contradictory shift between his statements (his claim of non- involvement in the story he is about to recall in the first paragraph and his self-portrait in the second paragraph) invites doubt worth commenting upon. Right from the very outset of the narration, the narrative discourses between these two opening paragraphs are in conflict and include a sign of a sneaking suspicion of the reliability of the narrator. Although one may say that this intuitive description of himself might seem quite innocent, it can arguably render the narrator suspect, and it can also be received as the first inkling of the narrator's mentality. Another salient feature anticipated from these two paragraphs is the utilization of the present tense structure, normally called the historical present tense.² The narrator skillfully employs the present tense to bring in a vividness and a continuation to the present moment so that the reader will be drawn in to relive the immediacy of the narrator's narrative. Also it appears that the present tense structure is used here to put an emphasis on the preliminary parts of the narrative where the narrator wants his reader to be more focused. In the first paragraph, for instance, he wants to highlight his detachment, "this has nothing to do with me", whereas in the second paragraph, he tries to show up his identity as well as his values and beliefs (see italicized sentences). Although, the narrator's acclaimed values could unsurprisingly be true when related to real life, they come out with some reservation as to how his statement can be taken as a reliable declaration or as conveying a hidden message. This is because straight from the third paragraph the narrator strikes our attention again when he summarizes his conclusion about the events he is to narrate; the woman is undoubtedly held accountable for the trouble happening to the whole family:

I'm convinced that was partly the trouble with the young man who lived here – his not working. But I'd lay that at her doorstep, too. The woman. She encouraged it. (p. 82)

Before adding more speculation about the unreliability of the narrator, let us move to the narrator's story of the young couple. When Lee Marston and his wife, "beatnik" painters, arrive, in Arcata, at a house on the narrator's route, the narrator begins to puzzle over their life style. He repeatedly tries to get the family to change their name on the mail box; he feels uncomfortable whenever he is around the woman; the family never does unload the U-Haul trailer; the three children roam freely because of their neglected mother and rumors percolate through the community about the man being a criminal on the lam and the wife a dope addict. However, after a thorough reading of the story, I will show, in the following section, how the narrator, on the one hand, uses a number of rhetorical techniques to present his story, on the other, how these rhetorical strategies bring the narrator's account into focus and thus provide extra-textual signs to confirm his unreliability as narrator.

The readers are directly addressed a number of times throughout the narration through the pronominal shifts "you". The narrator is cautiously drawing the readers in as a strategy to actively make them into more of participants thereby securing their sympathy and support. Here are a few examples:

Beatniks, I guess you'd have called them if you'd seen them (p. 82)

You hear rumors (p. 85)

You hate to see something like that (p. 86)

You'd ever really get used to (p. 87)

A. Nünning argues that the technique of "an accumulation of direct addresses to the reader and conscious attempts to direct the reader's sympathy" signals out the narrator as unreliable. Furthermore, five portions of this rather short story emerge to be foregrounded through repetition. Such repetition comes, in fact, through repeating five key words, distributed throughout the narration, i.e. "work", "the woman/she", "the kids", "the man/he" and "the name". These repetitions seem to generate meaning and suggest interpretive possibilities that have link to the thematic meaning. Let us now look at the five portions respectively (the key words are in italics for emphasis):

[1]- The foregrounded narrative of the narrator's judgmental view of "work". Notice, the word "job" is repeated twice.

the value of *work* – the harder the better. A man who isn't *working* has got too much time on his hands, too much time to dwell on himself and his problems (p. 82)

his not *working* (p. 82)

she encouraged *it (work)* (p. 82, emphasis added)

neither of them *worked* (p. 82)

if you're looking for a *job* (p. 82)

"he's not looking for a *job*" she put it (p. 82)

who live here *work* either in the lumber mills or have something to do with the fishing industry, or else *work* in one of the downtown stores (p. 83)

men who don't *worked* (p. 83)

he was going to *work* in Eureka (p. 85)

if he'd just go to *work* now (p. 86)

they surely didn't come looking for *work* (p. 86)

² For an elaborate discussion on the historical present tense, see Nessa Wolfson 1987, 1979.

why don't you go to *work* and forget her? (p. 88)

what have you got against work? (p. 88)

It was *work* day and night, *work* that gave me oblivion (p. 88)

It's all *work*, one way or the other, and I'm always glad to have *it* (p. 89)

[2]- The foregrounded narrative of the narrator's obscure attitude towards "the woman/she".

she encouraged it (p. 82)

she wasn't a good wife and mother (p. 82)

I always found myself feeling awkward the few times I was around this *woman* (p. 83)

but *she* stood there with *her* arms crossed, cool as a cucumber (p. 84)

the *woman* was a dope addict (p. 85)

the husband had brought her up here to help her get rid of the habit (p. 85)

there was something funny about them – the *woman*, particular (p. 85)

Sallie was still talking and start to work on *her* painting as if Sallie wasn't there (p. 85)

she'd be fondling and kissing the kids, the suddenly start screeching at them for no apparent reason (p. 85)

one time only I had anything to do with the *woman* direct (p. 86)

she'd taken off the week before with somebody (p. 87)

I called out, *she*'s no good, boy, I could tell that the minute I saw *her* (p. 88)

[3]- The foregrounded narrative of the ill behavior of "the kids".

It's about a young couple with three *children* (p. 82)

I've been divorced twenty years, have two *children* (p. 82)

The *kids* picked that moment to come flying out the front door, yelling and tearing for the end of the porch (p. 84)

There were three *kids* (p. 84)

the *kids* were carrying little sticks and hammering on the sides of the trailer (p. 84)

also the way *she*'d be fondling and kissing the *kids* (p. 85)

but the *kids* were always there, running in and out of the house (p. 86)

then I noticed the *kids* playing with it (the hose) over in the field (p. 86)

after a few days he'd taken the *kids* to his mother's over to a Redding (p. 87)

[4]- The foregrounded narrative of the inactive role of "the man/he".

trouble with the young *man* who lived here- his not working (p. 82)

the young *man*, I don't know what he did (p. 82)

Marston was his name (p. 83)

I thought *Marston* was going to jump out of his skin (p. 84)

He didn't look good at all (p. 84)

It did surprise me to see *he* still hadn't unloaded it (p. 84)

I saw *him* out in the yard again and reminded *him* about changing the name on the box (p. 85)

He never did change the name on the box (p. 85)

But *he* never did change the name on the box (p. 85)

He was ex-con on parole (p. 85)

Another story was that *he* had committed a crime and was hiding out here (p. 85)

None of the kids belonged to *him* (p. 85)

He'd taken the kids to his mother (p. 87)

He was out there at the box every day waiting for me to hand over the mail (p. 87)

He was sitting on the porch steps smoking cigarette, waiting (p. 87)

He was suffering, though – anyone could see that (p. 87)

I was *him* walking up and down (p. 87)

Next day *he* was out there same as always (p. 88)

He didn't wait outside for me any more (p. 88)

The last time I saw *him* *he* was standing at the window calm and rested (p. 88)

The next day *he* was gone (p. 89)

[5]- The foregrounded narrative of the "the name". Here in this part the narrator repeatedly tries to ask the man to paint his "name" on the mailbox:

'you might want to change the *name* on the box.' (p. 84)

on Thursday I saw him out in the yard again and reminded him about the *name* on the box. (p. 84)

he never did change the *name* on the box (p. 85)

I'll have to change the *name* on that box one of these days. (p. 85)

I'll get myself a can of paint and just paint over that other *name* (p. 85)

But he never did change the *name* on the box, and after a time I shrugged and forget about *it*. (p. 85)

Astonishingly, a close scrutiny of these foregrounded narratives reveals unpredictable account of events which creates a sense of irony. Labov (1972) argues that repetition in narrative is effective in two senses "it intensifies a particular action, and it suspends the action" (p. 379). The rhetorical effect of the irregular repetition seems to

foreground five different perspectives of the narrator; the hypercritical attitude towards the position of the couple as being out of work, the antagonistic attitude towards the woman, the inconsequential outlook on the behavior of the children, the repetitive reminder of changing their name on the mailbox and the intrusive outlook on the passive role of the man. The cumulative effect of the five foregrounded accounts, arguably, produced a meaning behind the surface meaning of the narration that needs to be examined for it contributes to the general interpretation. The reader who follows the preceding analysis this far will surely discern that there must be a hidden implication behind this foregrounded narrative. Short (1996) points out that:

in language, the background is what is linguistically normal – the rules, norms and expectations which we associate with a particular kind of speaking or writing; the foreground is, in large part, the portions of text or talk which do not conform to these expectations. (p. 12)

Miall and Kuiken explain that when certain words or passages in the text attract the attention of the readers and heighten their feelings, they tend to give more focus on them. This is in order to consult their feeling in an attempt to reach an appropriate interpretation (1994a, p. 337). Johnstone et al. (1994) claim that:

It makes sense to suppose that when you say the same thing again, the referential meaning stays the same. But something other than the referential meaning has changed. As an element is repeated, a history for it is created; as the context within which elements are used changes, their meaning changes. (p.12)

Also, Johnstone et al. argue that repetition creates a cognitive effect (p. 12), making it easy for the readers to work out their minds to assimilate information. If we look back at the five repeated key words within their context, it can be easily observed that the “referential meanings” of these words remain the same about “work”, “woman”, “the man”, “name” and “kids”. Although the context within which those words are used is slightly modified yet it still carries the same meaning. Hence, such repetition may appear to support the ongoing criticism that Carver deals with his characters ironically. Nesset (1995) states that Carver’s characters, from the earlier to the last one, are those who are classified as unhappily estranged, out of work, disillusioned by meaningless jobs and meaningless marriages; they suffer in various degrees from alcoholism as well as bad luck and bad timing, battered by a world which typically leaves them inert and speechless on the wake of longings and fears they cannot begin to identify. (p. 2)

Carver, on the other hand, denies such criticism by saying:

I’m not talking down to my characters, or holding them up for ridicule, or slyly doing an end run around them. I’m much more interested in my characters, in the people in my story, than I am in any potential reader. I’m uncomfortable with irony if it’s at the expense of someone else, if it hurts the characters. (qtd. in Gentry & Stull, 1990, p. 185)

If this is indeed the case, then what is the function of repetition in the story under test? The repetition is presented as a series of accumulated words rematerialized with the same characteristics and with the same sustained tone throughout. Apart from the fact that repetition brings some kind of cohesion into the text, it also brings the foregrounded account of the narrator into focus keeping the reader in a state of being repeatedly informed about the same entity. It restricts the readers’ attention to receive at almost the rate the narrator is intending to convey; the outcome is a production of daily-connected events resulting from a few repeated words carrying roughly the same perspectives (see Tannen, 1987a) for a fuller discussion on similar issues). Runyon explains that Carver’s style:

Seemed to say so little but somehow suggest so much. As Susan Lohafer (1992) explains ‘while it might seem that we could be bored by Carver’s lean style [...] we are in fact kept alert by having to look through the interstices for the meaning- and by being rewarded for doing so’. (p. 1)

The descriptions made by the narrator are presented through a certain angle. Scanning throughout the main narrative and concentrating on the emphasis of the narrator on the value of having work and contrasting this with the nature of his actual job, one can realize that there is a sense of contradiction between the two statements. Noticeably, from the events of the story, the narrator has a lot of free time on his hands that allows him to interfere in the couple’s life and keep spying on them daily. This is, maybe, because of his simple work as a postman delivering letters in a small community. Moreover, it can be detected that the narrator is exaggerating about his unexplained attitude towards the woman in emphasizing that she is a negligent and uncaring mother. There is a lack of alignment between reality and the narrator’s obsession for criticizing the woman. This is due to the fact that, when comparing the behavior of the woman’s children with any other children’s behavior, perceptibly such behavior could be normal among all children, especially when there is more than one. It is another way of expressing his aversion to the woman. A. Nünning suggests that “syntactic signals denoting the narrator’s high level of emotional involvement, including exclamations, ellipses, repetitions, etc.” challenge the credibility of the narrator. To surmise, the narrator’s account of the events sounds to be distorted, projecting textual signs of the critical position of the narrator who is ultimately materialized as unreliable.

As the recall goes on, the narrator attempts to capture the definite voice of a more subjective mode of presentation, through the predominant deployment of direct speech and the occasional use of free direct speech, in all his face-to-face encounters with the young couple (see Banfield, 1982, on discussion of subjectivity and speech presentation). This subjectivity increases when he further presents the proclaimed “rumors” about the couple:

You hear Rumors [...] He just didn’t look the sort who’d do something really *criminal* [...] The woman was a dope addict, so this story went, and the husband had brought her up here to help her get rid of the habit [...] Sallie Wilson from the welcome wagon. She dropped in on them one afternoon and said later that, no lie, there was something funny

about them – the woman, particular [...] Well, just the way her *eyes* looked if you came up close to her, Sallie said. (Author emphasis p. 85-86)

When a piece of narrative is displayed subjectively through the eye of its first person, all events, beliefs and perceptions are cautiously filtered through his/her idiosyncrasies. The narrator uses subjective narration to separate himself from the community as a whole and describes the rumors from his position as an ordinary hearer. Likewise, the narrator holds controversial values and concepts, forcing the reader (whom he directly and repeatedly addresses) to take part in his narrative and challenge and test his own perspectives. The narrator distances himself from the first-person narrator and alludes to the subjectivity in order to drag the prospective reader "you" (whom he repeatedly addresses directly) to take part in his narrative. From this vantage point, the narrator uses the thoughts of other characters as a lens in order to receive and interpret events. The narrator holds controversial values and concepts, forcing the reader to challenge and test his own perspectives. The events of these rumors are pieced together and presented as a speculation which helps to realize a clear insight into the narrator's motivation. Apparently, these rumors mirror closely his own perception of the contrasting pictures of young couple, the man as being good-for-nothing as well as victim and the woman as being a negligent mother. In other words, such rumors add nothing except reinforcing his ongoing conception about the couple. For instance, taking a quick look at the account of the rumors, inconsistencies appear overtly. The rumor associated with the woman being a dope addict, and her husband bringing her to help her get rid of the habit is in direct contradiction to his constant criticism against them for being out of work. Although the narrator tries to isolate himself from such rumors, the whole account represents his biased contention and accusations, conveying his negative position against the young couple. Readers can make sense of the assorted contradiction pertaining to the fact that he is seen through many different ways of fallible and subjective perspectives. What is interesting in this analysis is that it projects a further set of signs of his narratorial unreliability, as explained by A. Nünning in these words "an accumulation of remarks relating to the self as well as linguistic signals denoting expressiveness and subjectivity" are an indication of unreliable narration.

Generally speaking, the reliability of the narrator's story about the couple is unsteady because what might be argued here is that the narrator seems to have gone through hard experiences and usually has been changed by them. It seems to me that the narrator is trying by all means to portray obliquely his failure in his life by presenting the life of this couple from his own perspective and through repeating their faults. In other words, he seems to be taking this couple as a scenario in attempting to reveal his own life story. Let us look back again at the paragraph where the narrator presents his identity, and also take into account his incongruities about his conception of the value of work in a man's life as discussed above; we can observe that there is a lot of resemblance between the narrator's life and the life of the couple, particularly, in relation to broken faith in the marriage life. To put it differently, within his apparent inconsistencies, he tries to mask certain feelings concerning his past life for there is a clash between what he narrates and the interpretation that he offers us to consider.

However, though the inferences I have made to fill in further information from my general knowledge and experience seem to be convincing, another theoretical issue is raised, that is, the issue of point of view. From an analytic point of view if my conclusion that the narrative seems to be self-focused, then interestingly it belies the first sentence of the story where the narrator declares: "This has nothing to do with me". This observation tends to be disenchanting hence worth some analysis. Lyons (1977) argues that:

the demonstrative 'this' and 'that' 'include a number of subjective facts (such as the speaker's dissociation of himself from the event he is referring to) which are non-proximity, but are difficult to specify precisely. (p. 668)

Toolan (1995), on the other hand, explains that:

the narrators of Carver's acclaimed and allegedly 'minimalist' fiction: characters' values and preoccupations and kinds of hurt are not declared directly in what they say and do, but only indirectly, via what is presupposed by what they say and do. (p. 133)

Toolan's prediction is accurate enough to support my argument that what is involved here is more than just a simple story about a young couple, rather it is the life story of the narrator himself. What is more, "contractions between the narrator's explicit comments on other characters and her implicit characterization of herself" (A. Nünning) cast shadow over the narrator's reliability.

Based on the critical observation I have discussed so far, I can assert that in order to produce a fruitful analysis for such an intractable text that is crammed with different sorts of stylistic features, a reader, from my point of view, should be familiar with a choice of stylistic analytical tools and be able to apply them in the textual analysis of the text. The first of which is, as discussed above, the awareness of the concept of the narratorial unreliability which enables us to obtain insights into the subtleties of the incongruities and peculiarities deployed in the main narrative, and the second of which is exploring how repetition works in the text and what kind of effects it produces.

V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, this paper critically re-examines Carver's short story "What Do You Do in San Francisco?" It has been argued that to provide a better account of understanding Carver's text is to account for the affective stylistic means used by Carver. The outcome of the analysis gives an outlook on how the repetition of the five portions of the narrative, through five key words, and the utilized rhetorical strategies, stand out from their surrounding and bring the narrator's

world into focus, evoking a world behind the surface world of the narration that needs to be explored comparatively as it offers an alternative way of examining the story. Furthermore, this paper has shown how using A. Nünning's theory of detecting unreliability provides the reader with signs about the existence of the manifold textual inconsistencies and contradictions which emerge noticeably on the surface of the story, leading the readers to work out an alternative meaning within its depth. After all, this study remains relatively under-researched but it provides a promising area of further research.

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Deixis Category as Favorable Syllabus Materials —A Critical Study in Sudan Practical Integrated National English

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Abstract—Having synthesized many findings of studies that have recently been conducted on Sudan Practical Integrated National English (SPINE); having tried to move linguistic pragmatics to the area of applied linguistics, the researcher found that these studies' findings have unanimously attributed SPINE problems only to typing errors and the use of Sudanese culture to teach English language. By comparing random selected materials from both SPINE the current syllabus and the READERS an earlier English syllabus, the researcher attempts in this paper to provide general framework of using deixis as a pragmatic inference as a helpful item in deciding and revitalizing the syllabus materials writing process which is considered as the most important stage of curriculum development. Considerable number of studies in syllabus design have viewed language learning through the 'subject' or knowledge offered by the given materials, how these materials account for ways in which teachers and learners interact with each other, how materials develop problem-solving abilities, and to what extent materials can transmit to the learners attitudes and values presented in the syllabus texts . The present study, however, investigated four aspects in both the aforementioned syllabi. Those are the number of paragraphs in each syllabus, the mechanism of sentence functional perspective, error and mistakes, and the structuring of deixis category in the two mentioned syllabi. The study has arrived at that it would be possible for English language syllabus designers in general to predict, and for SPINE designer in particular to have predicted proximate guides of what the EFL students will learn if the mentioned areas are seriously considered.

Index Terms—deixis, materials, curriculum development

I. INTRODUCTION

Deixis in English is represented by person pronouns, demonstratives, tense, specific time and place adverbs like 'now', 'here', and other features of grammar held tightly to the circumstances of utterance. Deixis or 'indexical expressions' lie within the border of pragmatics and semantics. To put it another way, 'pragmatics' main function is to catch the evasive meaning of language which cannot be traced in a truth – conditional semantics as pointed out by (Levinson, 1983, P. 58) in following examples:

- 1/ John Henry Mc Cavity are six feet tall and weigh 200 pounds.
- 2/ John Henry Mc Cavity are six feet tall.
- 3/ I am six feet tall and weigh 200 pounds.
- 4/ I am six feet tall.

It is clear from the above examples that if (2) and (4) are valid inferences from (1) and (3) they must be said by the same speaker, that is to say the speaker who describes 'John' and the speaker 'I'.

Here (Levinson, 1983) relates 'logic' to contexts of utterance. Because sentences as indicated by (Francis & Dinesen 1967, P 360) always underlie different propositions on different occasions. Levinson (1983) also indicates that the reference in the above sentences will be valid only if the speaker index and the time index are tied together.

It becomes clear from this approach that sentences in their abstract can be glossed as vague and meaningless, and do not express specific propositions at all. There are only utterances in specific contexts that negotiate definite states of affairs. One of the aspects by which Levinson draws a clear cut boundary between sociolinguistics and pragmatics is the category of social deixis. To put it another way he restricts this category of deixis to the study of facts that lie in the scope of structural studies of linguistic systems. He also shows that it disambiguates the social identities and the relation between participants. He adds that such following examples can be true only if they are indeed identical to the individual who is the mother of Napoleon and false otherwise.

- 1/ I am a mother of Napoleon.
- 2/ Eliza de Rambling was the mother of Napoleon.
- 3/ you are the mother of Napoleon.

II. A BRIEF REVIEW LITERATURE

Making use of a philosophically oriented deixis, the writer of this paper conceives a pedagogically oriented aspect of deixis whose potential meaning could help reconcile between what is called the structural syllabus and the notional syllabus. Potential meaning defined by Holliday, quoted in (Widdowson, 1979, P.249), as that the form itself contributes to the meaning process. Here, it is better to pedagogically perceived (Ariel's, 2008, P.343) three forces behind grammar, namely, cognition, socio-cultural norms and pragmatic inferences. It is also important to pedagogically contemplate (Cooren's, 2010) logic of configuration that is as he mentioned can be found in any type of interaction, a debate, a dialogue, a conversation, etc. He mentioned that arguing for or against something consists of implicitly staging figures that are supposed to support the position one is putting forward regarding specific topic. He shows that those figures can be facts, principles, persons, traditions, institutions, expertise, knowledge, documents etc and interactants in a given conversation usually animate or ventriloqualize those figures explicitly or implicitly. Here it better also to mention (Mustafa's, 2011, P. 68) conceptualization of presupposition inference and how it motivates language users to fit in their ideas in order to extend and adjust the discourse the interlocutors are in. It can be said that both Cooren's mentioned figures and Mustafa's notion of presupposition as a mechanism that generates and extends the discourse by relatively bringing the necessary support may include the notion of deixis categories and they should fully be regarded in the selection of syllabus writing of materials. The paper also makes use of (Kaplan's, 1989) two sorts of indexical which are 'character' (or linguistic meaning), and 'content'. Using these two conceptions in teaching process, teachers could easily help their students differentiate between for example the word 'I' in the sentence 'I am a female' knowing that it has a single character (or linguistic meaning), but it may also have different contents in different contexts.

A. *Person Deixis*

It looks for the encoding of the role of participants or pronouns and their associated predicate agreements in the speech event. That is speaker's reference to himself (first person), speaker's reference to one or more addressees (second person); and the encoding of reference to persons and entities which are neither speakers nor addressees of the utterance in question (third person). Levinson (1983) symbolizes for first person (+s) which means speaker's inclusion; and for second person (+A), which indicates addressee's inclusion. And for third person (-S, -A) which means speaker's and addressee's exclusion since this third type does not refer to any participant role in the speech event. For example the pronoun 'we' has a potential for ambiguity i.e. between exclusive 'we' which (excludes the hearer) and the hearer-including (inclusive) 'we'. He further states that deictic usage of this centre appears in pronouns, vocatives and greetings. But although pronouns are commonly used not deictically, there are some natural uses which cannot easily be captured. Example of that is provided by (Fillmore, 1971) of the editorial 'we' of the New Yorker. That is although it takes plural verb agreements (thus we are not we am), it appears in the proceeding text of the same editorial with reflexive singularity in phrases like 'for oneself'. Another example is provided by Levinson of the hostess who announces in an air – flight something like the following:

- You are to fasten your seat-belts:

He indicates that in order for someone to understand such utterance, there must be a distinction of speaker from source of information, and the addressee from the target. Levinson further shows that person role is marked in many ways. He shows that title and proper names often come in two sets. One is used in address as vocative in second person usage. Example of this is the following:

- Hey you, you just scratched my car with your Frisbee:

And the other way is used in reference (i. e referring to individuals in third person role). Example of this type is the following.

- The truth is, Madam, nothing is as good nowadays.

He also provides an example of proper names in a situation of a mother who says to the father in the presence of the little Billie something like the following.

- Can Billie have an ice-cream Daddy?

In the above example, he notes that there must be clear-cut distinction between addressee and hearer. He further states that where face to face is lost e.g. 'I am Joe Blogs, language instead tends to introduce itself e. g. in a phone conversation 'this is Joe Blogs.

B. *Time Deixis*

Time deixis encodes point and spans relative to the time at which an utterance is spoken. An essential point to be mentioned here is (Fillmore's, 1975) classification of time into coding time 'CT' (the time at which the speaker produces in his/her utterance). And receiving time 'RT' of the addressee to the particular code or message. It is important to note that time deixis is central for texts to be meaningful since 'language always wears its time'. Therefore, the word 'now', for example, can be glossed as the time at which the speaker is producing the utterance containing it that is the notion of Coding Time 'CT'. Time deixis can also interact with cultural measurements of time in non deictic way. For instance 'today' can be considered as 'the diurnal span including CT, Yesterday', however, can be conceived as 'the diurnal span preceding the diurnal span that includes CT (Levinson, 1983, P. 75).

He proceeds to show that in the application of 'next' to cylindrical names of days an ambiguity may arise. For instance 'next Thursday', can either be referred to as the Thursday of the week that succeeds the week that includes 'CT', or that Thursday that first follows the 'CT'.

Complexities also may arise in this deictic centre of time in the usages of tense, time adverbs, and other time deictic morphemes. For instance (Levinson, 1983) states that in letter writing, or pre-recording of media programmed that a decision has to be made of the time, whether Coding Time 'CT', or receiving one (to be projected in the addressee RT). (Fillmore's, 1975) examples illustrate this phenomenon.

- This programmed is being recorded today --Wednesday April 1 s t, to be relayed next Thursday.
- This programmed was recorded last Wednesday April 1 s t, to be relayed today.

As noted above, deictic time adverbs like 'now', 'then', 'soon', 'recently' so on, can be conceived pragmatically by the given span including CT. (Harris, 2005) shows how temporal adverbs help support students' memory and reduce tense shifting. Harris' experiment shows that 45% of the sentences given to the tested students were recalled with shifts in the verb tense and this shift appeared to be due to lack of temporal adverbs. Harris' study concludes that verb tenses either the present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect tenses are relatively meaningless without a temporal deictic context. This time span as indicated by (Levinson, 1983) may be the instance associated with the production of the morpheme itself as in the gestural usage in (1) or perhaps in the interminable period indicated in (2).

1/ Pull the Trigger now. 2/ I' m now working on a ph. D

C. Place Deixis

Place deixis is concerned with the encoding of spatial locations relative to the location of the participants in the speech event. Examples of this proximal deictic place and distal one can be conceived in demonstratives 'this' and 'that' and deictic adverbs 'here' and 'there'. This category of deixis always incorporates a covert time deixis element, while the converse is not true (Levinson, 1989, P. 58). Places as physical entities can deictically be identified in relation to the location of the participants at the time of speaking as in the following examples.

- It's two hundred yards away.
- Kabul is four hundred miles west of here.

D. Discourse Deixis

Discourse (or text) deixis primarily concerns the expressions within some utterance to refer to some portion of the discourse that contains that utterance. Therefore, discourse deixis has a sense of reference being anchored to its location of the current utterance. For instance utterance initial 'anyway' seems to indicate that the utterance which contains it is not addressed to the immediate preceding discourse, but to one or more steps back (Levinson 1989, P. 85) Levinson also made a clear-cut distinction between discourse deixis and what is called 'anaphora'. He relates a pronoun in the former to a linguistic expression (or chunk of discourse). Anaphoric expressions always relate the pronoun of the same entity as a prior linguistic expression. Older rhetoricians divide discourse in four types indicated by (Davidson, 1964, P.39) as exposition, description, narration, and argument. (Levinson, 1983) assumes that utterance initial usages of 'but', 'therefore', 'in conclusion', 'to the contrary', 'still', 'however', 'anyway', 'well', 'besides', 'actually' all in all, 'so', 'after all' etc, can pragmatically be interpreted as having discourse communicative values. This can be done as how the utterance contains them is considered as actual response to, or a continuation of some portion of the prior discourse. That is prior explaining, describing, narrating, and arguing which are considered as intricate issues when selecting for example particular materials for particular syllabi or pedagogical teaching situations and learning activities should be considered.

E. Social Deixis

Social deixis always encodes aspects of social relationship between speakers and addressees, and the social distinctions that are relative to participants' roles in speech event. This social relation in every language has specific spatio-temporal, socio-political, and cultural dimensions which are intuitively employed by the interlocutors of that particular language to show their presuppositions and the dimensions of the discourse they have been involved in. Here arises the following questions; does social deixis category with that sense allow syllabus designers to materialize English syllabus on a different culture? To what extent have evidence-based practices of English language syllabi of non-natives synthesized that issue of deixis? How to identify 'best practices' or scientifically based methods on this linguistic aspect? How do syllabus designers encourage classroom educators to use the research findings of this linguistic field? However, this category of deixis in English language is best glossed by Brown and Levinson (1978) as the language structure which contains social identities of participants and their relations. (Levinson, 1983) provides an example on 'polite' pronouns and title of address and honorifics show that they cannot be treated unless social deictic values are available. He also states that all social deixis and most aspects of discourse deixis lie beyond the scope of a truth – conditional semantics. He restricts the study of social deixis to the study of facts within the scope of structural studies of linguistic system. He further points out two kinds of socially deictic information in languages around the world. That is relational and absolute and he quotes (Irvine, 1979) and (Fillmore, 1975) for further details. Deixis category is considered as essential part in pragmatic interpretation. The basic five categories of deixis has one deictic centre which includes the central person (speaker).The central time (when the speaker produces the utterance).The central place (where the speaker's location at CT). Discourse centre is the point which the speaker is currently at in the production of his utterance. Social centre is the speaker's social status and rank to which the rank or status of the addressee or referents is relative. It is worth noting that these five categories of deixis, mentioned above, should be considered as having one deictic centre which anchored upon the speaker at CT. They also help identify the referents of referring expressions through its special

or temporal relationship with the situation of the utterance (Harford & Healy, 1993, P. 64). Referring expressions as indicated by (Searle 1969:P. 27) are expressions that serve to identify any thing; process, event or any other kind of individuals. They provide answers to questions who? What? Which? And they are known by their functions. The conception of proposition on the other hand has been conceived as any aspect of the meaning of the stretch of language, whether derived from what is actually said, or from what hearers assume or infer. Many other linguists define it as that part of the meaning of the utterance which describes some state of affair. So it can be said that both primary deixis (exospheric deixis), and secondary deixis (endophoric deixis) serve the context surrounding an utterance and the contextual use of deictic expressions in a particular utterance. That is deixis categories help specify the referring expressions of any written or spoken discourse and this reason which makes deixis categories revitalize English language syllabi materials.

III. METHODOLOGY

A content analysis design is employed for this study through carefully counting paragraphs and specifying deictic expressions of two paragraphs in some texts taken randomly from Sudan Practical Integrated National English (SPINE). It is an integrated series of six textbooks for the use of both the basic level where book 1,2,3, are taught from grade five to grade eight, and in the secondary level where book 4, 5, 6 , are taught from the first year to the third final year . The study attempts to show how far deixis categories help text linguistics which is considered as an analysis of texts that extends beyond the traditional concept of sentence level and considers the communicative constraints of the situation. Counting paragraphs and specifying deictic expressions of two paragraphs are also followed in some texts taken from new method READERS an earlier Sudanese school curriculum by Michael West. Randomization process is conducted by numbering both types of the books serially to assign the units of SPINE and the Lessons of the READERS. The process of randomization ends by selecting SPINE Book 2 (Unit 3), and READERS book 2, (Lesson 3) from a random table. The main hypothesis of this study is that deixis categories help launch and sustain the foreign language learners' written and spoken discourse. Deixis categories are not fully considered upon the design of SPINE series. The aforementioned hypotheses have been raised by the following questions:

1. Does deixis category as syllabus materials help expand students' learnability?
2. Piecing together findings from a number of studies is a system usually used by organizations and professionals to collect and synthesize research-based practices. Do the writers of SPINE materials consider the latest issue of linguistic pragmatics and what is currently synthesized on deixis category as an important element in discourse analysis theory?

IV. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

An unobtrusive observation (syllabus documentary analysis) was applied to Sudan Practical Integrated National English which is currently being taught and the syllabus of READERS which has earlier been taught in Sudan. Four aspects were investigated in both types of syllabuses. The number of paragraphs in each book, functional sentence perspective or topic-comment relation, errors and mistakes, and how far deixis categories have adequately been selected by the designers of SPINE. The ultimate aim is to provide a scientific base for considering and moving research on linguistic pragmatics to practice which in this case may be syllabus design and curriculum studies.

V. RESULTS

A. *The Number of Paragraphs*

Counting the number of the paragraphs in SPINE book 2,3 and the paragraphs in READERS 2,3, the researcher has come to a frightening conclusion, that is, if considering the number of words and the length of READERS paragraphs, it can be decidedly said that the paragraphs in READER 2,3 alone equals the whole paragraphs of the SPINE series. This can proportionally be illustrated in the following table.

TABLE 1
SHOWS A PROXIMATE GUIDE OF PARAGRAPHS IN SPINE2, 3 AND READERS 1, 2

SPINE 2	SPINE3	READER 2	READER3
17	96	160	180

The READERS according to what is written in their blurb constitute a seven-year course starting at the Primary School Level and are the result of carefully graded word – count. Accompanying these are Companions providing word lists and additional exercises, and composition books designed to teach how to deal in speech and writing with the material already encountered in reading. In Sudan the seven READERS were taught in the Intermediate Level which was constituted of three years and which was cancelled and been replaced by adding two additional classes to the Basic Level to become eight years rather than six years. English language teaching now begins from the fifth year of the Primary. As the above table shows that the number of paragraphs in the READERS is more than SPINE paragraphs and this is a serious indication lessening or preventing Sudanese students from exposing to the many varieties of the English Language. Exposure to the language here is a materially - thought of category which should be fully regarded when

designing school English syllabuses as exactly done by the materials writers of READERS. It has been observed that the paragraphs of the READERS are longer and more cohesive and coherent than SPINE paragraphs.

B. Functional Sentence Perspective

(Connor 1999, P.80) illustrates that Prague School of Linguistics was the first to show how the presentation of information in whole texts should be studied along with the formal structures of sentences, such as a subject- predicate relation. (Connor, 1999) shows in western Indo- European Languages such as English, new information of one sentence in most texts becomes the topic or the old information of the next sentence. That is, new information is always introduced at the end, in the predicate. This topic – comment relation which been adequately considered in the READERS, has been severely violated in SPINE. The following are two paragraphs taken in turn from SPINE 2 (unit3) and READER 2 (Lesson 3.).

Example 1: (Taken from SPINE 2, unit3, lesson 5).

John is British. He comes from Britain. He is tall. He has got green eyes and straight hair. He is quiet and gentle, but sometimes he is very funny. Everyone likes him because he is very kind

The Unit has only three paragraphs and a dialogue for reading. The unit consists of twelve lessons. The rest of it is designed from tasks based activities and exercises ranging between 'Look and sing', 'Choose and write', 'Answer the questions,' and 'Fill in the blanks. Every paragraph of the three ones is a separate unit describing individuals, Alex lives in Nigeria, John from Britain, and Hajj Ibrahim and Hajj Musa are going to the market .The sentences following the topic sentence are not the type of functional sentence perspective mentioned earlier.

Example 2 :(Taken from READER 2, Lesson 3).

Prospero put down his book. He called Ariel." Bring the King and Antonio here," he said." My plan is ready."Then Prospero stood up. He went out of the house. He looked to see where Ferdinand was. He looked to see where Miranda was, and what she is doing. Ferdinand and Miranda were sitting on a load of wood talking to each other.

It has been observed that in all of the READERS texts the comments or the new information of one sentence always becomes the topic or the old information of the next one and this coincides with (Connor's, 1999, P.80) conception of topic- comment relation. (Johnson, 1977, P.18) urged that at paragraph level, English course should teach the student not only to write cohesive texts, consisting of sentences which grammatically follow on from each other. He also recommends other type of sentences that follow on from each other on the level of sense as well as grammar. The texts of the READERS are that kind of texts which incorporate both types of Johnson's notions. Those texts have a high quality of novelty that satisfies the aforementioned four types of discourse mentioned earlier.

C. Error and Mistakes in Spine

Having synthesized twenty M.A theses conducted in Spine, the writer of this paper found that all of them have come to the same conclusions which SPINE main problem lies in typing mistakes (see the appendixes).There are also some grammatical errors in SPINE 6 in which the designers of the course have replaced the present participle with the gerund .The questions arises here what if these errors and mistakes are rectified? Will the educational authorities still keep SPINE as a national syllabus in Sudan? Will the problem of SPINE materials writing be renegotiated seriously in order to restore to the Sudanese students the much language that has unintentionally stolen from them?

D. Deixis Category and Syllabus Materials

The writer of this paper thinks that the potential value of each text selected as a syllabus material is to provide services of both learnability and teachability for both the student and the teacher as syllabus decision- makers in classroom implementation which is considered as the last and crucial stage of curriculum development. The ability to learn and teach English language texts requires drawing a text contours or let us name it as text geography and this can clearly be done by identifying the text's indexical words which are deictic expressions, deictic markers, and deictic words and the pro forms such as 'so' and 'do'. Even the English 'Tense' itself can be conceived as deictic. (Cormrie, 1976) states that 'tense' is described as situational- external-time and this description gives it a deictic sense since it locates the time of a situation relative to the situation of the utterance. 'Aspect' is described by (Cormrie, 1976) as situational- internal time of a verb showing a specific time distinction. What makes a paragraph smooth and interesting is the ability of the writers to gain variety by using different structures and different modifiers. The varied sentence structures can be conceived in forms such as the sentence types whether it is a simple, complex, compound or compound complex. The verbal whether it is a participle phrase, a gerund or an infinitive also add to the components of the paragraph variety. What gives the forms their spirit is the deixis category. That is deixis category is overlapped between all the mentioned forms. The interpretation of the indexical words should be glossed in relation to the speaker's location or the deixis centre. (Prabhu, 1987) argues that students' internal linguistic competence increases if the teacher abstract from any piece of language its meaning besides deploying abstracted structures that have already been formed in the teaching of new grammatical forms. For the system development (Prabhu, 1987) illustrates that every instance of deployment should constitute a step in the further development of those structures. In deploying abstracted structures, teachers need to make use of deictic expressions found in the texts or the selected materials. Abstracting structures appears in presenting vocabulary, asking questions, presenting and practicing structures, etc and all these need deixis centre to be identified by both teacher and student. If deictic expressions adequately manipulated, this will help sustain learning process and

make text itself a pragmatic visual aid that helps much in the process of teaching. Deixis can provide input for noticing language forms and meanings. It is generally acknowledged that acquisition involves a number of processes such as noticing and reasoning and hypothesizing. (Oxford, 1990) quoted in (Hedge, 2000) divides reasoning and hypothesizing in reasoning deductively, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring, structuring and restructuring, and automatizing. By the term 'noticing' it is meant that language features has to be noticeable for the learners. For example they should firstly know that 'don't' used in English language to express negation, and then they can work out on the relationship between meaning and form. What makes the process of language acquisition and language learning one entity, the researcher thinks, is deixis category. Deixis serves both the form (the structural form of syllabus materials) and the meaning (functional/notional materials that incorporating communicative properties). Deixis category, the researcher believes, can however, support proponents of the argument which claims that the work on notional syllabuses should best be seen as means of developing the structural syllabus rather than replacing it (see Widdowson, 1979, P. 249). Materials writing process helps increase or decrease the use of this deixis centre. That is if the designers of a syllabus have selected much different materials, this will increase the chance of using more deictic expressions. For example, READER (7) as a whole is a story which is called 'Dead Man's Rock'. The text is so arranged that the meanings of new words can probably be guessed either from the context or by analysis of the word itself. The five deixis categories are proven to be found and this helps facilitate the process of teaching and learning of the READERS' written and spoken discourses. Discourse is to coherently make sense of what is said or read, to understand speakers or writers who communicate more than they say, and the ability to take part in that complex activity which is called conversation. The present study sees the functions of discourse analysis can easily be dealt with by the producer of the utterance and the interpreter of it only if this deixis category is well illustrated in the written or spoken discourses. The second paragraph of READER 2, Lesson 3, can be taken as an example to illustrate how personal deixis category leads the process of discourse analysis

Ferdinand loved *Miranda*. *Miranda* loved *Ferdinand*. *They* loved each other. *That* was *Prospero's* plan. *Prospero* meant *Ferdinand* and *Miranda* to love each other. *He* wanted *Ferdinand* to marry *Miranda*. *He* meant *Ferdinand* to be king of *Naples*, and *Miranda* to be the queen.

The underlined deictic expressions help learners notice, narrate, explain, describe and argue about what is going on in the first paragraph. For example the demonstrative 'that' has dual roles of a grammatical form and of a communicative property. The learner thus may feel secure and enjoy both the prior and the coming discourse since s/he has been given pragmatic restrictions or deictic contours to help him/ her proceed successively through the text. The teacher can also make sense of these deictic contours to develop the ability of asking questions. The questions that may be developed here like the following:

- Did Ferdinand really love Miranda?
- Did Miranda really love Ferdinand?
- Who wanted Ferdinand to marry Miranada?
- What was Prospero's Plan?

-If Prospero's plan succeed, who is going to be the king / and who's going to be the queen? In what place they are going to be king and queen?

The compared paragraph is taken from the SPINE 2, Unit 3, Lesson 5, comes as follows:

Hajj Ibrahim and *Hajj Musa* are going to the market. *They* are carrying their baskets. *They* want to do some shopping. *Hajj Ibrahim* wants to buy some meat, eggplants, onions, potatoes and bananas. *Hajj Musa* is going there to buy some fish, okra, cucumber, and grapefruit.

The underlined deictic expressions do not narrate, explain, describe or argue anything at all in the first paragraph. There are only few uses of personal deixis. This may lessen the teacher's ability of asking questions and student's answers will all be about Hajj Ibrahim and Hajj Musa. Paragraphs in SPINE2 are short and they do have scattered ideas, and this has lessened the teacher's ability of using deixis category appropriately.

VI. CONCLUSION

The literature on writing syllabus materials concentrate mainly in the types of syllabuses and whether for example the particular syllabus is notional, structural, task-based or ESP one. (Widdowson, 1979, P.249) see that notional syllabus is no more than a means of developing the structural syllabus since writing materials cannot be defined as forms or functions. The present paper is, however, arrived at the importance of person, place, and time deixis categories in the process of designing materials which is considered as a crucial element in designing English language syllabi in general. The paper has tried to set forth significant policies and inputs of syllabus design. It has been proven that the English language teachers teach deixis in linguistic patterns that have been identified by (Connor, 1996, P.47-50) as textual Meta discourse and interpersonal discourse. Meta discourse are text connectives (e.g. first, next, however, but), code glosses (e.g. x means y), illocution markers (e.g. to sum up, to give example), Narrators (e.g. according to x). By interpersonal meta discourse Connor (ibid) meant the validity markers (hedges e.g. might, perhaps), (emphatics e.g. clearly, obviously), (attributors e.g. according to x), attitudes markers (e.g. surprisingly, it is fortunate that), commentaries (e.g. you may not agree on that, dear reader, you might wish to make the last section first). Reviews (Connor, 1996) said should contain indicators that an earlier text is being repeated or summarized (e.g. so far we have assumed). Previews

on the other hand usually contain indicators that a later stage of text is being anticipated (e.g. we show below). (Morrow, 1977, P.14) defines text as 'stretch of language that is organized in some way to form a coherent whole'. He claims that the idea of text is an important one in language teaching. The present study has also reached to that SPINE series has not been built on the idea of text, while the READERS syllabus has. Chomsky's idea of competence which is the native speaker's intuitive knowledge of his language should seriously be considered and fully assigned when designing English syllabi for non natives by involving professional natives in the stages of curriculum development. Those developmental stages are ends/means specification, program implementation. That is natives should participate as needs analysts, methodologists, materials writers, and as teacher trainers to safeguard an appropriate English language curriculum for non natives speakers of English language. A unique part of native speakers' competence is their unconscious use of indexical words, and this intuitive knowledge of the indexical words may, however, help positively in writing syllabus materials for non natives.

APPENDIXES

TABLE (1)
SHOWS MISTAKES IN SPINE (2) IN GENERAL:

No	Error	Type of mistakes	Unit	Lesson	Page	Correction
1	oak	spelling	1	11	56	look
2	garage	spelling	2	13	60	garage
3	Tell Who it is?	punctuation	3	5	70	Tell who...
4	Tell Who it is?	punctuation	3	5	70	Tell who it is
5	the marled	Spelling/ articles	3	9	77	market
6are in a day?	tense	4	4	92	...are there
7are in half an hour?	tense	4	4	92	...are there in a day?
8are in a minute?	tense	4	4	92	...are there in a minute?
9are in a lesson	tense	4	4	92are there in a lesson?
10	Six five	punctuation	4	4	92	six five
11	Antarctica	spelling	4	10	104	Antarctica
12	thinning	spelling	4	11	105	thin
13	bold	spelling	4	11	105	bald
14	Himalayas	spelling	5	11	129	Himalayas

TABLE (2)
SHOWS MISTAKES IN SPINE (3) THE PUPIL'S BOOK IN GENERAL

No	Error	Type of mistakes	Unit	Lesson	Page	Correction
1	the market	articles	4	2	91	market
2	Ladies and gentlemen	punctuation	4	4	94	Ladies and gentlemen.
3	The Red sea	punctuation	4	6	99	The Red Sea
4	The great wall of China	punctuation	4	6	99	The Great Wall of China
5	Cold wind cool down the clouds	agreement	4	8	103	Cold winds cool down the clouds
6	Emirates	spelling	4	13	119	Emirates Faculty of Chemistry
7	faculty	punctuation	4	13	119	Faculty of Chemistry
8	"Guest of the day"	punctuation	4	13	120	"Guest of Day"
9	Deck	punctuation	5	2	125	deck
10	Bones	spelling	5	3	127	honest
11	Turkish	spelling	5	3	127	Turks
12	Desert	spelling	6	2	157	dessert
13	Goalie	spelling	6	2	158	garlic
14	sewing machine	spelling	6	3	161	sewing machine
15	Can me.....	Punctuation	6	7	179	Can me....
16	Breath	Spelling	6	8	181	breathe
17	Gradually	Spelling	6	11	189	gradually
18	Rootles	Spelling	6	11	189	noodles
19	The Sea view	Punctuation	6	11	189	The Sea View
20	Racquets	Spelling	6	11	190	racquets or rackets

TABLE (3)
SHOWS MISTAKES IN SPINE (4) IN GENERAL:

No	Error	Type of mistakes	Unit	Lesson	Page	Correction
1	bamboo	spelling	1	2	5	bamboo
2	exercise	spelling	1	2	8	exercise
3	Iron sheet	Spelling	1	2	8	sheet iron
4	Tea tab	Spelling	1	3	11	Tea table
5	refrigerator	Spelling	1	4	13	refrigerator
6	filling cabin	Spelling	4	13	13	filing cabinet
7	factories	Spelling	1	5	14	factories
8	joint	Spelling	1	9	27	join
9	vinegar	Spelling	2	3	38	vinegar
10	bandage	Spelling	2	3	38	bandage
11	sleeves	spelling	2	5	44	sleeves
12	greyhound	spelling	2	6	48	greyhound
13	ingest	spelling	2	10	59	longest
14	paragraph	spelling	2	10	60	paragraph
15	sentences	Spelling	2	1	60	sentences
16	question	Spelling	2	10	60	Question
17	hampered	Spelling	2	11	60	happened
18	Joni	Spelling	2	12	64	Jane
19	ORDER	Spelling	3	3	72	ORDER
20	want	Spelling	3	5	76	wasn't
21	weak	Spelling	3	9	86	week
22	school	Spelling	4	6	109	school
23	Conner	Spelling	4	10	126	Corner
24	country side	Spelling	4	12	134	countryside
25	home work	Spelling	5	2	143	homework
26	cigarettes	Spelling	5	2	143	cigarettes
27	February	Spelling	5	5	154	February
28	Natal	Spelling	5	6	158	Natal
29	Michael	Spelling	5	6	159	Michael
30	tiding	Spelling	5	6	16	tidings
31	confirmed	Spelling	5	8	165	confirmed
32	round about	Spelling	5	8	166	roundabout
33	vocation	Spelling	6	1	180	vacation
34	holly Quran	Spelling	6	8	207	Holy Quran

TABLE (4)
SHOWS MISTAKES IN SPINE (5) IN THE PUPIL'S BOOK IS IN GENERAL

No	Error	Type of mistakes	Chapter	Page	Correction
1	Family society and community	Punctuation	1	1	Family, society and community
2	Doubled Letters With verbs	Punctuation	1	9	Doubled Letters with Verbs
3	The Life of a mechanic	punctuation	2	21	The Life of a Mechanic
4	First, it is situated near a big market which makes it easy for...	punctuation	2	22	First, it is situated near a big market, which makes it easy for...
5	Women Issues and concerns	Punctuation	1	37	Women Issues and Concerns
6	Arch, for example is both....	Punctuation	3	38	Bear, for example, is both.
7	Bare, for example is both, nutritious drink and good for satisfying thirst	Punctuation	3	38	Bare, for example, is both nutritious drink and good for satisfying thirst
8	Al Nada Girls secondary School	Punctuation	3	39	Al Nada Girls' secondary School
9	breath	Spelling	5	69	breathe

TABLE (5)
SHOWS ERRORS IN SPINE (6) IN THE PUPIL'S BOOK IS IN GENERAL

No	Error	Type of error	Chapter	Page	Correction
1	The Gerund as a Noun and Adjective	in-form	5	73	The Gerund as a Noun
2	Increasing amount	in-form	5	73	'Increasing' is present participle not a gerund.
3	Surprising number	in-form	5	73	'Surprising' is present participle not a gerund
4	Exciting idea	in-form	5	73	'Exciting' is present participle not gerund.
5	aging parents	in-form	5	73	'Aging' is present participle not gerund.
6	The Gerund can be used as a noun or adjective	in-form	5	73	The gerund can be used as a noun but not as an adjective.
7	welcoming smile	in-form	5	74	'welcoming' is present participle not a gerund
8situation	in-form	5	74	The in -form that precedes (excuse) must be present participle.
9situation	in-form	5	74	The in-form that precedes (situation) must be present participle.
10	...results	in-form	5	74	The in-form that precedes (results) must be present participle
11experience	in-form	5	74	The in-form that precedes (experience) must be present participle.
12number	in-form	5	74	The in-form that proceeds (nimbler) must be present participle.
13	surds	Spelling	8	126	swords
14	so he tired	Spelling	10	169	so he was tired

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Verb Structures and Their Phonetics Comparative Study in Sabzevarian Dialect and Persian Language

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Abstract—In this paper, the verbs in Mazi (past tense) are presented in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect for a detailed comparison of their structures as well as their similarities and differences. The result of this study shows that although there are some similarities between two sources but there also exist some important differences among them from the structural and phonetic point of view.

Index Terms—verbs structures, phonetics, Sabzevarian dialect, Persian language

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of research around Persian language, the great ancient national and cultural state, is obvious. There have been many studies at this area today, but still can be found some dialects, which need to be studied among them is Sabzevarian dialect in Khorasan province.

A Brief history of Sabzevar:

Sabzevar, which Abolfazl -e -Beihagi recognized its root name as Sasanabad , as he believed the city was funded by Sassanid dynasty was first called Sasanvar and after the entry of Islam to Iran , it was changed to "Beihag" and finally to Sabzevar. (Beihaghi ,1991)

Sabzevar is one of the counties of Khorasan province, located at North -East region of Iran. Measuring about 20628 km² with 511616 population, it is the second large city of the province after Mashhad, covering % 16 of total area of the Khorasan province. It is located in 226 and 66 km far from Mashhad (the capital of the Khorasan province) and Tehran (Capital of Iran) respectively. (Mohtasham ,1999).

Due to its geographic, economic and financial situations, Sabzevar region has been agriculturally significant, Azar Barzin Mehr altar of Sabzevar which is one of the four important altars of Sassanid era is located in this area (Beihaghi, 1991)

Khorasan province is the source of "Arsacides Pahlavi language" and Pahlavi is related to parthuh (following the name of a big tribe) (Farahvashi, 1979) which is the name of present Khorasan (Asadi Tusi, 1986) and its neighborhood towns are Damqan and Sabzevar according to the present divisions . (Bahar, 1990)

According to Ebn – e – Nadims (cited from Ebn-e Moqfae) "Dari is the language of the East and Balkh" a transformed version of Arsacides Pahlavi language (Vahidian Kamkar,1991).

Sabzevarian dialect has been under the influence of standard Persian language taught in schools, although it is being preserved through oral contacts of artists, businessmen and people of the older generation in the region.

As any language is alive when it is spoken and the time it loses its speakers, comes its death, it seems necessary to scientifically study and gather the dialects which are the valuable scientific materials for Iranologists to enable them to enrich Persian language even more.

We often find some interesting words and lexicons in dialects of Sabzevar which could be the best and most suitable alternatives for foreign words whose repeated use by language professionals may lead to language abnormality and in some cases may be accounted as the sign of language dependency.

Detailed recognition of Sabzevar dialect would be a great aid for recognition of the missed Arsacides Pahlavi language. At the recent time, when cultural borderlines are about to be vanished and dialects are going to be disappeared, recognizing the scientific, practical and linguistic characters of each zone's dialect is very effective for their preservation leading to (1) higher enrichment of Persian vocabulary, (2) description and interpretation of Persian literature and finally (3) prohibiting foreign lexicon entry to some extent.

On the other hand, the identity, nationality, traditions and ethics are resulted from language recognition which is a perfect way to understand oral literature of any region.

In this paper the verbs in Mazi (past tense) are presented in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect for a detailed comparison of their structures as well as their similarities and differences.

II. METHODOLOGY

In this study, the author was involved in gathering lexicons which do not exist in Persian language anymore or have encompassed a high phonetic change through the time. Over fifteen thousands words and about two thousands sentences were gathered and tape recorded. Then 2000 lexicons were compared based on their equivalent in the two resources based on International phonetic alphabet. Since Arabic, as the base of Persian Script, is unable to represent consonants of Sabzevarian dialect, the Sabzevarian dialect words were collected in the form of phonetics and their standard Persian equivalent was regarded as the basis for the study of phonetic system and word making characteristics in this dialect.

A. Verbs in Persian Language and Sabzevarian Dialect

Verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect, usually come at the end of sentence with different forms for each person, i.e. it takes different forms and indicates four concepts, solely or accompanied with its dependent companions:

- a- Doing or occurrence of an action: Majid wrote the letter
- b- Doing an action upon someone or something: Majid is not killed.
- c- Accepting an state or situation: It gets dark
- d- Attributing an adjective to someone or something: It isn't dark

The concept of person is also presented within the verb. The person refers to the speaker attributes the verb to him or herself, to the listener or the other third person (s) (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995)

Verb represents the tense too, i.e. in what time the action has been occurred or will occur. The main tenses in Persian and Sabzevarian dialect are: past, present and future. In Persian, the past tense is also called "Mazi(past)", present "mozare (present)" and future "Mostaqbal". In Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect Id indicates part of verb which shows the person or speaker, second person or listener, third person or other person (Khanlari, 1971).

Ids are in two categories: singular and plural.

Ids in Persian (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995) and Sabzevarian Dialect (Beroqani, 2001) are presented in the following table:

TABLE 1:
IDS IN PERSIAN LANGUAGE (AHMADI GIVI & ANVARI, 1995) AND SABZEVARIAN DIALECT

	In Sabzevarian dialect	In Persian language
First singular person	اوم um	م
Second singular person	ای I	ی
Third singular person	-	د
First plural person	م Em	یم
Second plural person	e	ید
Third plural person	ان En	ند

As in standard Persian, each verb of Sabzevarian dialect has two roots , including *Mazi(past)* and *Mozare (present)*.

Verb root (بن فعل): There is a structure of any verb including its main concept as a whole and is constant in all the verbs structures.

1. Verbs root in simple verbs of Persian:

In simple verbs of Persian the mazi(past) root remains after the omission of suffix ن (an) and their Mozare (present) root will be made after some change on Maz i(past) root, which can be divided into eight groups. (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995).

For example in verbs whose infinitives end to یدن – (idan) after omission of ید – (id) from the mazi (past) verbs root ,the mozare (present) root is obtained". For example:

For the verb نالیدن (nalidan) (crying):

Its Mazi(past) root is will be نالید (nalid) (cried)

and its Mozare (present) root is نال (nal).

Most of the Persian verbs are included in this class (Khanlari, 1971).

2. Verbs root in simple verbs of Sabzevarian dialect:

In Sabzevarian dialect omitting suffixes such as «تن ، دن ، ین» (in, dan ,tan) from the end of infinitives makes the Mazi(past) root.

For example in Sabzevarian dialect:

For the infinitive دوشیین (dosiyān),

its Mazi(past) root is *doši*,

and its Mozare (present) (present)root is but in Persian language «ن» (n) is excluded from the end of infinitive making a Mazi(past)(past) root.

Note: infinitive signs in Sabzevarian dialect are ((تن ,tan, دن ,dan , ین ,in))and their omission will result in Mazi(past) root and by omitting the sign of Mazi(past) in regular verbs, the Mozare (present) root is achieved.

In Sanscrit , pahlavi and Avesta languages , are «تن» (tan) and «دن» (dan) ,also the signs of infinitive and «تن»(tan) is the basic one (Khanlari, 1971).

In Sabzevarian dialect, Mozare (present) root of simple verbs is:

The imperative without "ب" (be).

Some verbs in Sabzevarian dialect have both Mazi(past) and Mozare (present) roots :

Example:

گفتن (to say),

Mazi(past) root = "گف"

Mozare (present) = (گو) and (گا) (go and ga).

In the Sabzevarian dialect, the root of some verbs can make verbs with different meanings,

Example:

"کش" (kosh) = "to kill" = "to turn off."

Also there are some verbs which have the Mozare (present) root in dialect but lacking any mazi(past) root,

Example:

"شدن" (shodan) (to become)

Mozare (present) root = "شو" (Sho)

Mazi (past) root = Verb of "رفتن" (to go) (Brogani, 2002).

For the verb گر وختن (grokhtan) (to escape)

Mazi (past) root "گروخت" (grokht) is going to be forgotten nowadays and the Persian words "فرار کرد" (farar kard) (escaped) is about to be used instead.

B. The Person in Persian Language and Sabzevarian Dialect

Person is one of the important features of the verb in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect (including third persons). By person we mean one the speaker attributes the verb to.

Some verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect may have only two persons (i.e.: imperative or negative imperative including only the second singular person and the second plural person.

Some verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect lack any person:

Example:

"مشدگف" (meshodf goft) (می شود گفت) (it can be said that).

What imparts the verb in its character is Id. Id determines the person and the count. For verbs without person, while having Id, since there is no possibility for choosing an auxiliary verb to take different forms for different persons so they are called "without person" (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995).

There are some other verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect with only one person called as "single person intransitive verbs" (Khanlari, 1971)

Example:

«خوشم آمد» (I liked it)

which the verb «آمد» always comes as the form of third singular person.

In this article some types of mazi(past) verbs which are common in Persian language and Sabzevarian with more application nowadays are included

C. Structure of Simple Past Tense in Persian Language and Sabzevarian Dialect

Simple past tense in Persian language is made by Mazi (past) root plus Id suffix, except the third singular person which doesn't have any Id suffix and past tense root is applied as verb (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995). Simple past in Sabzevarian dialect is made by adding the prefix "ب" (be) at the beginning of the past root conveying an emphasis.

In table -1, the structures of simple past in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect is represented

TABLE 1:
STRUCTURE OF SIMPLE PAST IN PERSIAN LANGUAGE AND SABZEVARIAN DIALECT

The person	Past root	Simple past in Persian language	Simple past in Sabzevarian dialect (the prefix <i>be</i> at the beginning of the past root)
First person singular	رفت (raft)(went)	رفتم (raftam)	برفتم beraftam
Second person singular	رفت (raft)	رفتی (rafti)	برفتی berafti
Third person singular	رفت (raft)	رفت (raft) the third singular person which doesn't have any Id suffix and past tense root is applied as verb	برف beraf
First plural person	رفت (raft)	رفتیم (raftim)	برفتیم Beraftim
Second plural person	رفت (raft)	رفتید (raftid)	برفتید berafte
Their plural person	رفت (raft)	رفتند (raftand)	برفتند beraften

Similar application of simple past in Persian language and the Sabzevarian dialect (A) showing an action in past tense, which is the same for the both:

Example:

گاو را آب داد *gow we ow bedū*

(He/ she gave the cow some water)

Different application of simple past in Persian language and the *Sabzevarian* dialect

1- Such type of difference is mainly in conditional sentences in Persian which is presented as non conditional sentences in the dialect.

Example in Persian language (as a conditional sentence):

بابک ، ساعت چهار بیا جلو مدرسه اگر نیایی من رفتم .

(Babak , Come to school at four o'clock, if you don't come, I will go).

Example in Sabzevarian dialect (non- conditional sentence) :

bes amayam . بایست آمدم .

(wait , I will be there)

2- In Persian language, simple past tense is used for stating occurrence of the verb at present tense, instead of past continuous:

Example;

verbs such as "بودن" (to be) and "داشتن" (to have) .

3-Infinitives as auxiliary verb and in past perfect made of "بودن" (to be) infinitive as auxiliary verb, are unique to Persian language and do not have any application in Sabzevarian dialect.

4-Sometimes the simple past of «رفتن»(to go) is used as a inking verb.

Example;

"هوا سرد شد" means "هوا سرد رفت" (it got cold).

D. Past Continuous Tense

Past continuous tense in Persian language is made of the past simple tense in which the prefix "می" (*mi*) is added to the beginning of the past simple tense (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari , 1995) . To make Past continuous tense in Sabzevarian dialect " Different forms of (م ، م ، م - *ma-me-mo*) are added to the beginning of the past simple tense.

In the following table, structures of past continuous tense is represented in Persian language and the dialect.

TABLE 2:
STRUCTURES OF PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE IN PERSIAN LANGUAGE AND THE SABZEVARIAN DIALECT

Past continuous in Persian	past continuous in Sabzevarian dialect
First person singular می بردم <i>mibordam</i>	میردم <i>mobordum</i>
Second person singular می بردی <i>mibordi</i>	میردی <i>mobordi</i>
Third person singular می برد <i>mibord</i>	میرد <i>mobord</i>
First person plural می بردیم <i>mibordim</i>	میردیم <i>mobordim</i>
Second person plural می بردید <i>mibordid</i>	میرد <i>moborde</i>
Third person plural می بردند <i>mibordand</i>	میردن <i>moborden</i>

1. Similar application of past continuous in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect:

1- To express an action which continued in past tense.

Example:

In Sabzevarian dialect:

xoršid medrexšigo yexar ow mekord

the sun was shining and melting ices.

2- To express an action which has occurred several times:

Example: In Persian language:

In Sabzevarian dialect: yake **mama** yake **maraf**

translation: one was coming one was going.

3- To express an action which has occurred at the same time with another action.

Example:

In Persian language:

تمرینهای دستور را می نوشتم که صدای در زدن را شنیدم

In Sabzevarian dialect:

temrinay destore menvištom ke soday dar ziyane šenofom

translation I was writing the grammar exercises when I heard the door knocked.

4- In place of perfect implicit

Example: in Persian language: ای کاش دوباره شما را می دیدم

In Sabzevarian dialect:

kaš dibara šomar mediyom

I wish I would see you again.

2. Application Difference of past continuous in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect

1) Instead of imperative which is characteristic to the dialect, *namaraf* (نمی رفتی) translation : you weren't going.

And past continuous in expressing an action which the speaker has been absent during its occurrence, expressing an action which has not absent during its occurrence, expressing an action which has not taken place but expected to be occurred. Omission of auxiliary verb from the present perfect tense in some cases and expressing an action which has occurred in past and its effect or result has been sustained up to now has application only in Persian language.

3. The following important changes are considered in Sabzevarian dialect in *past continuous tense*

1. The sign of continuity in the dialect is applied by adding prefixes «می» (mi) , «م ، م و م» (ma , mo , me) that «ی» (i) is changed as a result of homogeneity with vowels of the first syllable of the verb , i.e. transformation of «می»(mi) to «م»(mo).

Example: *merex* می ریخت (it was pouring)

2. Transformation of prefix «می» (mi) to «م» (mo) in *past continuous tense*

mogoftom = می گفتیم

(I was saying)

Verbs containing the "u" vowel can be placed in this group

mosuza = می سوزد (Its burning)

mogurra = می غرد و ناله می کند (He / she is snarling)

3. Transformation of prefix «می» (mi) to «م» (ma)

maraf = می رفت (He/she was going)

4. Sometimes affected by a verb which contains the "I" vowel, it preserves its form, like:

miškastum = می شکستم (I was breaking)

Sometimes because "ای" is placed in the imperatives of these verbs , the same "ای" has application in its continuous, like " می شستوم *meyšastum* . (I was washing)

E. Past Perfect Tense in Persian Language and Sabzevarian Dialect

The past perfect in Persian language is made of past participle of the main verb (the past root "ه") and simple past tense of "بودن" (to be) auxiliary verb.

The past perfect in Sabzevarian dialect is made of past participle of the main verb + بی (the auxiliary verb of بودن (to be) + mediating "ی" + Ids (table -3).

TABLE 3:
STRUCTURES OF THE PAST PERFECT TENSE IN PERSIAN LANGUAGE AND SABZEVARIAN DIALECT

The person	Past perfect in Persian language	Past perfect in Sabzevarian
First singular person	دیده بودم (I had seen)	دی یه بی یوم diya bi yum
Second singular person	دیده بودی (you had seen)	دی یه بی بی di ya bi yi
Third singular person	دیده بود (He / she had seen)	دی یه بی diya bi
First plural person	دیده بودیم (we had seen)	دی یه بی یم diya bi yim
Second plural person	دیده بودید (you had san)	دی یه بی یه diya bi ye
Third plural person	دیده بودند (they had seen)	دی یه بی ین biy bi yen

The application of the past perfect is the same in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect.

1- expressing an action which has been occurred in the past before another action.

Example:

In Persian language:

ناهار را خورده بودم که مجید وارد شد

in the dialect:

nahare boxārda biyem ke mejid vared raf.

Translation: I had eaten the lunch when Majid entered.

Note: In Sabzevarian dialect, some of the past perfect verbs take the single word "ب" and some do not. The ones which do not take prefix are so rare like: گفتن (to say) and کردن (to do)

F. Present Perfect Tense in Persian Language and Sabzevarian Dialect

1. The present perfect tense in Persian language

The present perfect tense in Persian language is composed of the "pp" of main verbs (i) (the past root + "ه" expressing movement) + the auxiliary verbs ام (am (I)), ای (are you) است (is He/she/it) , ایم (are (we)), اید (are (you) and اند (are (they / those) (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995)

2. The present perfect tense in Sabzevarian dialect:

The present perfect tense in Sabzevarian dialect is made of past participle adjective + mediating "ی" + auxiliary verbs and the Ids.

The following table represents the six persons of the present perfect tense in two.

TABLE 4:
STRUCTURES OF THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE IN PERSIAN LANGUAGE AND SABZEVARIAN DIALECT

The person	The present perfect in Persian language	The present perfect in Sabzevarian dialect
First person singular	خورده ام (I have eaten)	خور دیرم boxorde yum
Second person singular	خورده ای (you have eaten)	بخوردیی boxorde yi
Third person singular	خورده (he / she has eaten)	بخورده boxor de
First person singular	خورده ایم (we have eaten)	بخوردییم boxorde yim
Second person plural	خورده اید (you have eaten)	بخوردید boxorde ye
Third person Plural	خورده اند (they have eaten)	بخوردین boxorde yen

3. Similar applications of the present perfect tense in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect

1- Expressing an action which the speaker has been absent during its performance.

Example:

In Persian language:

In the dialect:

diroz befemiyom ke ei kare bekarda

Translation: I Found it yesterday that who has done this work

2) Instead of perfect implicit.

Example:

in Persian language:

شاید به خانه رفته است

In the dialect:

š ā yad be xana borofta

Translation: perhaps he/ she gone home.

3- Expressing an action occurred at past whose effect or result has continued up to now.

Example:

In Persian language.

الآن این را داده است.

In the dialect:

hemāl ir bediya

Translation : he / she has given this how.

4-Expressing an action has not been done(negative structure) but is expected to:

Example:

in Persian language:

هنوز برنگشته است

In the dialect:

henoz ver nagerdiya

Translation: He/ she hasn't come back yet.

4. The specific application of the present perfect tense in Persian language.

Expressing an action which has started in the past and is still continuing and the auxiliary verb is sometimes omitted from the present perfect.

The present perfect used in expressing the future is exclusively applied in Sabzevarian dialect.

Example:

وقت آن رسیده است : waxtiš risiya

Translation:

its time has reached

Note: From the structural point of view, when the present perfect is used for answering or negative imperative, it will become the same as past simple. At this time no phonetics exist to represent the difference between the two but the chain "a" sound (Named Zebar in Persian) i.e. the stress makes the difference. (Vahidian Kamkar, 1991)

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برفتم (berraftom) = the past simple

برفتم (braftoom) = the present perfect

"l" is the sign of stress. (Beroqani , 2002).

III. CONCLUSION

Just the same as standard Persian, each verb of Sabzevarian dialect verbs has two roots, including *Mazi(past)* and *Mozare (present)*.

In simple verbs of Persian language the mazi(past) root remains after the omission of suffix ن (an) and their Mozare (present) root is formed after some changes are made in Mazi (past) root, which can be divided into eight groups. (Ahmadi Givi & Anvari, 1995).

In Sabzevarian dialect omitting suffixes such as «تن ، دن ، ين» (in, dan, tan) from the end of infinitives forms the Mazi(past) root.

Infinitive signs in Sabzevarian dialect are ((in ين , dan دن , tan تن)) and their omission will provide the Mazi(past) root and by omitting the sign of Mazi(past)(past) in regular verbs, the Mozare (present) root is achieved.

Some verbs in Sabzevarian dialect have both Mazi(past) and Mozare (present) roots and in the Sabzevarian dialect, the root of some verbs can make verbs with different meanings. Also there are some verbs which have the Mozare (present) root in dialect but lack any mazi(past) root,

Some verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect may have only two persons (i.e.: imperative or negative imperative including only the second singular person and the second plural person.

Some verbs in Persian language and Sabzevarian dialect lack any person.

Simple past tense in Persian language is made by Mazi(past) root plus *Id* suffix, except the third singular person which doesn't have any *Id* suffix and past tense root is used as verb (Ahmadi givi & Anvari, 1995). Simple past in Sabzevarian dialect is made by adding the prefix "ب" (*be*) at the beginning of the past root conveying an emphasis.

One of the important differences is mainly in conditional sentences in Persian which is presented as non- conditional sentences in the dialect.

Example in Persian language (as a conditional sentence). Also in Persian language, simple past tense is used for stating occurrence of the verb at present tense, instead of past continuous tense.

On the other hand, Infinitives as auxiliary verb and in past perfect made of "بودن" (to be) infinitive as auxiliary verb, are unique to Persian language and do not have any application in Sabzevarian dialect

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Summing up the Sentences in Active Voice without Passive Counterparts

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Abstract—Some active English sentences can express passive implicature and they have no passive counterparts. In what cases can't they convert into passive voice (or have no passive counterparts)? The paper will make a study on the problem from four various cases of active sentences without passive counterparts. By analyzing the four cases, the author draws a conclusion that the variety in English voice shows the tendency of the linguistic phenomenon of active voice taking the place of passivisation.

Index Terms—active voice, passive voice, passive counterparts

I. INTRODUCTION

In English, only sentences with a transitive verb can be turned into passive ones. However, not all English transitive sentences have passive counterparts. Some of them and some intransitive ones can also indicate passive implicature. So the passive counterparts are unnecessary for them. In the following cases, passive construction is neither allowed nor unusual.

II. VARIOUS CASES OF ACTIVE SENTENCES WITHOUT PASSIVE COUNTERPARTS

The passive implicature of English sentences can be expressed in different way. Not all the passive indication must be expressed with the sentence in passive voice. Some active voice sentences themselves imply passive implication. Some transitive verbs, for example, do not occur in the passive. Intransitive verbs never appear in the passive construction. But, in some cases, these transitive verbs or intransitive ones also indicate the sense of passivization.

A. Transitive Verb Performed as Predicate in a Sentence

Transitive verbs with reflexive or reciprocal objects do not passivize, for instance,

- 1) He *had busied himself* in the laboratory.
- 2) Conrad and I *contented ourselves* with expressing our relief.
- 3) He *prides himself* on his tidiness.
- 4) Don't *deceive yourself*.

We could not substitute any other NP (Noun Phrase) for the reflexives, and there are, accordingly, no passive counterparts. Where a reflexive is in paradigmatic opposition to other NPs, as in "John enjoyed himself", not* "Himself was enjoyed by John", for the reflexive must follow its antecedent.

If the object is "each other" or "one another", for both of them are accusatives and reciprocal, the active voice has no passive counterparts as in the following two examples:

- 1) a. They helped *each other*.
- *b. *Each other* was helped.
- 2) a. They loved *one another*.
- *b. *One another* was loved.

We cannot passivize sentences like "Patrick liked/wanted/hated Mary to accompany him." as in "*Mary was liked/wanted/hate to accompany him." The reason is not clear. Some grammarians think that this is because the constituent structure of the active is unclear, so that it is arguable whether "Mary" is in fact an object. However, we can certainly passivize sentences such as "Patrick expected Mary to accompany him" and "Patrick believed Mary to be right", which are of the same structures.

Where a verb has a sense in which it is logically symmetrical, passivisation is unlikely or excluded even for some speakers. For example, "marry" in the sense "enter into matrimony with" is logically symmetrical in that "X *married* Y" entails and is entailed by "Y *married* X"; the same can be said about *resemble* and *equal*. Thus, examples like "Tom was *married/resembled* by Lucy" and "A is *equaled* by B" are judged awkward or unacceptable.

And some "verb+noun" combinations, which have the force of an intransitive verb, can never take the passive. For example,

The medicine soon *took effect*.

The plant will soon *take root*.

In the above two sentences, *effect* and *root* are nouns and seemingly function as the objects of *took* and *take*

respectively. But, *take effect* and *take root* are actually phrasal verbs to indicate the sense of *work* and *put down*. This kind of forms is mostly treated as single-word verb and they are intransitive verbal phrases. They certainly take no passive counterparts.

Some stative verbs, though transitive, do not occur in the passive, for example,

The plane *holds* about 150 people.

These students *lacked* experience.

The transitive verbs *holds* and *lacked* are followed by objects but *about 150 people* and *experience* are not the recipients of actions because *holds* and *lacked* are stative verbs referring to states but not actions. Stative verbs are normally incompatible with the passive voice except in certain cases where there is a transfer of meaning. Only the dynamic verbs refer to actions and occur in passive voice commonly.

Some verbs followed by a gerund, the active form of the kind of verbs implicate the passive meaning. In modern English, there're only few verbs, such as *bear*, *deserve*, *need*, *require*, *want* etc in the following sentences. So the passive counterpart is unacceptable as well in the following examples:

a) Polyester *bears washing*.

b) She *deserves praising*.

c) The best horse *needs braising* and the aptest child *needs teaching*.

d) Charles Berford will *require looking* after one of those days.

e) These boxes *want numbering*.

There are some verbs that can be either transitive or intransitive in the present progressive and express the passive meaning as remnants of Old English. We will mention it in the third section, later.

B. Intransitive Verb Performing as the Predicate in a Sentence

If some intransitive verbs such as *move*, *lock*, *shut*, *open* are used in negative sentences, they show the meaning of "impossibility" with conversational implicature in passive voice. Look at the following examples:

1) The door *won't shut*.

2) The window *won't open*.

3) The car *won't move*.

4) The bread *doesn't bake* well in the oven.

5) Dogs *don't drown* easily.

6) This cake *doesn't break* evenly.

The above examples are in active form but in passive meaning. So they are unnecessarily expressed in passive form semantically and syntactically they are ungrammatical if they are transferred into passive voice.

Some actional active intransitive verbs like *rise*, *lie*, *happen*, *occur*, *live*, etc can not be followed by an object, so they have no passive counterparts. For instance

1. He *rose* to welcome us (stood up).

2. The lazy man *lay* in bed until noon (stayed).

3. What he said would *happen* really *happened* (came to pass/took place).

4. Did you see what was *happening* (passing).

5. When did the accident *occur* (take place)?

6. We couldn't *live* without food and water.

Some intransitive verbs, such as *wear* and *blow* can be used in "subject + predicate + subjective complement". This kind of active sentence cannot be transferred into passive pattern. Such as:

1) This material has *worn* thin.

*This material has been worn thin.

2) The door *blew* open.

* The door was blown open.

C. The Predicate in a Sentence with the Verb Both Performing as Transitive & Intransitive

Some statal active verbs, which can be used as both transitive & intransitive, have no passive counterparts. Such kind of verbs include *have* (means *owning*), *lack* (means *be insufficient*), *resemble* (means *be similar to*) as in the following sentences:

1) a. John *has* a new car.

* A new car is had by John.

2) a. Dick *lacks* courage and intelligence.

* Courage and intelligence are lacked by Dick.

3) a. Tom *resembles* his father in character.

* Tom's father is resembled by Tom in character.

There are verbs that can be either transitive or intransitive and which can be active in form but passive in meaning. The following two points may be noted. The first of these which occurs chiefly in the present progressive, if found in some of the daily expressions and professional jargons known as remnants of Old English, for example:

The house is *building*.

The book is *printing*.

The dinner is *cooking*.

Verbs used in this way can also be made passive. Let's compare the following progressive passive version with the

above sentences:

The house is *being built*. The book is *being printed*. The dinner is *being cooked*.

The second version occurring frequently in the simple present is only found when the subject is represented as having certain inherent qualities which promote, hamper, or prevent the realization of the idea expressed by the predicate verb, for example:

Tomatoes *bruise* easily. My voice *doesn't carry* well. Nylon *dries* quickly. The door *won't lock*.

By the side of the active constructions under the discussion there exist corresponding passive, but they have a demonstrably different meaning. For example:

His novels don't sell. \longleftrightarrow His novels are not sold.

When we say the sentence in the previous pattern, we suggest that they have certain inherent qualities which prevent or adversely affect their sale, that they definitely do not belong to the category of best-sellers or quality; when we say that in the latter pattern, we make a mere statement of fact about them.

Some transitive verbs in English have a tendency of intransitivity. When patient is in the nominative position, the transitive verb is used as intransitive one, and the actor is not concerned. The verbs are usually followed by some gradable or statal adverbs like *well, nicely, easily, smoothly*. Some common intransitive verbs like these are *read, write, wash, clean, draw, burn, cook, photograph*, etc, as in the following sentences:

1) The cloth *washes well*.

*The cloth is washed well.

2) The book *sells well*.

* The book is sold well.

3) The poem *reads smoothly*.

* The poem is read smoothly.

4) The ball *rolls nicely*

* The ball is rolled nicely.

5) The cistern doesn't *clean easily*.

* The cistern isn't cleaned easily.

6) The orange *peels easily*.

*The orange is peeled easily.

7) This kind of rice *cooks more quickly* than that kind.

* This kind of rice is cooked more quickly than that kind.

8) The pen *writes smoothly*.

* The pen is written smoothly.

9) I always *photograph well*.

*I am always photographed well.

This kind of intransitivity can express the property of the patient, but not the action of it. So it shows statal activity, and has no passive counterpart.

D. Some Other Special Cases

In the locative adverbial containing a preposition and a locative noun, the locative noun (functioning as the object of the preposition) can not perform as the subject in a sentence, so the sentence in active voice cannot be transferred into passive one, for instance:

1) a. He has traveled *in America*.

*America has been traveled in by him.

2) a. She has never walked *in the street*.

* The street has never been walked in by her.

3) a. The piano won't go *through the narrow entrance*.

* The narrow entrance won't be gone through by the piano.

As for some link verbs, such as *smell, taste, sound, prove, feel, seem, look, remain, etc*, the active form of them can express the passive meaning, so passive counterparts are unnecessary. For example:

1) The flowers *smell* sweet.

2) That *sounds* very reasonable.

3)The story *proved* quite false.

III. CONCLUSION

Language always develops with society. We usually search for the simplest way to express what we mean. The variety in English voice shows the tendency to be simpler. The active voice will take place some passivisation. This kind of linguistic phenomenon is sure to become usual with the development of English. So, a new topic on linguistic study is how to search for the objective rules for the peculiar kind of linguistic phenomenon. All the cases mentioned above are just a part of it. Maybe, they will draw much more attention of English learners and stimulate them to study it in detail.

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Peer-to-peer Corrective Feedback in a Group Interaction

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Abstract—Interaction is regarded as a fundamental requirement of second language acquisition (SLA). The study investigated the provision of corrective feedback and learner repair of errors following feedback in interactional context of peer-to-peer conversations, particularly in a group setting. A total of four students in their early twenties participated in the study. These students are participants of the “Friends of English” (FoE) programme conducted by Centre of Teaching and Learning, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. The relationship among error types, feedback types and learner repairs were examined. The interaction between these students in a group setting was recorded using *Sony Sound Forge*. The recorded interactions were transcribed and coded for types of errors (Syntactic / Lexical / L1), types of negative implicit feedback (Negotiation / Recasts) and learner repairs. Findings indicate that the mentor focused on recasts. He provided implicit negative feedback in the form of recasts to all three types of learner errors while engaging in the discussions. The majority of L1 errors were corrected followed by Lexical errors. Syntactic errors had the least number of repairs. Lexical error was the focus of the mentor as over half of Lexical errors received feedback followed by Syntactic error and L1 use.

Index Terms—peer-to-peer, group discussion, implicit negative feedback, recasts, lexical error, syntactic error, L1 use, learner repair

I. INTRODUCTION

In line with the new world of globalization, international communication has been increasing and resulting in the growing demand for communicative competence in English in Malaysia. Many graduates are unemployed and one of the reasons of the unemployment is their lack of English communication skills. The deficiency of communicative competence in English in Malaysia appears to result from the lack of interpersonal interaction in English as a Second Language (ESL) learning context where English is not fully used as a means of communication. Thus, this research examines the benefits of corrective feedback in a different context, other than classroom interaction.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the vital requirements for second language acquisition (SLA) to occur is through interaction. Researchers such as Krashen, 1986; Rivers, 1987 & Ellis, 1988 have proposed that the important element in the teaching of communication as well as language acquisition is the development of interactional competence. The interactionist perspectives in SLA have placed much attention on the role of interaction in general, and meaning negotiation in particular, with respect to the conditions considered theoretically important for SLA (Pica, 1994, cited in Cheon, H. 2003). Pica (1994) also claims that interaction modification through meaning negotiation is one of the ways for SLA to occur, that is by helping learners make input comprehensible and modify their own output, thus providing opportunities

for them to access second language (L2) form and meaning. Therefore it is considered as very important for L2 teachers to construct an interactive learning environment in which learners can negotiate meaning through interaction.

According to Hatch (1978) and Long (1983), second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have investigated the effects of participating in communicative interaction on second language (L2) development. In addition to the advantages learners can get when given the opportunity to interact in their L2s (Mackey, 1999), researchers have attempted to explain that participation in interaction may promote linguistic development. One common account suggests that interaction is beneficial because it provides learners with exposure to negative feedback in response to their non target like utterances (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996 & Pica, 1994).

As agreed by Oliver (2000) and Pica (1994), implicit negative feedback is more commonly provided in naturalistic interaction in comparison with explicit feedback in the same naturalistic setting. Such implicit negative feedback includes various types of interactional features such as recasts and negotiation strategies that provide the unacceptability of non target utterances (Carroll & Swain, 1993).

Input as one of the most important aspects in second language acquisition (SLA) has been agreed by many second language researchers. As proposed by Krashen (1981; 1985 & 1987), Gass and Varonis (1994) language learning and language acquisition is closely related to the amount of comprehensible input a learner receives. However, there are different opinions on the type of input (implicit and explicit) in order for language acquisition to occur. According to Long (1996) and White (1990), negative evidence (both explicit and implicit) provides the needed information to learners about what is not possible in the target language (TL). As an example, consider the following:

Speaker 1: Hana go to the national zoo yesterday.

Speaker 2: Hana went?

In the set of interaction above, Speaker 1 receives feedback about the ungrammaticality of what was said. Speaker 1 might not realize that the feedback is intended to be the correction for the ungrammaticality of his utterance, and might as well think that it is just a clarification request by Speaker 2. This example shows how negative feedback occurs in interaction. It is implicit information to show to the learner what is not possible in the target language.

Following Morris (2005), negative evidence can be provided pre-emptively or reactively. Pre-emptive negative evidence is provided to learners before they attempt to produce language structures which were done by providing and explaining grammar rules, while reactive negative evidence is available as a response to an ill-formed utterance. Reactive negative evidence "highlights differences between the target language and a learner's output and as such is described as negative feedback (NF)" (Oliver, 2000, p. 120).

In Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, he argues that negotiation for meaning elicits NF, and that NF contains various types of reformulation and repetition in addition to input modifications that serve to make L2 target forms salient to learners. Thus, NF facilitates second language development.

Based on these claims, it shows that NF carries important pedagogical and theoretical implications for classroom SLA. If this research shows that peer to peer interactions make NF available to them, in a form that is usable and used by them, and thus facilitates L2 development, we can gain a better understanding of the relevance of classroom interactions between teacher-learners and between learners and peers.

Although many studies have been done on corrective feedback in negotiated interaction, few or none focused on mentor-mentee or peer-to-peer interaction in a group setting outside of the classroom. Mentor-mentee or peer-to-peer interaction creates a different context of interaction apart from classroom interaction.

Therefore, this research is carried out to examine the benefits of corrective feedback in this different context, other than classroom interaction. It is also questionable whether implicit negative feedback occurs in a way that is usable by learners in mentor-mentee context. Thus, this research is one avenue in showing the availability of implicit negative feedback and the relationship among error types, feedback types and immediate learner repair in a context that is different from most of the research that has been done.

This research seeks the following objectives; a) to discover the type(s) of learners' errors that lead(s) to implicit negative feedback. b) to examine the type(s) of learners' errors that was repaired when receiving implicit negative feedback. c) to ascertain the type of learners' error that was the focus of implicit negative feedback given by the peer.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study are members of "Friends of English" (FoE) programme conducted by English Language Unit from Center for Teaching and Learning (CTL), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). This programme is one of the courses offered by CTL under English Language Support Programme which offers opportunity for UTM students to practise using English in a semi-casual, relaxed and informal way. The goal of this programme is to improve English proficiency of UTM students through interaction. This can be achieved by carrying out conversations with mentors or Conversation Partners.

The Conversation Partners are UTM students who have undergone training in facilitating discussion through one-on-one or group discussion as well as training in teaching English. Therefore, the Conversation Partners are students who are undertaking TESL (Teaching English as Second Language) programme. The focus group of this study is one of the groups in this FoE programme whereby the researcher consistently recorded the interaction during the meetings.

However, the mentor was not a native speaker, but uses English as his first language in a fluent and accurate manner and has undergone training in teaching English.

B. Speech Sample

The conversations among FoE members during their meetings are recorded. The duration of each recording is fifty minutes to one hour of interaction with the same participants throughout the semester. The frequency of recordings that is collected is five recordings, which includes the whole conversation. After the conversation session, the recorded interaction is transcribed. The research focuses on three variables in the analysis of the transcription. The first variable is implicit corrective feedbacks which are negotiations and recasts. The second variable is the three different errors or “unwanted form”; syntactic and lexical errors, as well as uses of first language (L1). The last variable is immediate repair done by the learners following feedback.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings permit the following responses to the three questions posed earlier in the study. What type(s) of learner errors lead to implicit negative feedback? What type(s) of errors was repaired when learners receive implicit negative feedback? What type of learner errors was the focus of implicit negative feedback given by peer? The result and discussion for each question posed in this research is shown below.

A. What Type(s) of Learners' Errors Lead to Implicit Negative Feedback?

When the peers in this study engaged in the semi-formal interaction, they were provided feedback in response to the learners' errors by the mentor. The results show that all three types of error made had received feedback by the mentor. All three types of error identified in the study lead to implicit negative feedback in the form of recasts. However, there were very little corrections in the form of negotiation. Learners were consistently provided with recasts as the corrective feedback of their errors. As shown in Table I, over 38% of the errors were lexical, thus making it the highest percentage of the error which received feedback. 34% was syntactic and only 28% was L1. Table II illustrates that the highest percentage of syntactic errors done which received feedback was in session 3, whereby 60% of the errors made were syntactic error. This is different with lexical errors where a total of 53% of the lexical errors receiving feedback was done in session 5. As for the usage of L1 which received feedback, most of it was committed during the fifth session. The outcome of this analysis might be related to the background of the mentor. He is someone who has undergone training in teaching English as a Second Language; therefore, he may be comfortable in correcting the learners' errors. He may have perceived himself as not just an ordinary peer, but also a teacher to the other speakers, which may explain why all types of errors were given feedback.

TABLE I:
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS (RECEIVING FEEDBACK (RECASTS) BY ERROR TYPES

SESSION/ERROR	SYNTACTIC	LEXICAL	L1
1	5 (9%)	5 (8%)	6 (13%)
2	9 (17%)	19 (31%)	17 (38%)
3	25 (46%)	8 (13%)	9 (20%)
4	15 (28%)	21 (34%)	6 (13%)
5	0 (0%)	8 (13%)	7 (16%)
TOTAL/ ERROR	54 (34%)	61 (38%)	45 (28%)

Total number of errors: 160

TABLE II:
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS (RECEIVING FEEDBACK (RECASTS) BY SESSIONS

ERROR/ SESSION	1	2	3	4	5
SYNTACTIC	5 (31%)	9 (20%)	25 (60%)	15 (36%)	0 (0%)
LEXICAL	5 (31%)	19 (42%)	8 (19%)	21 (50%)	8 (53%)
L1	6 (38%)	17 (38%)	9 (21%)	6 (14%)	7 (47%)
TOTAL/SESSION	16 (10%)	45 (28%)	42 (26%)	42 (26%)	15 (9%)

Total number of errors: 160

B. What Type(s) of Errors was Repaired When Learners Receive Implicit Negative Feedback?

Learners repaired 74% of all three types of errors made throughout the FoE session. The majority of repairs done was for L1 use (82%), followed by lexical errors (79%) and syntactic errors (63%). (Figure1). While most of L1 use and the majority of lexical errors were corrected, the rate of syntactic error correction was the lowest. Why were most L1 uses repaired? These students who joined FoE programme need to have their own self-motivation to learn English through interaction. Therefore, they may have just been careful in tolerating their own L1 usage. The outcome that shows lexical errors were corrected at higher rates than syntactic errors should not come as a surprise, as the focus of FoE is to encourage fluency over accuracy. Therefore, the learners and the mentor may have concentrated more on their lexical growth over grammatical accuracy. In addition, the mentor may not have as much chance to correct syntactic errors done due to the on-going interaction by the learners whereby he does not want to interfere with the learners' fluency and confidence as they are speaking.

From the findings, over seventy percent of learners' errors that received feedback were repaired. Studies that examined face-to-face and child-to-child interactions have also reported that children frequently repair their errors immediately following feedback (Oliver, 2000). This is also true with regard to this peer-to-peer interaction. It is possible that the rate of repair was high because, peers are comfortable with each other and considered as eager to learn, thus may not be afraid and willing to take chances when producing or modifying their L2 with their peers or mentor. Following the feedback, the learners repaired the majority of lexical errors and most of the L1 uses. They repaired their syntactic error the least in comparison to the repair of lexical and L1 errors. It is possible that syntactic errors are more difficult to process than lexical errors because processing and assessing the rules of grammar is far more complex than retrieving lexical items (Morris, 2005). In addition, the learners are not focusing on form, but more on fluency in English, as the main objective of FoE is for the learners to improve their English communication proficiency in a casual and informal way. Therefore, the mentor focuses less in syntactic uses over lexical errors.

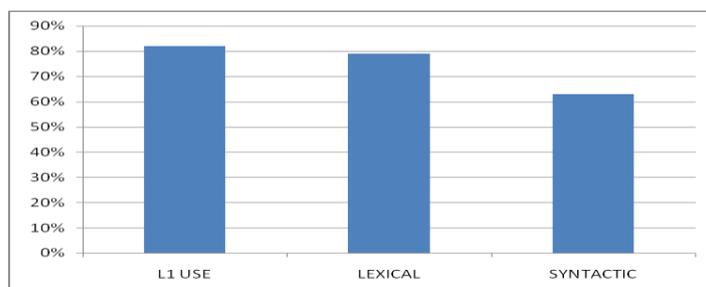


Figure 1: Percentage of Repairs of Errors (Receiving Feedback (Recasts)) throughout the sessions.

C. What Type of Learners' Error was the Focus of Implicit Negative Feedback Given by Peer?

Of the three types of errors, lexical use was the main focus of recasts by the peer. 38% of the feedback provided to the learner was for lexical errors. 34% of the recasts were meant for the syntactic error and only 28% was for L1 uses. (Refer to Table 1). The main focus of feedback by the mentor was for lexical uses. This may happen due to the fact that lexical errors are easier to correct because it is usually made in the form of incorrect and inappropriate vocabulary. Therefore, the mentor could easily interrupt the interaction to correct the inappropriate vocabulary. This is not true with syntactic errors whereby it is more difficult to correct. This is mainly because syntactic error usually happens in a sentence grammatical structure and the mentor would rather have the learners to talk confidently than stopping them just to correct their syntactic errors.

V. CONCLUSION

This study could support other studies on the issue of corrective feedback considering the context in which it was carried out. This study investigated the provision of implicit negative feedback demonstrated in a group of peer-to-peer interaction. The findings show that all repairs followed implicit negative feedback in the form of recasts. Therefore, this study indicates some support for the use of recasts rather than the use of negotiation. Teachers could be familiarized with the techniques of corrective feedback, especially the implicit feedback which will keep the communicative nature of the language classes. Moreover, designing communicative tasks to provide opportunities for corrective feedback and repairs through one of the recommended ways, especially between peers, seems very much advisable. This hopefully will encourage the language acquisition among the learners.

Since this study was narrowed down in terms of its variables, such as its participants and types of corrective feedback, it seems necessary to point out some further research to be done in this regard. Firstly, considering the fact that this study was limited to only one type of corrective feedback, i.e., implicit negative feedback, it is suggested that similar studies be conducted with other techniques of corrective feedback especially the explicit ones. Besides that, since the present study focused on only the three types of errors in English, similar studies could examine the occurrence of errors in terms of other structures in English or any other languages. Furthermore, the need is felt to carry out similar research to investigate the long-term effects of negotiation and recasts to the learners repair through different techniques,

strategies and setting. Finally, this study could be replicated with learners at higher and intermediate levels of language proficiency.

In conclusion, by investigating the effect of implicit negative feedback in a group of peer-to-peer interaction, it is hoped that some contributions could be made to the development of language teaching. Besides, it is believed that this study has covered a narrow scope of corrective feedback issue, and other researchers and interested students are recommended to carry out related studies to push the frontiers of knowledge in this regard.

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Online Discussion: Self-repair Enhancement of EFL Learners

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Abstract—With the rapid development of technologies, on-line learning has gained an increasingly important role in foreign language learning and teaching in recent years. While many studies (e.g., Herring, 1999; Greenfield, 1984) have examined the effects of on-line chatting on students' learning, few have looked into self-repair of the produced utterances by students in on-line chatting. This study investigated the difference between the interactions in on-line chat rooms and regular classroom discussions, with regard to self-repair, to figure out chatting potentials in enhancing foreign language development. Forty intermediate female students with the age range of 14-18 participated in this study. They were randomly divided into two groups of on-line chatting treatment and face-to-face class treatment, 20 each. The instruments included in this study were a pre-research questionnaire, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), a pretest and a posttest, Yahoo Messenger Software, and a voice recorder. The data were collected through a pretest-posttest design, transcription of students' discussions, and printouts of the chat sessions. The comparison of on-line chatting and traditional face-to-face class discussions suggested that using on-line chatting could result in progress of learning a foreign language (i.e., accuracy of their speech) through self-repair. Furthermore, according to the findings of this study, on-line chatting provided the participants with a unique opportunity to put their grammatical knowledge into practice through meaningful communication. Moreover, most of the errors the learners repaired belonged to the category of subject-verb agreement, presumably because such errors might jeopardize the accurate speaking. The results of the study may have significant implications for teaching, testing and materials development.

Index Terms—on-line discussion, error correction, on-line learning, self-repair, synchronous computer-mediated communication

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop. In order to be able to speak a foreign language learners must master the sound system of the language, have a great knowledge of vocabulary, and put words in correct strings. With increasing globalization among people from different countries, one can see that in order to communicate with one another from different countries around the world, accurate speaking is highly important. Due to the enhanced speed of on-line communication, one can improve speaking skills through World Wide Web's facilities such as on-line learning.

In the past several years, online learning systems have been taking an important part in higher educational systems (Geri & Gefen, 2007). According to Hiltz and Turoff (2005), online learning is a new social process that is beginning to act as a complete substitute for both distance learning and the traditional face-to-face class. In the last decade, we have been witnessing an enormous increase in computer-mediated communication (CMC). CMC includes a variety of electronic message systems and electronic conference systems, which can be supplemented by audio and video links. CMC can be synchronous (e.g., chat) or asynchronous (e.g., email), and the messages are predominantly typewritten (Anderson, 2001). Compared with email and other computer-assisted communication tools such as discussion forums, *online chat rooms* have a greater potential of enhancing language teaching and learning because they provide synchronous, real-time interaction among participants. Participants have to process what they read on the screen quickly and give their response instantaneously, appropriately, and to the point.

In teaching, feedback refers to comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other person. We have different kinds of feedback like: Auditory Feedback, Kinesthetic Feedback, Proprioceptive Feedback, and Error Correction (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Aiming to investigate the enhancement of EFL learners' self-repair, the present study focused specifically on this type of error correction among all the other kinds of feedback.

Error correction and corrective feedback are the areas that bridge the concerns of EFL teachers, researchers, and instructional designers. As defined by Ellis (2007), error correction is a technique to help learners correct errors by providing them with some kind of prompting, and corrective feedback taking the form of responses to text containing an

error. Students can often correct themselves when they realize they have made a mistake. Sometimes their mistakes are simply a "slip" and they are aware of the correct version. So, one choice for teachers would be to give students a chance and time to correct themselves. As stated by Liebscher and Dail- O'cain (2003), self-repair takes place when speakers correct their own speech. The purpose of the current research is, therefore, to investigate whether on-line chatting can enhance EFL learners' performance through self-repair. The following sections provide an overview of on-line learning focusing on on-line chatting and feedback focusing on error correction and self-repair.

II. BACKGROUND

A. *An Overview of On-line Learning*

In spite of their multiple commitments in their adult lives, instructors refer to on-line learning as available alternative to accomplish academic goals. It has had a consistent growth rate for at least 10 years (Livingston & Wirt, 2004), and is defined as:

"The use of the Internet to access learning materials; to interact with the content, instructor, and other learners; and to obtain support during the learning processes, in order to acquire knowledge, to construct personal meanings, and to grow from the learning experience." (Alley, 2004). In on-line discussion, for example, all students have a voice and no one, not even an instructor, can dominate the conversation, accordingly, many researchers note that students perceive on-line discussion a more equitable and more democratic than traditional class room discussions (Harasim, 1990; Levin, Kim, & Riel, 1990). Because it is asynchronous, on-line discussion also affords participants the opportunity to reflect on their classmates' contributions while creating their own, and to reflect on their own writing before posting it. This creates certain mindfulness among students and a culture of reflection in course discussion (Garrison, 2003; Hiltz, 1994; Poole, 2000).

(Barile & Durso, 2002) and (Basque & Pudelko, 2004), and Dennis (2003) found that the use of a chat tool proved to be as effective as face-to-face communication in collaborative writing tasks. Furthermore, Ruberg, Moore, and Taylor (1996) found that synchronous computer-mediated communication leads to more experimentation, sharing of ideas, increased and more distributed participation compared to face-to-face communication. Finally, (Condon & Cech, 1996a) and (Condon & Cech, 1996b) and (Jonassen & Kwon, 2001) show that groups who use computer-mediated chat compensate for the communication constraints by being more concise in their interactions. They found that students using a chat tool eliminate unnecessary elaborations and repetitions, and seek to increase the efficiency of their communication because of the slower pace of interaction.

B. *Feedback*

The study of feedback has permeated research on human behavior in organizations. Obviously, feedback is important. Unfortunately, the obviousness of its importance is not matched by the level of detail with which it has been studied. A review of current research on feedback suggests the need to understand feedback as part of broad organizational processes. The role of feedback as a fundamental organization subsystem is then developed, introducing additional variables necessary to understand the feedback process. The resulting framework is then applied to the integration of the recently acquired business. A feedback systems perspective is used to analyze several cases in which problems emerged following the acquisition and to consider intervention alternatives. (Narciss & Huth, 2006).

Error Correction

According to Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sack (1977), error correction or " conversational repair" is a mechanism which used to deal with trouble is speaking or understanding". Liebscher and Dailey—O'Cain (2003) argued that it consists of three components: The trouble source; the repair imitation, which is the indication is that there is a trouble to be repaired; and the outcome, which is the response to the repair attempt. To put it in Schegloff et al. words, repair mechanism included repair initiation in which there is no recognizable error.

Self-repair

Self-correction can be viewed as a global goal of language learning, since in the long run learners should be able to make self-initiated self-repair (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Reaching this goal, however, is problematic. If learners can identify their own errors and self-correct them, we might wonder why they made the error in the first place, especially for writing where learners can devote time to accuracy. Most approaches to self-correction, therefore, do not leave learners totally to their own devices, but require teachers to provide some support. Usually, this support involves detecting and pointing out the errors, while leaving the actual correction to the learners (Makino, 1993). Thus, this study focuses on this kind of error correction (i.e., self-repair) through on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussions.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

With the advancements in information technology, there has been a growing interest in the use of computer network for second/foreign language situation. Many people consider chat not as a tool of communication but as a tool for wasting their time. On-line chatting enables learners to speak with reduced anxiety and it allows learners to conceal personal information such as race and gender that might lead to positive/negative effects in oral performance in EFL.

Unlike the real world in which people may be sensitive to others' race and gender as the important factors for making friends, this is not the case in the chat rooms.

In conveying the messages spoken or written, students most probably do not pay due attention to their mistakes whether grammatical or lexical. They just want to communicate believing those mistakes do not block the communication process. In English classes neither peer nor self-correction was found to be taken place on the part of students in the case of grammatical or lexical mistakes. The only correction observed was actually made by teachers either explicitly or implicitly. With regard to this fact, and according to the interview conducted with some EFL teachers and based on the researcher's own experience as an English teacher, it is obvious that most students after passing some English courses still do not care about their grammatical and lexical mistakes, more precisely; they do not care about accuracy of their speech. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to examine the EFL language learners' occurrence of self-repairs in their on-line chatting in comparison with face-to-face class discussions and also to investigate the number of self-repairs in both groups. Findings from this study may help language teachers to come to a better understanding of the value of electronic online chat, and encourage them to use on-line chatting as a fruitful tool to provide a pleasant environment and promote students' willingness to interact in the target language. It is also hoped that the findings make the teachers well aware of the advantages of self-repair over other types of repair.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As mentioned earlier, the current study aims to shed light on the impact of self-repair through on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussions on EFL learners' accuracy by addressing the following major questions:

1. Does self-repair affect the grammatical and lexical knowledge of EFL learners equally in both on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion?
2. Are the numbers of EFL learners' self-repairing their utterances the same in on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion?
3. What are the most common problematic areas for on-line chatters and students in face-to-face class discussion in terms of accuracy of their speech?

V. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

These questions can be reformulated as the following null hypotheses:

1. Self-repair does not affect the grammatical and lexical knowledge of EFL learners equally in both on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion.
2. The number of self-repair occurrences is equal in both on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion.

VI. METHOD

A. Participants

Initially, 80 EFL learners were randomly selected. They were female students within the age range of 14-18. To make sure about their levels of language proficiency at the time of study, a standard OPT (Edwards, 2009) was administrated and 50 homogeneous intermediate learners were selected. Then, to gather information about the participants' literacy and familiarity with computer, Internet, and on-line chatting, a pre-research questionnaire was administrated at the first session. Finally, following the students' answers to the questionnaire, 40 learners were selected to serve as the final participants of the present study. Students were randomly divided into two on-line chatting treatment and face-to-face class discussion treatment groups. The on-line chatting treatment group was asked to chat and put their grammatical and lexical knowledge into practice; while, the face-to-face class discussion treatment group participated in their regular class discussions.

B. Materials

1. Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

The OPT (Edwards, 2009) was administrated to assess the current level of language proficiency of the groups. In fact, it was used to exclude from the study those learners whose language proficiency level differed significantly from that of others. According to the attached scoring chart of the OPT, those students whose score was above 31, were selected as intermediate. The OPT included 50 multiple choice questions which assessed students' knowledge of key grammar and vocabulary, a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions and an optional writing task that assessed students' ability to produce the language.

2. Pre-Research Questionnaire

To gather information about the participants' literacy and familiarity with computer, Internet, and on-line chatting, a pre-research questionnaire was administrated at the first session. In fact, it was used to exclude from the study those learners who did not have familiarity with computer especially Internet and on-line chatting.

3. Pre and Post- tests

To assess the learners' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, a standard multiple choice pre-test (Allen, 2004) was given to both groups of the participants. The pre-test consisted of 60 questions. Since only 40 questions were used in the

present study, after piloting the test, its reliability was established. It was .917 which was significant at $p = .000$. So, the results turned out to have sufficient reliability. For the post test, three months later the same procedure was followed.

4. Yahoo Messenger Software

The software used in this study for on-line chatting treatment group was the Yahoo Messenger. All students had an ID for chatting. Both the researcher and the participants added each other's IDs to their contact lists. Therefore, students and the researcher could chat (in a written form) with each other privately. The program, could record all the written transcriptions entered in chat window. This provided the researcher with an instantaneous transcript of all user exchanges, and all the written transcripts could conveniently be printed.

5. Voice Recorder

The instrument used in this study for face-to-face class discussion treatment group was a voice recorder. For further analysis, students' discussion was recorded by the voice recorder.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Research Question 1

Research question one focuses on whether self-repair affected the grammatical and lexical knowledge of EFL learners equally in both on- line chatting and face-to-face class discussion. In order to answer this research question a pretest and a posttest were employed to both treatment groups, that is, chat group and discussion group. Table 4.1 reveals the descriptive statistics for these two tests and Figure 4.1 illustrates the means in bar chart.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Test	Group	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Pretest	Chat	20	31	37	33.90	1.553
	Discussion	20	31	35	33.20	1.282
Posttest	Chat	20	34	39	36.70	1.582
	Discussion	20	32	38	34.80	1.908

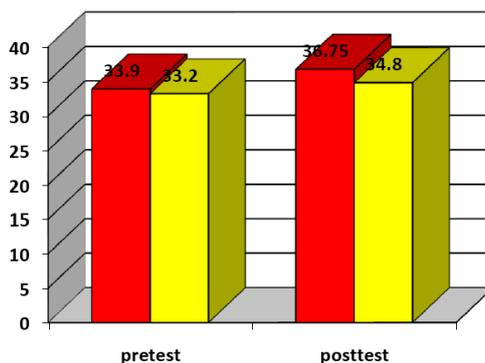


Figure 4.1. Graphical Representation of the Pretest and Posttest Means

It can be seen in the above figure that the means of the groups are different for both the pretest and the posttest. First, in order to see if the difference between the pretests was statistically significant or not, a t-test was employed. Table 4.2 shows the results of the t-test for the pretest.

TABLE 4.2.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST ON THE PRETEST

t	df	p	Mean Difference
1.555	38	.128	.70

The statistics in Table 4.2 indicates that the amount of t-observed ($t\text{-observed} = 1.555$, $p = .128$) is not high enough to denote a statistically significant difference between the two groups; therefore, it can be claimed that the two groups were not different in their language proficiency at the beginning of the experiment.

At the end of the experiment another test was administered to find out which treatment produced better effects in the participants. By referring to Table 4.1, one can see that the performances of the two groups were not the same. Again, to understand if this difference between the groups was statistically significant or not another t-test was implemented. Table 4.3 depicts the results of this second t-test.

TABLE 4.3.
THE RESULTS OF THE T-TEST ON THE POSTTEST

t	df	p	Mean Difference
3.545	38	.001	1.95

With regard to Table 4.3, it can be understood that the amount of t-observed (t-observed = 3.545) is significant at the probability level of $p = .001$ which is statistically significant. In other words, the chat group outperformed the discussion group in the posttest. Therefore, it can be said that online chatting produced a better effect in participants' self-repair than face-to-face class discussion. So, the first null hypothesis is rejected.

B. Research Question 2

Research question two asks whether the numbers of learners' self-repairing their utterances are the same in an on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion. To address to this question the number of self-corrections for both groups was counted separately. Table 4.4 shows the total number of self-corrections for individual participants in all sessions.

TABLE 4.4.
THE NUMBER OF SELF-CORRECTIONS FOR EACH PARTICIPANT

Participants	Chat Group	Discussion Group
1	10	15
2	10	18
3	4	21
4	12	18
5	3	15
6	8	18
7	4	15
8	7	15
9	8	13
10	4	18
11	5	16
12	6	18
13	16	14
14	9	12
15	6	13
16	2	17
17	2	12
18	9	17
19	4	16
20	2	14
Total	131	315

Then, in order to find out whether or not the difference between the numbers of self-corrections for the two groups was significant, a chi-square was employed. Table 4.5 shows the results of this test.

TABLE 4.5.
THE RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE FOR SELF-CORRECTIONS

χ^2	df	p
33.173	19	.023

By checking Table 4.5, one can see that the amount of chi-square ($\chi^2 = 33.173$) is significant at the probability level of $p = .023$ which represents a statistically significant difference. In other words, the chat group used fewer self-corrections than the discussion group. Thus, second null hypothesis is also rejected.

C. Research Question 3

Research question three focuses on the most common problematic areas for on-line chatters and students in face-to-face class discussion in terms of accuracy of their speech. In order to answer this research question some qualitative data analyses were conducted.

1. The Problematic Areas of On-line Chatters

Figure 4.2 shows the problematic areas of on-line chatters.

Verbs (Subject-verb agreement and verb tenses)
Articles
Word Choice
Propositions
Plural /s/
Spelling
Word order

Figure 4.2. Problematic Areas of the On-line Chatters

Then the number of correcting attempt by the students was calculated for each of the above area for each group. Table 4.6 indicates this calculation, and Figure 4.3 shows the percentage of the errors graphically.

TABLE 4.6.
NUMERICAL BREAKDOWNS OF ERROR TYPES

Error type	Number of errors	Percentage
Verbs(Subject-verb agreement)and tense	32	24.43
Articles	27	20.61
Word Choice	25	19.08
Preposition	20	15.27
Plural/s/	15	11.45
Spelling	8	6.11
Word order	4	3.05
Total	131	100

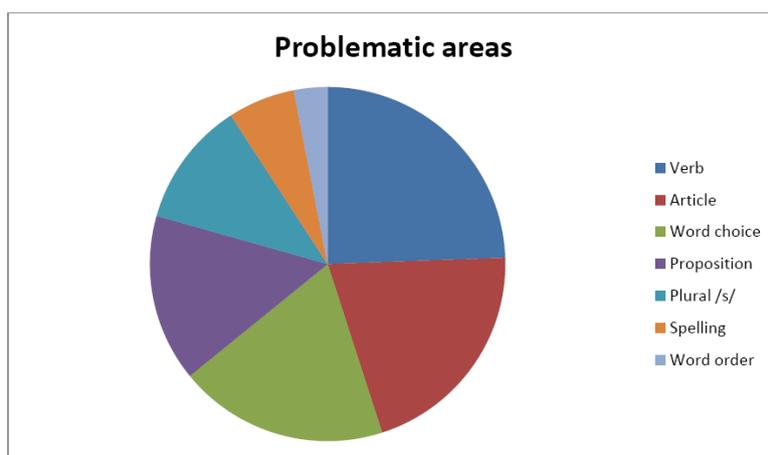


Figure 4.3. Graphical Representation of the Problematic Areas for On-line Chatting Group

In total, 131 occurrences of different types of error were identified for the on-line chatting group. These included errors in verbs (subject-verb agreement) and tense, word choice, articles, prepositions, plural/s/, spelling, and word order. We can see from the above table that most common type of errors belonged to the subject-verb agreement and verb tenses, accounting for almost 24.43% of the total number of errors. On the contrary, the less common type of errors belonged to word order, accounting for 3.05% of the total number of errors. Therefore, according to the data collected from printouts of on-line chatting and the subsequent data analysis, most problematic areas of on-line chatter were determined.

2. The Problematic Areas of Students in Face-to-face Class Discussion

For understanding problematic areas of students in face-to-face class discussion treatment group the same procedure was followed.

Figure 4.4 shows the problematic areas of students in face-to-face class discussion group.

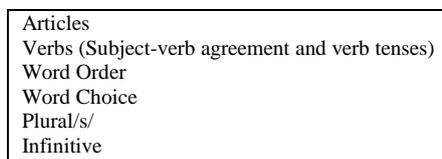


Figure 4.4. The Problematic Areas of Students in Face-to-Face Class Discussion Group

Having known the problematic areas of students in face-to-face class discussion, the researcher calculated the numerical breakdowns of the error types. Table 4.7 indicates this calculation, and Figure 4.5 shows the percentage of the errors graphically.

TABLE 4.7.
NUMERICAL BREAKDOWNS OF ERROR TYPES

Error type	Number of errors	Percentage
Articles	65	20.63
Verbs(Subject-verb agreement and tense)	60	19.05
Word Order	58	18.42
Word Choice	54	17.15
Plural/ s/	50	15.87
Infinitive	28	8.88
Total	315	100

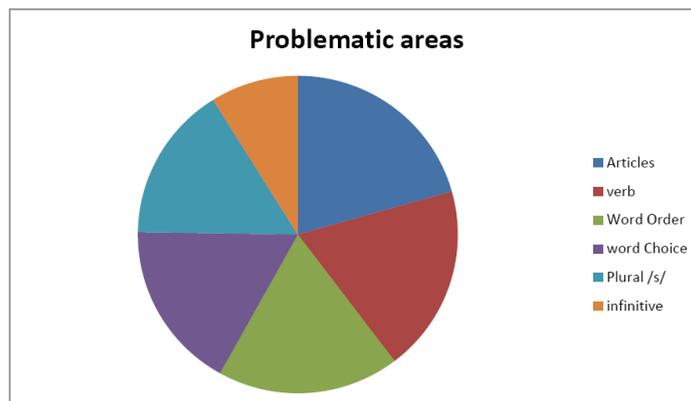


Figure 4.5. Graphical Representation of the Problematic Areas for Students in Face-to-face Class Discussion Group

In total, 315 occurrences of different types of error were identified for the students in face-to-face class discussion. These included errors in articles, verbs (subject-verb agreement) and tense, word order, word choice, plural /s/, and infinitive. We can see from the above table that most common type of errors belonged to the articles, accounting for 20.63% of the total number of errors. On the contrary, the less common type of errors belonged to infinitive, accounting for 8.88% of the total number of errors. A detailed discussion of the results will be presented in the next chapter.

VIII. DISCUSSION

The previous section presented the analysis and results for each research question. This section will discuss those results with the goal of bringing together the findings from the various analyses in order to create an overall picture of self-repair in both on-line chatting and face-to-face discussion.

A. Research Question 1

Concerning the first research question, i.e., "Does self-repair affect the grammatical and lexical knowledge of EFL learners equally in both on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion?", self-repair didn't seem to affect the grammatical and lexical knowledge of EFL learners equally in both on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion. These findings are in line with earlier research conducted by Pellettieri (2000) according to which better comprehension, more successful communication, and a greater quantity of target language production were achieved through negotiation of meaning in on-line chatting. Moreover, Ruberg, Moore, and Taylor (1996) found that synchronous computer-mediated communication leads to more experimentation, sharing of ideas, increased and more distributed participation compared to face-to-face communication.

B. Research Question 2

Regarding the second research question, i.e., "Are the numbers of learners' self-repairing their utterances the same in an on-line chatting and face-to-face class discussion?" the number of correction made by the chat group was smaller than that of the discussion group. The reason for this result can be attributed to the fact that since in on-line chatting, due to the advantageous nature of chat as a written communication, students could type and saw their messages simultaneously, and whenever they saw a question mark or an emoticon which was the symbol of error, they initiated to self-repair, and they never forgot their own messages or even the word which was incorrect because they constantly could check and revise their written messages. Thus, they corrected their committed errors in one attempt or, in some cases, in two.

In contrast, students in face-to-face class discussion were deprived of the benefits of checking their conversation whenever they decided to because it was only oral and they had to use their memory to remember what they said. In some cases, because of not remembering their exact words, they attempted to make another mistake besides the one they made in their first utterance and in some cases the structure of their sentences was changed; therefore, this made them to commit to more self-corrections. That's why the number of self-repairs was higher in this group as compared to the chat group. These findings are in line with earlier researches conducted by Condon and Cech, (1996a & b). They believed that, since written messages have more permanence than spoken utterances, students have more time to process incoming messages through chat. This would mean that they are able to interpret complex instructions more easily than in spoken interaction. In addition, computer-mediated chat allows students to revise messages before they send them which would facilitate the composition of more precise and concise instructions. Chat may give students more time to plan clearer, less ambiguous instructions and messages than are usually found in spoken dialogues, where there is a constant pressure to keep the interaction going. Students communicating through chat have more time to process incoming messages. Thus, both studies aimed to say that students are able to interpret and correct complex instructions more easily than in spoken interactions.

C. Research Question 3

Addressing the third research question "what are the most common problematic areas for on-line chatters and students in face-to-face class discussion"? , the most common types of errors belonged to the subject-verb agreement and verb tenses for the on-line chatters and articles for the students in face-to-face class discussion group. This may indicate that the use of subject-verb agreement, verb tense and article are perhaps difficult items for the Iranian EFL learners to learn, and that is why students after passing some English courses either in institutes or universities, still cannot speak accurately. The obtained results of this study are in contrast to earlier research conducted by Yuan (2003). The difference between the findings of this study and the previous one can be attributed to the fact that the participants in Yuan's study were ESL university male professors; while in this study they were female EFL intermediate learners. So, one can find out that participants were different in terms of age, sex, language proficiency, and the settings in which they learned English (i.e., SL and FL). That is why, Yuan (2003) determined the most common problematic areas for on-line chatters as word form/selection; while, in the present study the most common problematic areas were subject-verb agreement, especially third person /s/ for on-line chatters.

IX. IMPLICATIONS

This study can have some pedagogical implications for the teachers, students and syllabus designers.

The results are also useful for language teachers. Language teachers should promote the students' positive attitude toward academic English learning. They should create a lively, challenging and non-threatening atmosphere for learning where the effective barriers are kept at minimum.

Another point which is worth mentioning is that at the end of the experiment with on-line chatters, all students mentioned that they had enjoyed the on-line chatting as it was an exciting and interesting way to improve their grammatical and lexical knowledge resulting in accurate speaking. They also said that it was a departure from the usual classroom environment and enthusiastically asked for more on-line chatting. Therefore, interested teachers can try the experience of on-line teaching and help their students improve and put to use their English language knowledge.

Last, but not least, considering the situation of EFL in Iran, syllabus designers and material developers had better use the benefits of on-line chatting in their text books. In other words, since one of the most common problematic areas for Iranian EFL learners is subject-verb agreement and verb tenses, they can provide much more about these items in their textbooks so that students may improve their problems regarding such items.

X. LIMITATIONS

When considering the implications of the study, discussed above, there are several limitations that researchers and teachers should be aware of.

1. One of the biggest disadvantages and drawbacks for using on-line chatting in Iran is the cost. Connecting schools to the Internet is very costly. That is why the participants and the researcher accessed the chat room facilities from their houses.

2. Some of the students were slow in typing their messages. As a result, chat's time exceeded 45 minutes in some cases.

3. The number of participants is limited to only 40 intermediate students; however, to increase the reliability of the study more participants at other levels of proficiency should be included.

XI. SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study aimed to answer a limited number of questions raised in the first chapter. This is while many other questions may be raised as the followings:

1. In this study, only one proficiency level (i.e. intermediate) was included. It is suggested that learners in other age groups participate in further studies.

2. The participants in this study were all female learners. Thus, another study can be investigated male students' performance in on-line chatting.

3. The students who participated in this study were all from a single language background, i.e. Persian. In a more extensive research of this kind, students from a range of language background can be selected.

4. This study used the messages corresponded among the EFL learners; other studies can be conducted following the same procedure to identify the effects of self-repair enhancement among the members of other academic or professional communities.

5. Other studies can be carried out to find out the use of on-line chatting as an effective tool in collaborative writing tasks.

XII. CONCLUSION

The results discussed above demonstrated that on-line chatters produced a better performance with regard to self-repair. Such self-repairs were useful because they showed the students' awareness and conscious knowledge of the

language. By studying the self-repair, one would understand the learners' linguistic knowledge and abilities better and, therefore, offer a more appropriate program for them.

With regard to noticing errors, Richard Schmidt's *Noticing Hypothesis* (1990) stated that "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p.129). According to Schmidt (1990), noticing meant focal awareness (p.132) whereas "in-take meant once something is noticed by the learner".

In the present study, it was seen that class discussions may have increased the salient grammatical/lexical forms in English, but on-line chatting enabled students to put those grammatical/lexical knowledge which was learned theoretically in class to practice in a meaningful communication.

Secondly, it was shown that chat group used fewer self-repairs than face-to-face discussion group. This shows that due to the nature of chat as a written communication and students' accessibility to written form of their messages, they corrected their messages in a fewer number of attempts than the students in face-to-face class discussion. These findings lead us to conclude that on-line chatting activities enable the learners to attend to both linguistic forms and communicative contents, resulting in meaningful communication in more accurate linguistic forms. In addition, self-repairs in the flow of spontaneous on-line interaction gave the researcher a chance to see certain learning processes that the learners went through when they tried to negotiate meaning in their foreign language, a process that would otherwise be difficult to observe. For example, it was found that most of the errors the learners committed belonged to the categories of subject-verb agreement and verb tenses for the on-line chatters and articles for those students in face-to-face class discussion group, presumably because such errors would often jeopardize the accurate speaking.

Finally, It can be claimed that, based on the results of the present study, a supplementary on-line learning environment may enhance language learning and development. When learners notice the linguistic forms they have learned in class in a real language situation such as on-line chat rooms, they can convert their input into in-take, thus making language acquisition possible.

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How to Enhance Culture Teaching in English Language Classes

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Abstract—Language is closely related to culture. Language expresses and embodies cultural reality, in the meantime, culture exerts enormous influences on language. Therefore, language learning is often culture learning. The author, based on the negligence of culture teaching in English language classes, illustrates the influences of cultural knowledge on reading, translating and intercultural communicating, and proposes suggestions on culture teaching in English language teaching (ELT).

Index Terms—culture teaching, influences, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

In China traditional ways to teach English tend to focus on language itself but ignore culture. Especially under the pressure of college entrance examination, CET-4 and CET-6, exam-oriented teaching is dominant and culture teaching is excluded. As a result, it has been observed that many learners who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) are severely deficient in cultural knowledge, although they got high scores in exams. In recent years, foreign language teaching has got more attention than ever before. More and more foreign language teachers are aware that second language learning is often second culture learning and cultural competence is an integral part of language competence. So it is of great importance to give students culture teaching in ELT. This paper illustrates the influence of cultural knowledge on reading, translating and intercultural communicating, and gives suggestions on culture teaching in EFT.

II. INFLUENCES OF CULTURE ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A. *Relationship between Language and Culture*

Many experts have talked much about the relationship between language and culture. Chinese professor Hu Zhuanglin has presented “It has long been recognized that language is an essential and important part of a given culture and the impact of culture upon a given language is something intrinsic and indispensable.” (Hu, 2001, p.20) In practice, there is a close correlation between language and culture, language is the carrier and reflection of culture. Meanwhile, culture, in a broad sense, including language, imposes great influences on language. Therefore, we must attach more importance to culture teaching in ELT.

B. *Culture and Reading Comprehension*

“Reading comprehension means extracting the required information from the text as effectively as possible. There are two broad levels in reading: i) visual signals from the eyes; ii) a cognitive task of interpreting the visual information, relating the received information with the reader’s own general knowledge, and reconstructing the meaning that the writer hand meant to convey.”(Wang, 2000, p.53) To achieve these two levels of reading is by no means an easy job. Besides linguistic knowledge, readers have to know some cultural background knowledge.

The role of cultural background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory. According to this theory, comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader’s cultural background knowledge and the text. Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one’s own knowledge. (Carrel, 1983) In some cases, we may read an article with some new words or new structures in it, but we can guess the meaning of the article based on our knowledge about the topic without too much difficulty. It can be seen that one’s cultural knowledge plays a more important role than new words and new structures in reading comprehension.

However, teaches usually emphasize much on linguistic knowledge and pay little attention to cultural background knowledge. So students are encouraged to expand their vocabularies and to gain greater control over complex syntactic structures so as to improve reading comprehension. Consequently, many EFL learners are unable to read effectively, and frequently fail to comprehend sentences or texts, although they know each word and each sentence structure. It is commonly acknowledged that without learning culture relative to a given topic, thorough comprehension will be difficult or impossible.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that linguistic deficiency is but one of the factors that might have caused students’ poor reading comprehension. It is the lack of cultural background knowledge that is the major element

affecting their comprehension. Therefore, in English language classes teachers should introduce relative cultural knowledge so that students equipped with such knowledge will be able to guess meaning from the printed page. As Goodman once said reading was “a psycholinguistic guessing game”. (Goodman, 1970, p. 259-271)

C. *Culture and Translating*

Speaking of translation, many EFL learners tend to hold that it is a mere inter-lingual transformation. But it's not the case. As discussed above, language is the carrier of culture, so translation is in nature and inter-cultural activity. Nowadays, translation is even regarded as intercultural communication or acculturation by many experts. Culture plays such an important role in translation. So cultural teaching should never be neglected in translating courses.

Some people believe that words or texts in one language can be accurately translated into another as long as the translators use a good bilingual dictionary. Unfortunately, language is not this simple. Accurate and effective translating is a demanding and difficult if not impossible because many words are culture-bound. (Larry, 2000)

In addition, understanding cultural differences will be beneficial to translating as well. There are many cultural differences between China and English-speaking countries, without knowing them, perfect translation is impossible.

So successful translators must learn cultures of the target language and differences between their own culture and the target culture, which is essential to convey the meaning of the original appropriately and perfectly. Otherwise, translation is frequently bound to produce misunderstanding or incomprehension because of cultural orientations.

D. *Culture, Communicating and Intercultural Communicating*

Culture and communication are directly linked. “When cultures differ, communication practices may also differ. As Smith pointed out: In modern society, different people communicate in different ways, and the way people communicate is the way they live. It is their culture, ... Communication and culture are inseparable.” (Larry, 2000, p.95) Culture governs and defines the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted, just because culture conditions us toward one particular mode of communication over another, it is imperative that we learn the culture and the target culture as a first step toward improving intercultural communication.

And English, as a necessary and important tool for intercultural communication, has got more attention in China's classrooms. But unfortunately, traditional ELT has emphasized too much on the teaching of language components and neglected the input of cultures. As a result, when confronted with people from other cultures and are still unable to communicate appropriately. For they lack the culture and the target culture, and are used to thinking according to their train of thought, replacing the target cultural pattern with their own cultural pattern. That is to say, they use their own native cultural norms as criteria to communicate and value people in other cultures because of cultural difference unawareness. Then they are not immune to the uncertainty about the behaviors of both themselves and others in the interaction. Should they shake hands or bow? Should they offer a card or wait others to offer them first? How does the other view time and spatial relation? How does the other define status? Frequently the lack of such knowledge results in their failure to assess the potential consequences of their acts in intercultural communication. For instance, the seemingly innocent acts of showing the soles of feet to a strange in Korea or touching a woman they are introduced to in Saudi Arabia could send negative messages that hamper the rest of the encounter.

Especially as the world evolves into the global village, the importance of intercultural communication takes on added urgency. No nation, group, or culture can remain aloof or autonomous. Intercultural contact has been the manor concern today. Within such a global environment, each corner of the world has felt the impact of cultural diversity. Then cooperation among members from various cultures and co-cultures is inevitable, and interpersonal communication between various cultural backgrounds becomes more frequent as well. That is to say people are increasingly communicating across cultures. However, cultural differences will keep people apart. Different customs, values, ways of life, thinking and social norms, and the like may give rise problems in contact, and culture shocks or clashes are unavoidable when we are thruse into a strange culture. By then, how can we be the masters of such social situations? If we understand what members of a particular culture value and pay close attention to the differences between the target culture and our own one, appreciating similarities and accepting differences, we can deepen each other's understanding and clear up each other's misunderstanding. What's more, cultural shock, violence or conflicts arising from cultural differences can be reduced or even avoided. For culture can provide us with the skills and rules necessary to adapt ourselves to the world. (Larry, 2000)

It's true that we send and receive messages not in isolation, but in a specific setting or environment. That's to say, communication always occurs in contexts, and the rules for each context are culturally based. So cultural competence is a component of communicative competence. A successful intercultural communicator understands various types of cultures.

Now from these discussions above, we see that culture exerts numerous influences on EFL learning. Therefore, what EFL learners should be taught is far more than language components and skills, cultures should be included. Culture teaching is the last aspect to be neglected in ELT. Yet, how to conduct culture teaching in English language classes remains problematical.

III. SUGGESTIONS ON CONDUCTING CULTURE TEACHING IN ELT

Culture teaching, in a strict sense, is not an independent course, but an integral component of language teaching. Hence, developing cultural competence is essential in English language teaching. This part is to propose some suggestions on helping students acquire culture knowledge as follows.

A. *Raise Awareness of Culture Learning*

Although it is impossible to teach culture systematically in English language classes, it is possible for teachers to raise students' awareness of culture learning whenever chances emerge. By taking examples, teachers make learners recognize that language and culture are closely related, culture is an important part of English learning, and rich cultural knowledge will improve their ingrate skills in English language. Only when they have a correct recognition for the purpose of culture learning, will they have a positive attitude towards it.

B. *Develop Interest in Culture Learning*

As is well known, interest is the best teacher. It's believed that when learners' curiosity and interests are stimulated, the eternal motivation grows. To arouse students' interest in learning culture, teachers should try to introduce cultural knowledge in an interesting and naturally occurring context. Role-playing about some interesting stories, tales, fables, legends, or festivals in English-speaking countries will serve the purpose quite well. For instance, having introduced some basic knowledge of Christmas, teachers can guide students to celebrate the festival the way in which American people do.

C. *Creation of Intercultural Communication Surroundings*

The most direct way to acquire culture of the target language is to communicate with foreigners. However, the great majorities of the EFL learners have few opportunities to study, work or live in English-speaking community and to communicate with English native speakers directly, they can learn the target culture only in classrooms, or from books, or through mass media, so to create an intercultural communication surroundings is an effective way. For example, in the university where I'm working, a teacher whose native language is English is visited to the weekly-held English Home where students can easily get access to communicating with them directly. Besides, when western festivals come, people perform what westerners do.

D. *Group Discussion about Cultural Phenomena Embodied in Reading Materials*

Discussion is one of the best ways to help students acquire cultural knowledge. When processing the intensive reading and extensive reading texts, teachers should spend as much time as possible on the ideas, ethics, values or customs, and the like embodied in them and organize discussion. Making comparisons and contrasts between Chinese culture and the target culture is the common way to fulfill this task. Moreover, culture notes in textbooks also help us a lot. However, it needs to be pointed out that discussion shouldn't simply be the teacher telling students a body of information, but should be an interactive procedure, in which the teacher and students talk about a given topic. For one thing, the teacher ask students to deliver their ideas about a particular topic and give more sub-questions according to their response, for another thing, students are encouraged to raise their own questions about the topic or about the answers of students. Only in this way can discussion achieve the desired result, helping students understand the culture better.

E. *Utilization of Movies*

Video units and movies in English are now easily available, so the unitization of video movies has become increasingly important to EFL teaching. Students all have a strong desire to understand movies in the target language. Most movies are rich in linguistic contents and cultural backgrounds as well. Characters in movies provide and unrivalled variety of authentic speech and language is introduced in the context various communicative situations and between speakers of different kinds, therefore, students can learn how those people in the culture actually communicate in real situations. Meanwhile, the themes, conversations and actions in movies mirror the habits, beliefs, and customs of the culture, which can serve as good introduction about the various cultural characteristics in English-speaking countries.

F. *Encourage Students to Surf the Internet and Do Duty-report Activity*

Prior to each class, the teacher give students one or two topics related to cultural knowledge and encourage them to surf the Internet for some relative information. Then when the class meets, ask students to deliver their speeches and answer questions from their extrovert and communicative peers, followed by the teacher's summary on the cultural knowledge. In this way, teachers can cultivate students' awareness of learning culture via the Internet on their own.

These suggestions proposed above are only some of the feasible ones. There many others. It is up to the teacher to decide which way or combination of ways to used for particular cultural teaching.

IV. CONCLUSION

Research has shown that there is a close relationship between language and culture, second language learning is often second culture learning and cultural competence is an integral part of language competence. Lack of cultural knowledge

is frequently the major cause of many Chinese EFL students' poor abilities in reading, translating and intercultural communicating, and is also the most neglected factor in English language teaching in China. Therefore, culture teaching in ELT should be what teachers are increasingly concerned about. By using such strategies as watching movies, surfing the Internet, discussing, and the like, teachers introduce and differences between the target culture and the native one, which will greatly contribute to students' cultural competence.

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Translating Political Allusions: A Survey of *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* by James Joyce

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Abstract—One of the elements present in almost all literary texts causing intercultural gaps is allusion. This study addresses allusion, as a form of intertextuality, in translation. An attempt has been made to look into the strategies the translators have used in translating into Persian four types of allusive PNs (proper names) and KPs (key-phrases) (religious, political, historical and mythological) in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*. This comparative study is done on the basis of the strategies of translating allusions suggested by Leppihalme (1997) to find whether the Persian translations follow these strategies or not and to find the frequency and efficiency of each strategy. The three Persian translations are by Manouchehr Badi'ei (1380), Parviz Dariush (1370) and Asghar Jooya (1382). The strategy of 'retention of the given name' was of the highest and 'omission' of the lowest frequency in the translations studied. Badi'ei's translation proved to be the most attentive to allusions and the most successful in rendering them.

Index Terms—*A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, allusion, intertextuality, text, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Cultural terms are not problematic only when they are related to cultures too far from each other; unlike what might be conceived even if two cultures involved are not very different, translators might experience many problems. The number of problems arising due to cultural differences is greater than that of semantic or syntactic ones. Discussing different problems which translators face, Leppihalme (1997) puts them in two categories of extra-linguistic and intra-linguistic problems. Extra linguistic problems are often expressed as lexical problems and culture-bound translation problems are mainly intra linguistic and pragmatic (involving idiom, pun, wordplay, etc.). Allusions also belong to the second category. She adds that "the words of allusion function as a clue to the meaning, but the meaning can usually be understood only if the receiver can connect the clue with an earlier use of the same or similar words in another source or the use of a name evokes the referent and some characteristic features linked to the name" (p.4). Wheeler (1979) postulates that allusions have a role in explaining the meaning of different texts; moreover, the use of allusions is also an indicator of style. It should be taken into consideration that in literature readers often find that writers quote the works of others. "In most readers' mind, however, quotations and references, the two basic types of allusion, are usually lumped together with such things as book illustrations, chapter titles, and arguments which head chapters or cantos, all of which are ignored too easily or dismissed as virtually redundant elements of a literary text" (ibid, p.10).

Montgomery (2007) mentions the most common way of one text's alluding to other texts as follows:

1. Through a verbal reference to another text

"O, come all you Roman Catholics

That never went to mass" (*A Portrait*, p.30).

"Come All You Roman Catholics"

This song is probably one of the class of comic songs in Ireland known as "Come all ye's" which start with the phrase, "Come all ye (you)."

2. Through 'epigraphs' (at the beginning of the text some words are inscribed).

3. Through names of characters. There are allusions behind the following names used in different literary works: Scrooge, a name for a miser; Samson or Hercules, a strong man, Venus, etc. (Delahunty, et al., 2001).

4. Through choice of titles. (As Riquelme (2006) mentions readers of *A Portrait* aware of the recent history of Irish writing would probably have an echo of Oscar Wild (1856-1900) in Joyce's title).

When talking about allusion, theorists mention other relevant terms which are necessary to be introduced to get the meaning of allusion, its forms, functions, and its role, etc. in the world of literature. One of these terms is intertextuality. Intertextuality is often used as an umbrella term which is used to cover different ways in which other terms get their

meaning such as allusion, imitation, influence, parody, pastiche, etc. Gjurgjan (2008) points out that there are similarities and differences between allusion and intertextuality. The difference between them is fundamental, although as will be discussed, allusion is also considered as a sub-category of intertextuality. Gjurgjan continues:

“Allusion refers to authorial reference to some other text(s) where as intertextuality addresses the ways in which a text is interwoven within cultural signifying practices.” (p.67). Barthes (1975a) argues that intertextuality is not constraining and intertextual relations tend to pervade or spread throughout one culture, so each culture is a complex web of intertextuality in which all texts refer finally to each other (in Fiske 1987).

A. Statement of the Problem

Theorists have always debated on the best strategies for translation. The problem is that the issue is all too often discussed, without reference to the context in which translating occurs; the social circumstances of translation are lost from sight. In fact, in order to solve this problem these questions will be relied on: who is translating what, for whom, when, where, why and in what circumstances? (Hatim & Mason, 1990).

Intertextuality is a term used in literary criticism in order to show that there are various ways in which different texts interact with each other, in other words, no text is unique or isolated; all texts are made out of other known or unknown texts. Traditional literary criticism is often concerned with the texts that influenced a particular writer: influence is most usually established through tracing allusions.

According to Leppihalme (1997), in order to translate allusions a bilingual translator cannot work very well but s/he should be bicultural, in this case s/he fully understands the source text and will be able to translate the source text and transmit it to readers of the target text. In order to translate allusions two cultures are involved in the translation and their literary as well as pragmatic aspects on the textual level are also taken into account. Allusions are meaningful only in the culture or subculture in which they originate and may convey nothing in other cultures. Discussing poetics in modernist literature Gordon (1989) focuses on three dimensions: intertextuality, spatial form and language play. She writes, “Intertextuality is a form of memory by which a work of art acknowledges its sources in and relationships to other Works” (p.11). According to the Modernist’s theory of relativity the identity of a text is placed as a relationship to its context. “Ironically, Stephen Dedalus, the protagonist of Joyce’s *A Portrait*, breaks from the past, symbolized by his mother's ghost. He defines history as a nightmare from which he must awaken. Yet his speech betrays a parallaxic intertextual connection of great complexity” (ibid, p. 15). In modernist view an individual is the narrative and stories collected may be connected by memory or the elements of time and space may disconnect them. Historically, elements like combining, through plot and narrative, physical appearances and habits along with memories and perceptions make characters of fictions. In Modern writings, like works by Joyce and Modern writings, other elements are also present including the sensuality of the involuntary memory, intertextuality and stream of consciousness to traditional methods of narration and characterization. In Modernist art there is no one reading of any text because there is no textual identity. Intertextuality is a narrative memory through which the relationship of one text to its literary context is revealed and through the given text readers remember other texts just as characters remember other texts (e.g. persons, events, books) by means of allusions, stylistic mimesis or through structural parallels. These elements are present in *Ulysses* by Joyce (ibid).

B. Research Question

1-To what extent have the translators of the Persian translations paid attention to the political allusions in James Joyce’s *A portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*?

2-What translation strategies are used? And how effectively?

II. REVIEW LITERATURE

A. Intertextuality

Literary theorists from classical antiquity until now have been concerned about the relationship of texts to other texts; “Aristotle speculated on the potential shape of tragedies based on the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* as against other relations of the fall of Troy and its consequence.” (Bauman, 2004, p.1)

It was Julia Kristeva who for the first time used the term ‘intertextuality’ in the 1960s. Within literary and cultural studies, intertextuality has taken the most important role. This term is employed in structuralist, post-structuralist, semiotic, deconstructive, post-colonial, Marxist, feminist and psychoanalytic theories (Allen, 2000).

It is understood from the theory of intertextuality that “any one text is necessarily read in relationship to others” and readers touch upon a range of textual knowledge. These relationships are not in the form of specific allusions from one text to another and readers have no need to be familiar with specific or the same texts to get intertextually (Fiske, 1987, p.108). As Montgomery (2007) states it is through intertextuality that the relationship between texts are apparent, indeed no text is unique. Allusion is a form of intertextuality. In his article on textual allusion as rhetorical argumentation, Tindale (2004) discusses characteristics of rhetorical argumentation. He states:

“A central characteristic of rhetorical argumentation is the way in which it anticipates the responses of the audience in the structure of the argument, inviting a co-development through expressed and implicit commonalities. Strategies of

invitation include ways to capture the audience's prior beliefs and understandings, to expand the cognitive environment of the argumentation in relevant ways." (p. 1)

He continues that one such strategy is allusion, in such cases an arguer tries to elicit ideas in the minds of readers and draw them towards a conclusion using intertextual references and imitations. Through allusions indirect references are transmitted while no explicit explanation is mentioned. So, if the arguer wants to use this strategy she/he has to make sure that the reference alluded to is not absent in the cognitive environment (that is the beliefs, knowledge and background information) of the readers in order to get the association and draw the conclusion (ibid).

As stated by Fairclough (1980 in Hatim and Munday, 2004) with the notion of interaction of 'text with text' in mind, there are two central types of intertextual reference. First, horizontal intertextuality, involving concrete reference to or direct quotation from, other texts (e.g. Shakespeare). The second effective vertical intertextuality is that which besides quoting one can find intertextual reference to the following facts:

- Lucidity of expression and receptiveness of the intention (a text matter)
- The consent which takes control of this mode of political speaking (genre)
- The sense of responsibility to a cause transferred (discourse).

Fiske (1987) introducing horizontal and vertical intertextuality adds the following explanations. For him intertextual relations are on two dimensions; the horizontal and the vertical. In horizontal intertextuality relations are observed between primary texts that are more or less explicitly linked; it is along the axes of genre, character or content that they are linked. While in vertical intertextuality, relations are between a primary text and other texts of a different type that refer explicitly to it. Hatim and Munday (2004) give the name of allusion to the second category that is vertical intertextuality, if a continuum is conceived the above-mentioned factors move the reference along it. On one end of this continuum is placed 'quoting' (static quotative or horizontal form of intertextuality), on the other end allusions (vertical intertextuality) are put.

B. Allusion

According to Bloom the meaning of allusion (as the most common type of intertextuality) as an English word was equal to the initial meaning of 'illusion' and in the early Renaissance it was used in the sense of a pun, or word-play in general. "But by the time of Bacon it meant any symbolic likening, whether in allegory, parable or metaphor. Another meaning, which is still the correct modern one, follows rapidly by the early seventeenth century and involves any implied, indirect or hidden reference. Since the root meaning is 'to play with', 'mock', 'jest at', allusion is uneasily allied to words like 'ludicrous' and 'elusion'" (in Wheeler, 1979, p.3).

Generally allusion is considered as a literary device, like alliteration or simile, the poet or author uses it in order to invite a specific kind of aesthetic experience and finally a kind of textual object/moment is created (Connor, 2006). Cudden (1973, p.31) writes that when talking about allusion the following indirect suggestions are distinguished: a) there is a reference to some events or persons, b) author makes reference to him/herself (Shakespeare's pun on Will), c) a metaphorical allusion is found (in T.S Eliot's *Wasteland*), d) There is an imitative allusion.

1. Forms of Allusions

The forms allusions take is not as crucial as their functions for the translator, but they should not be ignored. Indeed similar forms in two different languages may not function in the same way. In a simple classification, allusions are divided in two categories based on the presence or absence of a proper name (PN versus KP allusions) and the degree of fidelity to the preformed wording (regular versus modified allusions) (Leppihalme, 1997). Leppihalme on the whole proposes the following categories:

(I) Allusions proper:

(A) Proper-name (PN) allusions = allusions which have a proper name, including names of real-life or fictional characters and features associated with such names

(B) Key-phrase (KP) allusions = allusions which have no proper name

Both of these classes are further divided into:

(a) Regular allusions = an unmarked category of 'prototypical' allusions:

(b) Modified allusions = allusions with a 'twist', that is, the preformed material is altered or modified

(II) Stereotyped allusions = the allusions used frequently and they have no freshness and do not necessarily evoke their sources; also clichés and proverbs

(III) (A) Semi-allusive comparisons (SACs) = superficial comparisons or looser associations

(B) Eponymous adjectives (adjectives derived from names)= in such types no fixed collocations are formed with their current headwords.

Of course those eponyms that are used in fixed collocations or have been lexicalized and institutionalized allusions are not included in this category. Or it is possible to do the classification based on syntactic function, with such categories as premodifying allusions ("her Cheshire grin"); subject complement allusions ("you were a very parfit gentil knight"), etc. In another possibility allusions are divided into phrases versus clauses ("our sceptred isle"; "there are stranger things in this world than in all your philosophies", Horatio). Besides the above-mentioned classifications, Leppihalme (1997) illustrates the striking variety in form, which according to her "may be of some relevance as far as the recognizability of allusions is concerned, by taking up two particular aspects only. These are the range of syntactic

variety in allusive expressions of comparison (chiefly involving proper names), and different ways of modifying allusions (mostly key-phrases)” (p.56).

2. Functions of Allusion

It is not easy to establish a list showing exclusive functions of allusions. Each type may have more than one function. Different functions are more usefully seen as a continuum. However, there might be a useful distinction between allusions operating mainly on the micro-level of the text and those operating on the macro-level. Simply, the internal structure of the entire text and its interpretation are involved in the macro-level: its narrative and poetic structure, dramatic intrigue and authorial note are considered in the text’s interpretation (Lambert & van Gorp, 1985, in Leppihalme, 1997). On the other hand, the lexico-semantic and stylistic levels constitute the micro-level. In their quest for a comprehensive scheme, Lambert & van Gorp also distinguish “the broader systemic context” of intertextual and intersystemic relations as a separate level (ibid).

Wheeler (1979) says that the allusions with which he is concerned function mainly within three areas of references: cultural, generic, and textual. National, regional, or class cultures are identified or defined through cultural allusions. The relationship between an adoptive text and a literary convention or tradition is shown by generic allusions. Through textual allusions, the most common kind in Victorian fiction, links between specific adopted and adoptive texts are established. According to Leppihalme (1997) some functions are considered for allusions; one of the main function of allusion is to challenge the reader to solve the puzzle, she adds that every allusion is indeed a puzzle since it is cross-cultural. Other functions are: a suggestion of thematic importance (on the macro-level); parody and irony and humor (mainly on the micro-level); the use of allusions for characterization; and allusions as indicators of interpersonal relationships in fiction.

3. Types of Allusions

So far different types of allusions have been introduced by different theorists, some of which are stated here. On the whole they do these categorizations according to similar themes although on the surface these categories are mentioned by non-similar names. Enumerating numerous devices which are used to appeal to a wide range of readers/ viewers/ listeners, Kirillove (2003) focuses on lexical expressive means and particularly on allusions. He writes that allusion is “a special metaphor” and “a type of textual implication”. For him allusion is always indirect, in this way the reader and writer should share some knowledge so that the supposed effect will be achieved; of course the degree of effectiveness of an allusion relies on the amount of knowledge shared by them. Kirillove singles out five categories of allusions listed as follows:

- Historical allusion (such as people, places, events);
- Literary allusion (such as characters, settings, plot);
- Biblical allusion (including texts from Old Testament, New Testament);
- Popular culture (related to contemporary people, places, events, literary works, works of art);
- The arts (related to music, works of art, theatre/film).

Allusions may be used in two ways: ‘single allusion’ and ‘spread allusion’ or ‘allusion field’. In the first way only single instances of allusions are found in a text, but in the second one there are several connected references to a certain event or; in other words, we find a group of allusions referring to a number of events. In the latter the images evoked are focused on and the reader gets the hint suggested. So, an allusion is understood as either a verbal reference to some fact (an allusion proper), or a broad context, extensive piece of information supporting the present idea (a broad allusion). In this case, an allusion field is an intermediate concept, i.e. a certain piece of text with numerous allusions (ibid).

Baldick (1990) enumerates some types: personal allusion which is a reference to the life of the author, imitative, structural (the structure of a new text is the same as another previous one (Joyce’s *Ulysses* reminds the reader of Homer’s *Odyssey*)), and topical allusion which takes a major role in satire.

Allusions are commonly made to the Holy Scriptures, rhythmic passages, myths, famous fictional or historical characters or events, political issues and literary works. They can be used in prose and poetry. So, they can be sorted into some thematic groups: religious allusion, musical allusions, mythological allusion, historical allusion and/or political allusion as well as literary allusion. Some of them may overlap like historical and political allusions since all political references are related to a historical period.

C. Potential Strategies for Allusions

As it was mentioned above, Leppihalme (1997) makes a distinction between proper-name allusions and key-phrase allusions. This is motivated by the awareness that the two groups require slightly different lists of potential strategies. Of course other strategies have been mentioned for translation of these two forms particularly PNs. For example, Newmark (1988) explains some strategies for the translation of proper names. He believes that on the whole objects or persons’ name should not be translated unless their translation is acceptable except for the places where names are used metaphorically. In case that the names are used commonly, their spelling or pronunciation may be modified. Regarding the names of historical figures he says that if such names are well-known they are translated in the main European countries. Christian names referring to Biblical figures (e.g. saints) are translated but their surnames are often preserved. Newmark goes on to discuss different strategies for translation of all kinds of proper names and states that for

translation of literary proper names whose connotations are important in ST the possible strategy is to translate such names into TT and then naturalize them into a new ST proper name.

Strategies proposed for other groups of proper names are not related to the scope of this research so they are ignored. Strategies used in this research are derived from lists of potential strategies that were proposed by Leppihalme (1997). She suggests that translators tend to choose strategies of 'minimum change', that is, translation is done literally as much as possible and minimum change is applied if necessary (p.90).

1. The translation strategies for PNs

Leppihalme (1997, pp.78-79) proposed the following strategies for translation of PN allusions:

Names are kept without any alterations

Names are changed into other different names,

Omission is used.

These basic strategies for the translation of allusive PNs have the following variations:

(1) Retention of names (either unchanged or in their conventional TL form,); with three subcategories:

(1a) Names are retained unchanged, or in conventional TL form

(1b) Names are retained unchanged and some guidance is added

(1c) Names are retained unchanged and some detailed explanations are added

(2) Replacement of names by another one (beyond the changes required by convention); with two subcategories:

(2a) Names are replaced by another SL name;

(2b) Names are replaced by a TL name.

(3) Omission of names; with two subcategories:

(3a) Names are reduced to sense/meaning

(3b) Names and allusions are omitted completely

Leppihalme draws attention to the point that usually the first strategy is used but in intercultural communications where this would not keep going and transfer is not an optimal strategy other items are applied (ibid).

2. Strategies used for Key-Phrase Allusions

A longer list of almost potential strategies is given by Leppihalme (1997) for translating key-phrase allusions which are as follows:

A) Use of a standard translation, if available;

B) Literal translation (minimum change), without regard to connotative or contextual meaning there is thus no change that would aim specifically at the transfer of connotations;

C) Adding extra-allusive guidance to the text, including the use of typographical means to signal preformed material;

D) Providing additional information via footnotes, endnotes, or other explicit explanations that are not included in the text;

E) Introducing textual features that indicate the presence of borrowed words (marked wording or syntax);

F) Replacement by a preformed TL item;

G) Rephrasing the allusion with an overt expression of its meaning, in other words, making its meaning overt and dispensing with the allusive KP itself;

H) Re-creating the allusion by creatively constructing a passage that reproduces its effects or other special effects created by it;

I) Omitting the allusion.

III. METHODOLOGY

The book analyzed in this research from the viewpoint of strategies applied for translations of allusions is James Joyce's *A portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* (1916). Three translations of this novel have been examined: by Manoochehr Badi'ei (1380, the first edition), by Parviz Dariush (1370), and by Asghar Jooya (1382).

The three translations have been studied meticulously with respect to the political allusions. All examples of this type were extracted and categorized on the basis of two forms (PN allusions and KP allusions), then their Persian equivalents were represented. The collected data (all PNs and KPs) was analyzed and put in the separate tables and figures and the comparative study was done on the basis of strategies for translating allusions suggested by Leppihalme (1997) to find whether these translated versions follow these strategies or not and to find the frequency and efficiency of each one.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Generally, PNs used in this book belong to any of the four categories of religion, history, myth and politics which are either names of especial persons (political figures who had an important role in Irish politics, saints, priests and mythological characters) or places. Of course among these the highest frequency is related to the names of religious figures and names with political as well as mythological allusions taking the subsequent orders.

KPs allusions observed in this novel are words extracted from the Bible or other Holy scriptures and many of them are words of Christ or Christ-like followers addressed to an especial group of people or generally to all of Christians. Christian ceremonies are also observable throughout the novel. After religious KPs that allocate a large part of allusions

in this novel to themselves, political, historical, and mythological ones respectively have the highest frequency. Political KPs like PNs are mainly political events or movements in Ireland from 1798-1916.

In this research only political PN and KP allusions are considered which have been represented in the tables and figures.

In order to answer the second research question the researcher has traced all political allusions and represented the strategies applied for them in separate tables. Each PN and KP has been counted as a separate allusion, but when repeated more than once they were counted only once. More than 50 examples of political allusions (PNs and KPs) were found among which only some are mentioned here.

TABLE 4-1.
POLITICAL PN ALLUSIONS TRANSLATOR 1

PN(ST)	AT	Ch.	T1	Page N.	Strategy
Michael Davitt	P	1/5	مايكل داويت	16	(1c)
Parnell	P	1/5	پارنل	16	(1c)
Wolsey	P	1/8	"ولزي"	19	(1c)
Hamilton Rowan	P	1/8	هميلتون روان	19	(1c)
York	P	1/10	يورك	21	(1c)
Lancaster	P	1/10	لانكاستر	21	(1c)
Billy with the lip	P	1/28	بيلي لب كلفته	49	(1c)
Lord Leitrim	P	1/28	لرد لايتريم	49	(1c)
Mr. Fox	P	1/31	آقاي فاكس	53	(1c)
Kitty O'Shea	P	1/31	كيتي اوشي	53	(1c)
Marquess Cornwallis	P	1/33	ماركي كورنواليس	56	(1c)
Terence Bellew MacManus	P	1/33	ترنس بليوماك مانوس	56	(1c)
Paul Cullen	P	1/33	پل كلن	56	(1c)
Napoleon	P	1/44	ناپليون	67	(1a)
Lorenzo Ricci	P	1/49	لورنزيچي	77	(1c)

TABLE 4-2.
POLITICAL PN ALLUSIONS TRANSLATOR 2

PN(ST)	AT	Ch.	T2	Page N.	Strategy
Michael Davitt	P	1	مايكل ديوييت	8	(1a)
Parnell	P	1	پارنل	8	(1a)
Wolsey	P	1	وولسي	11	(1a)
Hamilton Rowan	P	1	هميلتون روان	11	(1a)
York	P	1	يورك	13	(1a)
Lancaster	P	1	لانكاستر	13	(1a)
Billy with the lip	P	1	بيلي لب دريده	40	(1a)
Lord Leitrim	P	1	لرد لايتريم	40	(1a)
Mr. Fox	P	1	آقا روياهه	44	(1a)
Kitty O'Shea	P	1	كيتي اوشي	44	(1a)
Marquess Cornwallis	P	1	ماركس كورنواليس	47	(1a)
Terence Bellew MacManus	P	1	ترنس بلومك مانوس	47	(1a)
Paul Cullen	P	1	حذف	47	(3b)
Napoleon	P	1	ناپليون	58	(1a)
Lorenzo Ricci	P	1	لورنزيچي	68	(1a)

TABLE 4-3.
POLITICAL PN ALLUSION TRANSLATOR 3

PN(ST)	AT	Ch.	Tr. 3	Page N.	Strategy
Michael Davitt	P	1	مايكل داويت	4	(1a)
Parnell	P	1	پارنل	4	(1a)
Wolsey	P	1	ولسي	7	(1a)
Hamilton Rowan	P	1	هاميلتون روان	7	(1a)
York	P	1	يورك	8	(1a)
Lancaster	P	1	لانكاستر	9	(1a)
Billy with the lip	P	1	بيلي دهن گشاد و وراج	31	(1c)
Lord Leitrim	P	1	لرد لايتريم	31	(1c)
Mr. Fox	P	1	آقاي فوكس	34	(1c)
Kitty O'Shea	p	1	كيتي اشي	34	(1c)
Marquess Cornwallis	P	1	ماركيس كورنواليس	36	(1c)
Terence Bellew MacManus	P	1	ترنس بلومك مينوس	37	(1a)
Paul Cullen	P	1	پل كولن	37	(1c)
Napoleon	P	1	ناپليون	46	(1a)
Lorenzo Ricci	P	1	لورنزيچي	54	(1a)

TABLE 4-4.
POLITICAL KP ALLUSIONS TRANSLATOR 1

KP (ST)	AT	Ch./ps	Translator1	Page N.	Strategy
The brush with the maroon velvet back was for Michael Davitt and the brush with the green velvet back was for Parnell	P	1/5	آن بروسی که پشتش مخمل بلوطی بود برای مایکل داویت بود و آن بروسی که پشتش مخمل سبز بود برای پارنل	16	D
He wondered from which window Hamilton Rowan had thrown his hat on the haha	P	1/8	از خود می پرسید که همیلتون روان کلاهش را از کدام پنجره روی پرچین انداخت	19	D
White roses and red roses	P	1/10	گل‌های سفید و گل‌های سرخ	22	B
Green rose	P	1/10	گل سبز	22	B
Dante was on one side and his father and Mr. Casey were on the other side but his mother and Uncle Charles were on no side. Every day there was something in the paper about it	P	1/10	دانته در یک طرف بود و پدرش و آقای کیسی در طرف دیگر بودند اما مادرش و دایی چارلز در هیچ طرفی نبودند. هر روز در روزنامه چیزی در باره آن می نوشتند	28	D
he white cloak of a marshal	P	1/16	شنل سفید مارشالها	31	D
liberator	P	1/22	" آزادی بخش "	40	D
Mr. Casey had told that he had got those three cramped fingers making a birthday present for Quee Victoria	P	1/24	آقای کیسی به او گفته بود که آن سه تا انگشتش برای آن راست نمی شود که می خواسته است هدیه تولدی برای ملکه ویکتوریا درست کند	42	D
I'll pay you your dues, father, when you cease turning the house of God into a polling booth	P	1/26	پدر، من وقتی وجوه شرعی را به شما خواهم داد که از تبدیل خانه خدا به اتاق رأی گیری دست برداشته باشید	46	D
Were we to desert him at the bidding of the English people?	P	1/27	ایا بایستی به دستور انگلیسی ها به او پشت می کردیم ؟	47	D

TABLE 4-5.
POLITICAL KP ALLUSIONS TRANSLATOR 2

KP (ST)	AT	Ch./ps	Translator2	Page N.	Strategy
The brush with the maroon velvet back was for Michael Davitt and the brush with the green velvet back was for Parnell	P	1/5	آن شانه که پشت آن مخمل خرمایی بود به خاطر مایکل دیویت بود و آن شانه مخمل سبز بود به خاطر که پشت آن پارنل	8	B
He wondered from which window Hamilton Rowan had thrown his hat on the haha	P	1/8	در حیرت بود که همیلتون روان کلاهش را از کدام دریچه به روی پرچین پرتاب کرده بود...	11	B
White roses and red roses	P	1/10	گل‌های سفید و گل‌های سرخ	14	B
Green rose	P	1/10	گل سرخ سبز	14	B
Dante was on one side and his father and Mr. Casey were on the other side but his mother and Uncle Charles were on no side. Every day there was something in the paper about it	P	1/10	دانت در یک طرف بود و پدرش و آقای کیسی در طرف دیگر، اما مادرش و عمو چارلز در هیچ طرف نبودند، هر روز در روزنامه چیزی در این باره بود	19-20	B
The white cloak of a marshal	P	1/16	شنل سفید سرداران	23	G
liberator	P	1/22	منجی	31	B
Mr. Casey had told that he had got those three cramped fingers making a birthday present for Quee Victoria	P	1/24	آقای کیسی بدو گفته بود که آن سه انگشت خمیده از ساختن هدیه میلاد ملکه ویکتوریا نصیبش شده بود	33	B
I'll pay you your dues, father, when you cease turning the house of God into a polling booth	P	1/26	پدر مقدس، من وقتی حق و حقوق شما را می دهم که شما دیگر خانه خدا را گیشه رأی گیری نکنید	37	C
Were we to desert him at the bidding of the English people?	P	1/27	قرار بود همین که مردم انگلیس ندا دادند ترکش کنیم؟	39	B

TABLE 4-6.
POLITICAL KP ALLUSIONS TRANSLATOR 3

KP (ST)	AT	Ch./ ps	Translator3	Page N.	Strategy
The brush with the maroon velvet back was for Michael Davitt and the brush with the green velvet back was for Parnell	P	1/5	برسی که پشتش مخمل زرشکی بود مال مایکل داویت بود و برسی که مخمل سبز داشت از پارنل بود	4	B
He wondered from which window Hamilton Rowan had thrown his hat on the haha	P	1/8	که از کدام پنجره فکرمی کرد هامیلتون روان کلاهش را در خندق انداخته بود	7	B
White roses and red roses	P	1/10	رز قرمز و رز سفید	9	B
Green rose	P	1/10	رز وحشی سبز	9	B
Dante was on one side and his father and Mr. Casey were on the other side but his mother and Uncle Charles were on no side. Every day there was something in the paper about it	P	1/10	دانته در يك طرف قضیه و پدرش و آقای کیسی در سوي دیگر. اما مادرش و عمو چارلز هیچ طرفی نبودند. هر روز در روزنامه چیزی در این باره می آمد	13	B
The white cloak of a marshal	P	1/16	بلند و سفید مارشالی رداي	16	B
liberator	P	1/22	رهبر آزاد کننده	23	B
Mr. Casey had told that he had got those three cramped fingers making a birthday present for Queen Victoria	P	1/24	آقای کیسی به او گفته بود که انگشتانش به این خاطر کج و معوج شده که کوشیده بود هدیه تولدی برای ملکه ویکتوریا درست کند	25	B
I'll pay you your dues, father, when you cease turning the house of God into a polling booth	P	1/26	پدر من دیون شرعی را می پردازم، در صورتی که از تبدیل خانه خدا به محل رای گیری خودداری کنید	28	C
Were we to desert him at the bidding of the English people?	P	1/27	آیا می بایست ما او را برای فروش به مزایده در اختیار انگلیسی ها می گذاشتیم؟	29	B

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Regarding strategies adapted to the translation of PN allusions by these three translators, as shown in the statistics, the highest frequency is associated with the first strategy suggested by Leppihalme, that is, the retention of the given name (1a).

Of course, retention of PNs (1a) is the strategy used by the second (Dariush) and the third translator (Jooya) and this strategy is found rarely in the translation of proper names by Badi'ei, as it is observed in the tables and figures, who has mainly used the third strategy for translation of proper names, that is, translation with some additional notes and explanations (1c). Using this strategy might be justified in considering that the translator has found a great gap between ST and TT cultures. This urges the translator to act upon the strategy which fills this gap.

No name is transcultural but they are related to the source culture and not known to TT readers and the translator retains them since no equivalent is found; in other words, he transliterates them. Examples of such unknown names are Hamilton (همیلتون), Parnell (پارنل), Stead (استد), etc.

In translation of KP allusions the most prevalent strategy is the use of (B) of which a high rank is related to the translations of Dariush and Jooya. Badi'ei has translated KPs like PNs with footnotes and extra explanations (strategy (D)). In comparison with the two other translators that of Badi'ei is more clear and comprehensible. Indeed the necessity of adding explanations is more perceptible in the translation of KPs than using footnotes for PNs because in most parts of the novel more than one sentence or one paragraph refers to other texts or the events and certainly a literal translation cannot keep suspension for readers to follow and comprehend the whole story. After (B) the highest rank belongs to the strategy (D) the highest number of which is found in the translation of Badi'ei.

Regarding the second question, Omission was found only in a few cases that may show the translators' attention to the importance of allusion in the novel but this does not guarantee total success in rendering them. Except for the first translation almost most of the allusions are not conveyed for TT readers when reading translations of Dariush and Jooya for they have been transferred literally. Of course this problem is less obvious in the third translation. The results are shown in figures and tables below.

TABLE 5.1.
FREQUENCY OF THE STRATEGIES APPLIED FOR POLITICAL PN ALLUSIONS

Tr \ Str	Tr 1	Tr 2	Tr 3
(1a)	2	26	13
(1b)	0	0	0
(1c)	26	0	14
(2a)	0	0	0
(2b)	0	0	0
(3a)	0	0	0
(3b)	0	2	1
Total	28	28	28

TABLE 5.2.
FREQUENCY OF THE STRATEGIES APPLIED FOR POLITICAL KP ALLUSIONS

Tr \ Str	Tr 1	Tr 2	Tr 3
A	0	0	0
B	2	22	19
C	0	1	1
D	25	2	7
E	0	0	0
F	0	0	0
G	0	1	0
H	0	0	0
I	0	1	0
Total	27	27	27

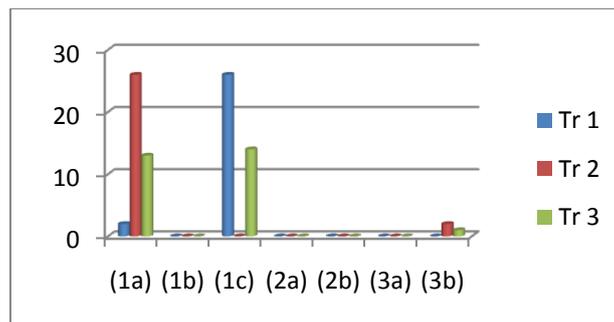


Figure 5.3. Frequency of the Strategies Applied for political PN Allusions

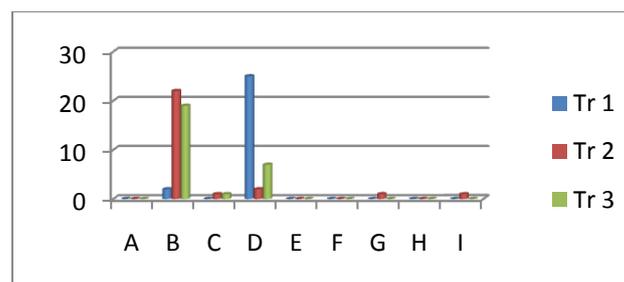


Figure 5.4. Frequency of the Strategies Applied for political KP Allusions

Abbreviations:

A Prtrait: A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man	KP: key phrase
AT: allusion type	PN: proper noun
PA: political allusion	ST: source text
PS: page of source text	Tr: translator
Str: strategy	

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Death Image in Divine Meditations of John Donne

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Abstract—As an important topic, different people hold different opinions and attitudes towards death according to their world views and beliefs. In his *Divine Meditations*, John Donne discusses death with others topics. In this sequence, death appears in different aspects. With different description of death, Donne tries to find a solution to conquer and defeat death. Quite different from the popular opinion in Renaissance, the poetry can immortalize a person; he holds a Christian's belief that through the firm belief of God, man can defeat death.

Index Terms—John Donne, death, divine meditations, holy sonnets

John Donne is a representative of Metaphysical School in English literature. Sir Herbert Grierson holds that conceits and wits were common in Elizabethan poetry, but Donne was better in this skill (qtd. in Ford, 1957, p. 106). Samuel Johnson criticized wit as “the most heterogeneous ideas are yoked by violence together” (qtd. in Abrams, 1993, p. 2419). Anyhow, there is a clean logic on image of Donne's poems (Brooks, 1947, p. 211).

Donne uses many images to depict what is in his mind. In sonnet 10 of *Divine Meditations*, John Donne strictly speaks out “Death thou shalt die” (14). With his “headlong energy of language” (Winny, 1981, p. 36), Donne expresses a wish of human being – defeating death. Since man is conscious of life, he is frustrated with the problem of death. In order to avoid death and live an immortal life, man tries every way to conquer death, both material and spiritual. In Renaissance, many people in England believe that the poetry can make a person eternal. As a Christian and a priest, Donne holds the Christian belief of death. In many of his poems, he meditates on death. In the sequence of *Divine Meditations*, together with other topics, he also discusses death. Death appears in some poems, and reflects what he thinks about it as a Christian. No doubt it is the blood of Christ which shows mercy of God that can save man. This idea is not new, but the sequence of *Divine Meditation* has some interior connections and reveals the logic of Donne.

In his lifetime, Donne published only five poems. Most of his poems were collected and published after his death by editors. So this sequence of 19 sonnets is grouped by editors. Clearly, it is not the original idea of Donne. Different editors give it different names. It is entitled *Divine Meditations* by Smith (1982, p.307), and sometimes is named *Holy Sonnets* (Abrams, 1993, p. 1097; Bush, 1962, p. 136). Here, the sequence of poems is called *Divine Meditations* according to the book, *John Donne: The Complete English Poems*, used in this article. And the order of the sonnets is also followed the order in the book mentioned above. The composition date of these poems is still open to debate. When Donne's poems were first published in 1633, 12 poems were included. They were sonnet 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16. In version of 1635, four sonnets, 1, 3, 5, 8, were added. The last three sonnets, 17, 18, 19, appeared in the Westmoreland MS, and were published in 1899 (Smith, 1982, p. 624). Many critics agree with Professor Helen Gardner's opinion. She asserts that the first twelve sonnets were written in the first half of 1609, the four sonnets the later half of 1609. The last three sonnets were written during 1617-19. (qtd. in Bush, 1962, p. 136) She also divides 19 sonnets into four groups. The first group has sonnet 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, and talks about death and last judgment. The second group consists of sonnet 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, and focuses on God's love of man and the love of man owes to God and his neighbour. The third group is the four sonnets added in 1635 edition. It is penitential and focuses sin and tears for sin. The last three sonnets are sonnet discovered in 1899 and there is no connection among them. (qtd. in Smith, 1982, p. 625) Such category helps to know that death is an important topic in the sequence of *Divine Meditations*. As the description of death appears not only in the first group, but also in other poems, the discussion of death is not limited in the first group, but extends to other poems concerning it. Accordingly, they are sonnet 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17. Within those poems, the notion of death changes from one to another. It shows that Donne is a faithful Christian and the interior logic in it.

Death is a topic for everyone. Since man is conscious of his existence, he is aware of his death, dissolution of himself. Heidegger (1999) has said “Being towards death” (p. 277). Much earlier than Heidegger, Donne said, “I run to death, and death meets me as fast” (sonnet 1, 3). He is conscious that he is stepping towards death one day after another. It is an unknown end. No one will protest the idea that man is stepping to death since his birth. Because no dead people comes

back to life to tell others what kind of image death is, no man in his lifetime has a clear picture of death except description of forefathers or his imagination. In ancient Rome, the Romans used wax to make a mask of their forefathers called death mask (Stokstad, 1995, p. 243). But they only had the mask of dead people not the mask of death itself. Though there is no actual image of death, it is still described with some characters. Often, it associates with some symbols, such as skeleton, hooded cloak, sword, scythe, sickle or hour-glass (Car-Gomm, 1995, p. 77). Skeleton is the bones of dead people; hooded cloak represents the darkness which associates the death; sword kills people; scythe, sickle, or hour-glass is the symbol of time which destroys all things. Those things represent the results of death, or the destructive forces. Not only limited in the things mentioned above, death also comes along with all dissolution powers.

Though death is so fearful, man tries to conquer it in his limited abilities. Donne tries his hand in poetry to handle such question. Before the conquest, the image of death is described accordingly. In the sequence of *Divine Meditation*, the apparent image of death is a personified death. Death is often “gluttonous” (sonnet 6, 5). For all living creatures, at least for human being, death is an inevitable destiny. For present knowledge of man, he is bound to die one day. In this material world, many substances dissolve at a time. In a broad sense, it may call the changing or transformation of all things death. The end of or dissolution of one form is death of one thing. So it may say that death comes to everything in this world. Because it destroys all things, it is more like a gluttonous man devouring everything without choice. Besides Christianity, the devourment of death has significant meaning. Frazer (1963) discusses some rites of original tribes. In some New Guinea tribes, a man must perform a ceremony before he is admitted by the tribe as an adult. The novice enters a building in a monster shape after parting his mother and friends. The entering of the building represents that he is devoured by the monster and has died. He is circumcised in it. After several months, he comes back as a young man who is accepted by the tribe (p. 908-9). The devourment resembles the death of the young lad. It is a necessary step of birth of a young man in the tribe. Those people have symbolized death as a process of transforming from one form to another. Gluttony is the character of man. As death devours everything in the world, he is like a gluttonous person. Besides gluttony, death also has other characters of man.

In sonnet 10, Donne warns “Death be not proud” (1). Being personified, death occupies some characters of man. As destructive power to everything in this world, death may claim itself as dominating the world. It can boast its domination as his pride. According to Christianity, pride is the first sin among seven sins. It causes the fall of angels and men. Before his fall, Satan is a beautiful angel named Lucifer. He is proud of his beauty that he wants to overthrow God and replace him in the heaven. Nevertheless, his rebellion ends with his defeat. He becomes ugly and turns into Satan. Pride causes the end or dissolution of good things. As a “mighty and dreadful” (sonnet 10, 2) power that brings an end to all the things in the world, death is entitled to say he has absolute power over all things, at least for all men or living creatures. If death is proud, its power will dissolve as Satan. It means death itself will disappear. If it is so, death cannot conquer everything in the world because his pride. Though death “think’st” he “doth overthrow” all the people (3), but the actual situation is not what death has supposed. At least, death cannot “kill” Donne himself (4). Donne clearly sees that pride is the dominant character of death. It is reasonable to believe that death will lose some of his powers. With this idea, poet makes sure that he can escape from the hands of death.

Though losing some powers over man, death uses its powers over man. Sometimes, it takes away the “best men” from society when they are young (sonnet 10, 7). To the living people, their lives have ended. But in Donne’s eyes, it is different. Jesus Christ has been crucified and died. 3 days later, he comes back to life and ascends to heaven. 3 days in the tomb is a rest of his body. For “best men”, their death like the death of Christ is “rest of their bones, and soul’s delivery” (8). They work hard and perform their duties in the society. Actually death helps them out of their heavy works. After the rest, they arise from rest one day, and live an immortal life in another world.

Sometimes, death is not the roller of the world, but serves as a “slave to fate, chance, kings, and desperate men” (sonnet 10, 9). Fate is more powerful than death. No one can change his fate. If he is bound to die, death will take him away at the time appointed. Death does not come earlier or late. It is a servant to the fate. Chance is another dominant power over death. It requires death to take lives at an accident. Kings are the other forces controlling death of man. The lives of men are under the orders of kings. They can decide whether a man to live or die. And desperate men are not afraid of death. They do what they want to do, and do not consider the results of their actions. In other word, when they do anything, they never consider safety of themselves. All the four are the controllers of death.

Sometimes, death lives together with “poison, war, and sickness” (sonnet 10, 10). Poison brings death to a man, and war takes away many people’s lives. They are always symbols of death. In sonnet 4, sickness is “death’s herald, and champion” (2). When death comes, it needs the help of these three things. If one avoids them, death finds no place in him. So death is not so powerful as one has imagined.

If death is inevitable, it is not fearful. Its “stroke” is worse than “poppy, or charm” (sonnet 10, 11-2). Donne believes death only brings “sleep” to man (13). “Rest and sleep” are images of death (5). After a rest or sleep, man refreshes from his tired situation and has more energy and pleasure. When man comes back from death, he will have more energy and pleasure than what he has gained from rest and sleep. It is not a terrible thing, but a pleasant thing. It is funny that death wants to “swell” (12). It does nothing harm to man but helps him to have more power.

With these characters typical of man, death is not so terrible. It has weakness. Being conscious of this, Donne calls out at the end of sonnet 10, “Death thou shall die” (14). Death is not master of all, but a slave to fate, chance, kings, and desperate men. And the power of killing all people has been weakened because it needs the help of poison, war, and

sickness. Even when death comes, it is just a long rest or sleep. It does no harm to man. On the contrary, when man revives, death finds no place for itself. There is no death at all. This is a personified death in the poet's mind. With this personified image, poet finds weakness of death, and bids the dissolution of death itself. If a personified death will disappear, how about the dissolution of real death? If death is conquerable, what is death?

Death is the decay of a work – the work of God (sonnet 1, 1). It is the inevitable fate of man. Man is the creation of God. As a Christian, Donne believes that the fruit of the tree of knowledge “threw death on else immortal” men (sonnet 9, 2). Before Adam and Eve had eaten the fruit of tree of knowledge, they are immortal in the Garden of Eden. God commanded the man, “You may freely eat of every tree of the garden; but of the tree of the knowledge of good and evil you shall not eat, for in the day that you eat of it you shall die” (Gen. 2. 16-7). As a punishment of disobedience, death falls on Adam and Eve. What kind of death? Having found Adam and Eve eating the fruit of forbidden tree, God said to Adam “you are dust, and to dust you shall return” (Gen. 3. 19). It means that man is made from dust, and will return back to origin when he comes to his end. This death is the dissolution of body. Man's body is mortal since the first fall. “Poison, war, and sickness” bring death to man (sonnet 10, 9). They terminate the lives of men. Though the body dies, the soul still exists. Plato (1998) thinks that soul is immortal, while the body disappears (610a-e). Donne believes that one day, when the angels “blow” their “trumpets” (sonnet 7, 1-2), “numberless infinities / Of souls” (sonnet 7, 3-4) will “arise / From death” (sonnet 7, 2-3). When the body dies, soul remains somewhere and is waiting for the last judgment.

Towards death, different Christian theologians hold different opinions. For example, Luther thinks that death has two folds, the temporal one and the eternal one. The temporal death is the separation of body and soul (qtd. in Marius, 1999, p. 105). It means that man is the combination of body and soul. This idea is clearly stated in Bible. Having created the Garden of Eden, God used the dust from ground to form man. Then He breathed into his nostrils the breath of life. Thus came a living man. He is the first man Adam. (Gen. 2.7) As a punishment of disobedience, God commended man to return to dust. It is the dissolution of body. He didn't say anything about the soul. So contrast to immortal soul, body is a mortal thing. What causes death, the dissolution of body? “The wages of sin is death” (Rom. 6.23). It is sin that brings death. Since the first fall, everyman has sin in him at his birth. So for Donne, it is his “feeble body doth waste / By sin in it” (sonnet 1, 7-8). Sin causes the death of body. In Christianity, there are seven sins, namely pride, covetousness, envy, wrath, gluttony, sloth, and lechery. What kind of sin Donne has? Winny (1981) has mentioned this question, but left it unrevealed (p. 36). Is it the original sin, or the sin mentioned in his love lyric? Donne never says it. Though he has not defined it in his poems, he is so conscious of the sin within him. It may be terrible. Sometimes, “intent or reason”, born in him, “make sins” more “heinous” (sonnet 9, 5-6). With the consciousness, he feels that sin is a fearful thing within him. It will cause something worse. Donne thinks he is “a little world made cunningly / Of elements, and an angelic sprite” (sonnet 5, 1-2). This concept reflects the cosmology in Renaissance England. Man is a little universe with properly mixed elements. He has three souls, namely vegetable, animal, and reason. This idea does not conform to the orthodox idea of soul. Donne thinks “both parts must dies” (sonnet 5, 4). It is to say that sin causes the death of both body and spirit of man. If there is the death of spirit, it is the eternal death of man. In Luther's opinion, the eternal death has two folds. One is good; other is a very great evil. The evil death is the death of damned. When man is saved, the man that evil lives forever dies (qtd. in Marius, 1999, p. 106-7). The “black sin hath betrayed to endless night” (sonnet 5, 3). But man's spirit will never die. It must be saved.

Donne thinks his “black soul” is “summoned / By sickness” (sonnet 4, 1-2). It is in a dangerous case before dissolution. The soul is associated with sin. Because of sin, his soul is like a person who betrays his country, and cannot go back to his homeland. Because of sin, it is a thief who wishes to be freed from the prison. This metaphor means since the first fall, man is sinful. The sin will bring death both of body and soul. But soul will never die because it can be saved. The best way of salvation is to wash soul itself “in Christ's blood” (sonnet 4, 13). The blood of Christ is invaluable and “worthy” (sonnet 9, 10). His soul may change from black to red for the blood of Christ “dyes red souls to white” (sonnet 4, 14). When black symbols sin, it is not sinful if the soul turns to red. Believing that sin associates with him, Donne wishes to drown his “sin's black memory” (sonnet 9, 12) in “a heavenly lethean flood” (11), which is made of “worthy blood of Christ” and his tears (10). It is another way to drive sin out of man. In one case, the sin of the author is forgotten. In another case, the sin of the author will be washed away by the blood of Christ. It is the grace of God. As the sin is washed away, the soul of author is immortal. He gets the salvation from God through Christ.

Christ is divine as the Son of God. He is also a man, being conceived by the Holy Ghost and born to the Virgin Mary. He is free from original sin. He was sent by God to atone for the sin of man. He lives as man lives, suffers as man suffers, and dies for man's redemption. As a god, Christ will never die. But as a human being, he is mortal. So with mortal body, Christ can die and pay for the sin of man, and save human being. He is the one who “could do no iniquity” (sonnet 11, 4). When Christ was crucified, his body died. He died for human being, “his creatures, and his foes” (sonnet 12, 14). So death of Christ is a victory over evil and is blessed by the world.

Death of Christ's body has two meaning. One is he pay for the sin of man. Other is the death of sin and death of death. Luther thinks that death of sin and death of death is an eternal death. When a man dies, his soul separates from sin and body from corruption. Body is the vehicle of sin. When it dissolves, sin perishes with it and returns no more (qtd. in Marius, 1999, p. 106). Christ's body has died, and no sin can usurp it. So the death of Christ is a great victory. It completely defeats the death.

Donne believes that Christ, Son of God, gives him “his death's conquest” (sonnet 16, 4). Nothing can compare with

the death of Christ. In sonnet 11, Donne orders “Spit in my face ye Jews, and pierce my side, / Buffet, and scoff, scourge, and crucify me” (1-2). With such punishments, it pays for the sins within him. But his suffering is as great as the suffering of Christ because he has sins himself, including original sin. Christ is pure and innocent, and free from original sin. Christ dies for the sin of man, and Donne dies for the sins of him. That is the difference. So Donne is conscious that his death cannot compare with death of Christ. He knows his death cannot satisfy his sins. But with the salvation it seems not enough for Donne. He further calls for the enslavement of God (sonnet 14, 13). He is the battlefield of God and Evil. With the occupation of God, he can defeat death and has an eternal life.

With those ideas in his mind, Donne never thinks that his wife is really dead. Though her body dissolved in this world, but she is “ravished” into heaven (sonnet 17, 3), where she is immortal. As death of Christ has paid the sin of her, “Devil put” her “out” (14). Her death is the death of body in this world, and her spirit is immortal in another world, or in the heaven.

Though the sequence of Divine Meditation is the arrangement of editor, the concept of death and sin shares some common grounds and connections. Donne discusses death from different angles and aspects. It reflects Donne’s conception of death as a Christian. He firmly believes that the death is the dissolution of body, and the death of sin and death. Eventually, he confirms that with God’s grace and the death of Christ, man’s soul is saved. Man defeats death and gains an eternal life with the grace of God.

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A Complementary-compensatory Approach to Teaching Focus on Form/S in EFL/ESL Classrooms

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Abstract—Focus on form has received considerable attention as researchers and theorists have enthusiastically embraced an integration of meaning-focused and form-focused instruction in the L2 classroom. Therefore, the present paper is an attempt to delve deeply into elucidating different taxonomies subsumed under the specious polarization of *Focus on Form* (FoF) and *Focus on Forms* (FoFs). It then offers the possible rationale behind the integration of FoFs into meaning-centered and communicative classes. The article also elaborates upon the methodological implications underpinning *reactive vs. preemptive* focus on FoF. Analogous to other approaches to SLA, some practical, socioeconomical, and cultural criticisms were raised against FoF. The researchers conclude that the developed myth about the FoF and FoFs polarization should be treated cautiously. They also propose a complementary-compensatory approach to teaching FoF and FoFs.

Index Terms—FoF, FoFs, reactive and preemptive FoF

I. INTRODUCTION

A substantial body of research, culminating in Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis, corroborates the growing consensus that explicit instruction was significantly more effective than implicit instruction and that the effects of *Form Focus Instruction* (FFI) were durable (Mitchell, 2000; Ellis, 2002; Williams, 2001, 2005). In recent years focus on form (FonF) has gained great momentum in second language (L2) literature in the light of classroom research that advocates the need for instructional interventions to help learners gain higher levels of proficiency in L2 (Doughty & Williams, 1998a; Long & Robinson, 1998; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Williams, 2005; Ellis *et al.*, 2001; Ellis, 2006). Seemingly, when left to their own resources, 'learners do not very readily infer knowledge of the language system from their communicative activities' (Widdowson, 1990, p. 161). Consequently, some form of instructional focus on linguistic features may be required to destabilize learners' interlanguage (Ellis, 2006). FonF has evolved from Long's instructional treatment that 'overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication' (Long, 1991, pp. 45–46) into such tasks as *processing instruction* (VanPatten, 2002), *textual enhancement* (Sharwood Smith, 1993; Harley, 1998; White, 1998), and *linguistic or grammar-problem solving activities* (Willis, 1996; Ellis, 1997; Thornbury, 2001; Bourke, 2004). Although literature is replete with various interpretations and taxonomies of FonF, the key tenet of FonF instruction remains: 'meaning and use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across' (Doughty and Williams, 1998a, p. 4).

The present article is an attempt to elaborate on FoF/s taxonomies and illuminate some of the key concepts and tenants of FoF/s. It also aims to present the prospective readers with some of the methodological procedures as how to approach FoF/s in the communicative classes. The article also explicates some of the inherent criticisms raised against FoF. It then goes on to reconcile the two oft-cited extremes, i.e., focus on form and focus on forms. It is finally concluded that a complementary-compensatory approach should be pursued to tap upon both fluency and accuracy.

II. FOCUS ON FORM/S DEFINITIONS AND TAXONOMIES

The term *focus on form* has since been stretched beyond the meaning that Long (1991) originally assigned to it. Doughty and Williams (1998a), for instance, highlight that "there is considerable variation in how the term 'focus on form' is understood and used" (p.5). Thus FFI refers to a host of activities that diverge from one another in important ways and a number of elements must be regarded such as: (a) the continuum of implicit versus explicit FFI, with formal, rule based instruction at one end, and embedding of the target structure in authentic discourse at the other; (b) the timing of FFI during the lesson; (c) the teacher's role and intention; (d) task-based FFI; (e) the existence of input enhancement

during communicative lessons designed to draw learner attention to the form; and (f) out-based FFI (Nassaji & Fotos, 2007, pp. 11-12). As to all these dimensions of FFI, various FFI taxonomies and definitions are in order (Long, 1991; Williams, 1995, 2005; Doughty and Williams, 1998a; 1998b; Lightbown, 1998; Long and Robinson, 1998; Nassaji, 1999; Ellis *et al.*, 2002).

One of the first classifications which has had a great impact on our understanding of FFI is the demarcation made by Long (1991) between *focus on form* (FoF) and *focus on forms* (FoFs). Long (1991) conceptualized the need to incorporate form focused instruction into meaning-oriented communicative language teaching with the term “focus on form.” FoFs, as defined by Long (1991; 1996; 2000), is predicated on the assumption that linguistic elements are preselected and presented to learners in an isolated and decontextualized manner like traditional structural and synthetic approaches to language teaching (Wilkins, 1978) in which language is broken down into discrete elements and is then presented to them in an intensive fashion. Thus, in focus on forms instruction the primary focus of attention is on the form that is being targeted. A quintessential example of a focus-on-forms lesson is one conducted by means of ‘PPP’ (i.e. a three stage lesson typical in Situational Language Teaching encompassing the presentation of a grammatical structure, its practice in controlled drills and the provision of opportunities to produce it freely) (Ellis *et al.*, 2002). This is in stark contrast with FoF in which the primary focus of attention is on meaning and communication and involves drawing learner’s attention to linguistic forms ‘as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication’ (Long, 1991, p.46). For example, students may be asked to perform an opinion-gap task and in the course of doing so have their attention drawn to one or more linguistic forms which are necessary to perform the activity. Long (2000) recapitulates that FoF instruction is prior to FoFs in that FoF is learner-centered, is compatible with learner’s internal syllabus, and is need-sensitive.

In a nutshell, Long (1991) propounds that *focus on form*

1. occurs in discourse that is primarily meaning centered
2. is observable (i.e., occurs interactionally)
3. is incidental (i.e., is not preplanned)
4. is transitory
5. is extensive (i.e., several different forms are attended to in the context of a single lesson)

Ellis *et al.* (2001a) pinpointed that this definition is not entirely in line with that of other researchers. Doughty and Williams (1998b), for example, regard focus on form as including planned lessons directed at teaching specific linguistic features, providing that the features are taught in context through communicative activities. Doughty and Williams’ definition of focus on form incorporates criteria (1), (2), and (4). However, it differs from the above definition with regard to criteria (3) and (5); that is, planned focus on form obviously does not occur incidentally, and it is intensive rather than extensive (i.e., it involves repeated attention to a single form rather than one-shot treatments of multiple forms).

Long (1991) and Long & Robinson (1998) expound that both focus on forms and focus on meaning instruction are worthwhile, and should complement rather than exclude each other. Focus on form instruction, in their view, maintains a balance between the two by calling on teachers and learners to attend to form when necessary, yet within a communicative classroom environment. However, Long (1991) and Long & Robinson (1998) do not guarantee that focus on form instruction will lead to a specific level of L2 grammatical development within a certain time frame, presumably because of factors related to quality of instruction, intensity of instruction, and the stages of morphosyntactic development through which L2 learners must pass (Lightbown and Spada, 1999).

As mentioned earlier, Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) conceptualized FoF mainly as *reactive* responses to communication problems, occurring after the event, Doughty and Williams (1998b), moreover, recommended that FoF can also be achieved *proactively*; that is, the teacher can also plan in advance to introduce FoF.

Ellis (2001) contends that although the reactive/proactive dichotomy is beneficial as both constitute occasions where learners are invited to FoF while their primary attention is on meaning, the proactive vantage point does not fulfill the incidental characteristic of FoF as posited in Long’s (1991) original definition. Therefore, proactive FoF can contribute to repeated opportunities for attention to a pre-ordained language form or *intensive* instruction whereas incidental FoF, elaborated below, results in *extensive* instruction in that a welter of linguistic forms including grammatical, lexical, phonological, and pragmatic forms may compete for learner attention.

To alleviate the confusion triggered by some of these dichotomies, Ellis *et al.* (2002) distinguish among three types of FFI, namely *FoFs*, *Planned FoF*, and *incidental FoF*.

TABLE 1
TYPES OF FORM-BASED INSTRUCTION

Type	Syllabus	Primary focus	Distribution
1. Focus-on-forms	Structural	Form	Intensive
2. Planned focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Intensive
3. Incidental focus-on-form	Task-based	Meaning	Extensive

Ellis *et al.* (2002) define focus on forms as the pre-selection of specific features based on a linguistic and grammatical syllabus and the intensive and systematic treatment of those features. Hence, the primary focus of attention is on the form. On the contrary, they postulate that in FoF instruction the primary focus of attention is on meaning. They

further explicate that the attention to form arises out of meaning-centered activity derived from the performance of a communicative task such as information gap task.

Fotos and Nassaji (2007) pinpoint that Ellis (2001) has characterized FoFs as instruction that encompassed pre-selected forms presented to the learners either implicitly or explicitly. They point out that explicit instruction can be achieved through teaching rules, while implicit teaching is done through exercises which allow the learners to infer the rules such as structured input and production practice, thus creating a FFI continuum ranging from structure-based instruction to communicative lessons including the target form.

As shown in Table 1, focus-on-form instruction can subsume *planned focus-on-form* and *incidental focus-on-form*. Ellis *et al.* (2002) define the former as a kind of instruction which involves the use of focused tasks, i.e. “communicative tasks that have been designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form in the context of meaning-centered language use” (p.420). So, in this regard, the FoF is preordained with the difference that the treatment occurs while the learner’s subliminal attention on form and primary attention is on meaning (for example, communicative input containing the form, textual enhancement, or communicative tasks using the form, Fotos and Nassaji, 2007). A same-or-different task could also be used to present pairs of pictures where the learners are required to use ‘on’ and ‘in’ (the target forms) so as to determine whether the pictures are the same or different.

It is concluded that this type of focus-on-form instruction is similar to focus-on-forms instruction in that a specific form is pre-selected for treatment but it differs from it in two key respects. Firstly, the attention to form occurs in interaction where the primary focus is on meaning. Secondly, the learners are not made aware that a specific form is being targeted and thus are expected to function primarily as ‘language users’ rather than as ‘learners’ when they perform the task (Ellis *et al.*, 2002).

Ellis *et al.* (2001b) expound that incidental focus-on-form involves the use of unfocused tasks, i.e. communicative tasks designed to elicit general samples of the language rather than specific forms. They argue that unfocused tasks can be performed without any attention to form. However, it is also possible that the students and teacher will elect to incidentally attend to various forms while performing the task. In this case, attention to form is extensive rather than intensive—that is, many different forms are likely to be treated briefly rather than a single form addressed many times. It is like a spiral not a linear gradation and presentation of language materials. For example, while performing an opinion-gap task, students might make a number of different errors which the teacher corrects or students might feel the need to ask the teacher about a particular form, such as the meaning of a key word they do not know. Both types of focus on form require the use of a communicative task. In the case of planned focus-on-form, the teacher elects to use a task to target a specific linguistic feature and this then influences how the task is performed in the classroom. In the case of incidental focus on form, the forms attended to are not pre-determined but arise naturally out of the performance of the task. Even when the focus on form is planned, incidental attention to a range of forms in addition to the targeted form can occur.

Moreover, incidental focus on form (Ellis, 2001) takes place spontaneously, without prior intention, during meaning-focused activities and targets a host of linguistic items. The unit of analysis in studies of incidental focus on form has been what Ellis *et al.* (2001a) have termed the Focus on Form Episode (FFE), which includes all discourse pertaining to the specific linguistic structure that is the focus of attention. Example 1, taken from Ellis *et al.* (2001a, p. 300), illustrates an FFE in which a student asks a question about the meaning of a word in a discussion activity. All of these utterances pertain to the linguistic structure *spoil*; consequently, they constitute one FFE.

Example 1

S: excuse me, T, what’s spoil means?

T: spoil means=

S: =spoil

T: if you are my child

S: mhm

T: and you keep saying give me, give me sweets, give me money, give me a football, let me watch TV, and I say yes all the time, yes, I spoil you. I give you too much because you always get what you want.

S: ah, ah

T: so

S: they spoil them, mm, they always get whatever

Fotos and Nassaji (2007) point out that the incidental FoF is very similar to Long’s (1991) and Long and Robinson’s (1998) definition of FoF. However, it is also different in that Ellis’ notion of FoF can involve explicit attention to form as well as responses to anticipated ‘need’, in addition to communicative ‘problems’. Alternatively, Nassaji (1999) has conceptualized that focus on form can be actualized in the language classrooms through both *process* and *design*. The former refers to FoF which is created incidentally when both the teacher and the learner’s attention is on processing meaning whereas the latter occurs intentionally through designing communicative grammar tasks in which attention to linguistic form plays an indispensable role in order to complete the task.

III. THE RATIONALE FOR FOCUS ON FORM

The interest in focus on form is partly triggered from the suggestion that it can empower learners to develop linguistic accuracy because it provides the conditions for interlanguage restructuring to take place (Doughty, 2001; Long and Robinson, 1998). Loewen (2003), for example, argues that focus on form enables learners to take time out from a focus on meaning to notice linguistic items in the input, thereby overcoming a potential obstacle of purely meaning-focused lessons in which linguistic forms may go unnoticed. Such noticing, Schmidt (1990, 1995, 2001) argues, is necessary for L2 learning. Not only does focus on form provide learners with an opportunity to notice linguistic items, but it may also help them to ‘notice the gap’ (Schmidt and Frota, 1986) between models of the target language and their own language production. Moreover, focus on form provides opportunities for ‘pushed output’ which enhances learners’ competence through the need to express themselves in language that is accurate and appropriate (Swain, 1995, 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). For these reasons, focus on form is seen as potentially beneficial for L2 learners.

It is also noted that the call for FoF is often inspired by learner’s problems or difficulties (Williams, 2005, p. 674), usually culminating in a breakdown in communication. The problematic linguistic features were embedded into instructional focus to assist learners get back on track. In this way, FoF is compatible with the communicative approaches (Muranoi, 2000; Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004; Nunan, 2004), particularly when learners are required to stretch their interlanguage resources to meet the communicative task demands. Vanpatten (2002) argues that form and meaning compete with each other in learners with limited L2 processing capacity; therefore, they experience difficulty in simultaneously attending to form and meaning. VanPatten (2002) further states that these learners will prioritize meaning over form when performing communicative activities. VanPatten (2002) suggests that one way to teach grammar communicatively is through processing input or what he called *processing instruction*. In this approach an initial exposure to explicit instruction is interwoven with a series of input processing activities, consisting mainly of tasks that encourage the comprehension of the target structure rather than its production. These activities have been suggested to help learners to create form meaning connections in input and hence process grammar for meaning (Lee & VanPatten, 1995). Due to the explicit focus on form component of this approach, some researchers have equated it with Long’s focus on forms (e.g., Sheen, 2002). VanPatten (2002), however, argues that since the aim of this approach is “to assist the learner in making form–meaning connections during input processing; it is more appropriate to view it as a type of focus on form” (p. 764).

The need for FoF becomes even more significant ‘when learners have acquired some communicative ability and when they run the risk of fossilizing’ (Ellis, 2003, p. 78). The very nature of FoF as learner-centered allows for a non-linear learning process to take place in the L2 classroom, and for individual learners to progress according to a developmental sequence that is not necessarily in step with explicit instruction. Alternatively, Williams (1999) points out that the findings of a wide range of immersion and naturalistic acquisition studies suggest that when second language learning is merely experiential and focused on communicative success, some linguistic features do not develop to target like accuracy. This occurs in spite of years of meaningful, comprehensible input and opportunities for interaction. Long (1996) took the view that instruction that includes focus on form has at least two advantages over purely meaning-focused instruction: It can increase the salience of positive evidence, and it can provide often essential negative evidence, in the form of direct or indirect negative feedback. Taken together, these theoretical explanations provide a compelling rationale for the inclusion of FFI in second/foreign language curricula.

IV. METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF FFI: REACTIVE VS. PREEMPTIVE FOF

In this section, we will briefly elaborate on some of the methodological procedures as how to deal with FFI. Another dichotomy posited by Long & Robinson (1998) and elaborated by Ellis *et al.* (2001b) is between *reactive* and *preemptive* focus on form whether it is planned (proactive) or incidental. As the name signifies, reactive focus on form arises when learners produce an actual or a perceived erroneous utterance, which is then addressed usually by the teacher or by another learner. Thus, it supplies learners with negative evidence. As Long and Robinson suggest, this evidence can be *explicit* (e.g., the learner is told directly what the error is or is given metalingual information relating to the correct form) or *implicit* (e.g., the learner’s deviant utterance is recast in the target language form). Doughty and Varela’s (1998) study provided reactive focus on form of the implicit kind. There is a considerable literature on teachers’ corrective feedback, including a number of descriptive studies (Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver, 2000) and a review (Seedhouse, 1997). These studies show that corrective feedback is common even in meaning-focused language instruction (such as that found in immersion classrooms); that teachers typically favor indirect, implicit correction rather than direct, explicit correction; and that learners often do not *uptake* correction (i.e., they make no attempt to produce the correct utterance that has been modeled for them).

Ellis *et al.* (2001b) explicate that reactive focus on form occurs in episodes that involve negotiation. Pica (1992), for example, defines *negotiation* as applying “to those interactions in which learners and their interlocutors adjust their speech phonologically, lexically, and morphosyntactically to resolve difficulties in mutual understanding that impede the course of their communication” (p. 200). To put it simply, negotiation is problem-oriented in that it arises as a response to a communicative problem. Pica (1992) proposes two types of negotiation, namely *negotiation of meaning* and *negotiation of form*. The former is entirely conversational and communicative in orientation, as it is directed at enabling the participants to achieve mutual understanding in order for communication to proceed. Example 2 below

demonstrates this type of negotiation. The latter, however, is didactic in orientation, as it is targeted at boosting accuracy and precision when no problem of understanding has arisen. As Lyster and Ranta (1997) point out, both types of negotiation occur in meaning-focused instruction (e.g., immersion classrooms), and both involve corrective feedback and thus are reactive in nature.

Like reactive focus on form, preemptive focus on form is problem-oriented. However, the nature of the problem differs. While reactive focus on form entails negotiation and is stimulated by something problematic that an interactant has said or written, preemptive focus on form involves the teacher or learner initiating attention to form even though no actual problem in production has arisen. In other words, reactive focus on form addresses a performance problem (which may or may not reflect a competence problem) whereas preemptive focus on form addresses an actual or a perceived gap in the students' knowledge. The type of discourse that arises in preemptive focus on form differs from that found in reactive focus on form. Thus, whereas the latter takes the form of sequences involving a trigger, an indicator of a problem, and a resolution (Varonis & Gass, 1985; see Example 2), the former consists typically of exchanges involving a query and response.

A. *Reactive Focus on Form: Conversational vs. Didactic Focus-on-form*

The linguistic errors that students make during a communicative activity may or may not block the communication. In Example 2 the student's error breakdowns the communication, resulting in the teacher addressing this by negotiating meaning. Student 1, whose name is Bess, wants to tell the teacher that her group has given itself the name 'Best Group'. However, the teacher mishears and thinks the name is 'Bess'Group'. This results in student 1 paying closer attention to her pronunciation in order to clarify the name.

Example 2: Conversational focus-on-form (request for confirmation)

S: my group has a name

T: what name?

S1: best

T: Bess' group?

S1: best

T: oh, best, okay

S2: best

T: best, not group three, the best, that's a lovely name (adapted from Ellis *et al.*, 2002, pp.424)

In Example 3, two students are performing a role play with student 1 acting as a guest and student 2 as a hotel receptionist. The teacher fails to understand Student's 2 utterance and consequently requests clarification ('What?') causing the student to reformulate it using a contraction (I'll) in place of the original full form (will).

Example 3: Conversational focus-on-form (request for clarification)

S1: I'm look for a room, or

S2: I will take you

T: what?

S2: I'll take you (adapted from Ellis *et al.*, 2002, p.424)

Ellis *et al.* (2002) believe that both salience and communicative need, which are evident in conversational focus-on-form, constitute the ideal conditions for noticing and acquisition to take place. Teachers can negotiate meaning conversationally using either requests for confirmation or requests for clarification. They elaborate that a request for confirmation typically involves the teacher repeating the problematic utterance with or without reformulating it. In Example 2, the teacher asks the student to confirm that she has heard the name of the group correctly. A request for clarification is typically used when the teacher does not have a clear idea of what the student has said. It is performed formulaically by means of expressions such as 'Sorry?' and 'Could you say that again?' There is a major difference between these two ways of accomplishing meaning negotiation. In the case of a request for confirmation, students only need to reformulate their own utterances if it is clear that the teacher has not understood correctly. In contrast, a request for clarification places the responsibility on the student for dealing with the problem and is more likely to lead to a reformulation of the problem utterance as in Example 3.

Sometimes, however, a student error does not result in communication breakdown but the teacher wants to emphasize language accuracy. In Example 3, the student leaves out the definite article 'the'. The teacher has no difficulty understanding him but focuses attention on the error by correcting the utterance. The focus-on-form episode that results from this type of error treatment constitutes a kind of pedagogic 'time-out' from meaning-focused communication and for this reason can be considered 'didactic'. It involves a 'negotiation of form' rather than a 'negotiation of meaning'. Ellis *et al.* (1999) found that didactic focus-on-form was far more common than conversational in communicative ESL lessons involving adult learners.

Example 4: Didactic focus-on-form

S: I was in pub

(2.0)

S: I was in pub

T: in the pub?

S: yeah and I was drinking beer (adapted from Ellis *et al.*, 2002, p.425)

B. Pre-emptive Focus on Form

Pre-emptive focus on form can be either student-initiated or teacher-initiated. Like reactive focus-on-form, pre-emptive focus on form can be conversational (i.e. motivated by communicative need) or didactic. Student pre-emptive focus-on-form is typically initiated by means of a query that the student addresses to the teacher. The advantage of student-initiated preemptive focus-on-form is that it addresses gaps in the students' linguistic knowledge which can be presumed to be significant to them (for otherwise why would they ask?) and which they are therefore strongly motivated to try to fill. A disadvantage of student-initiated attention to form, however, is that it can detract from the communicative activity. This is one reason why teachers may decline to answer a student query (Ellis *et al.*, 2002)

Example 5: Student-initiated pre-emptive focus-on-form

S: How do you pronounce this word?

T: Omniscient

S: Omnis...cient

T: Omniscient

S: Omniscient, thank you very much.

T: Sure

Ellis *et al.* (2001b) argue that teachers also interrupt the flow of a communicative activity to draw student's attention to a specific form. In so doing they are electing to disrupt the meaning-centeredness of an activity, presumably because it is predicated on the assumption that the form in question will be problematic to the students in some way. Teacher-initiated focus on form is initiated either by a query directed at the students or by an advisory statement.

Example 6: Teacher-initiated focus-on-form

T: M has an alibi

(3.0)

T: another name for girlfriend?

(laughter)

(4.5)

T: an alibi is a reason you have for not being at the bank robbery (.) okay (.) not being at the bank robbery (adapted from Ellis *et al.*, 2002, pp.428-429)

It is well documented in the literature on FFI that two sides of the continuum, that is, FoF and FoFs, have yielded great results in fostering language abilities. However, many questions still seek clear-cut answers. These include:

1. To what extent should teachers emphasize focus-on-form?

It is not quite vivid that how much teachers should put emphasis on focus-on-form since a communicative language lesson has a dual objective-to foster students' fluency and accuracy. Although it is proposed that form and meaning may compete, the two should be in harmony with each other not making extremes. They should not be in a complementary distribution, that is, the existence of one excludes the other. So it is highly recommended that teachers develop tasks to focus on both meaning and form simultaneously, and the two should complement each other.

2. To what extent should focus-on-form be conversational or didactic?

It is pertinent to the preceding. The classroom should tap upon both of them. It should be noted that language is not divisible, so both form and meaning should be incorporated both in EFL and ESL communicative language classrooms. It is, however, undeniable that teachers can prioritize meaning over form or the other way round, but they are recommended not to exclude either.

3. To what extent should teachers pre-empt attention to form during a communicative task?

Ellis *et al.* (2002) argue that the pre-emption of form during a communicative activity disrupts the class to focus on meaning. We, however, postulate that the pre-emption of some of those linguistic features especially pronunciation prevents fossilization. Our experience also justifies that some students really like to be corrected by their teachers even during communicative activities. These students express that when their mistakes or errors are corrected, it indicates that teachers pay close attention to them not simply looking at them.

4. To what extent should student-initiated pre-emptive focus-on-form be fostered?

While Ellis *et al.* (2001b) in a seminal article concluded that in 12-hours of meaning focused instruction, there were as many preemptive focus-on-form episodes (FFE) as reactive FFEs, Baleghizadeh (2010) found that in 10 hours of meaning-focused instruction there were few instances of preemptive focus-on-form. The divergent results could be attributed to the sociocultural settings. Comparing the divergent results of these two studies, we suggest that more studies should be documented in the literature so that teachers will stand in a better position to make judgments.

V. CRITICISMS OF FOCUS ON FORM INSTRUCTION

While these studies and many others have provided us with valuable insights (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Ellis *et al.*, 2001b; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Williams, 1999; 2001; Basturkmen *et al.*, 2004; Murani, 2000; Loewen, 2003), they all have taken place in settings that appear to be well-funded, adequately supplied with teaching and learning materials, and generally free of classroom discipline problems. Moreover, most studies of focus on form instruction have taken place in a few countries, namely the United States, New Zealand, and Japan (Poole and Sheorey, 2002). It is apparent from the literature on FoF that not a single empirical study can be found that took place in a setting in which classes

were overcrowded, up-to-date materials were generally not available, and teachers received less than adequate training in language skills and pedagogy (Poole, 2005). In like manner, no study supporting focus on form instruction appears to have taken place in a developing country, where the socioeconomic, political, and pedagogical realities may differ significantly from those in more developed countries. Thus, instructors and curricula designers in many settings have little information to judge whether or not focus on form instruction would be appropriate in their programs.

Although focus on form instruction has yet to be investigated in many settings, it is not viable in many circumstances due to curricular constraints. In particular, in many secondary and university language programs, teachers are obligated to teach certain forms in a specific order by using government-mandated materials. In Iran, for example, junior high school and high school English textbooks, which are not at all meaning-centered, are mandated by the Ministry of Education where teachers have little say in designing the curriculum, choosing the materials and textbooks.

Another inherent problem with focus on form instruction lies in the practical side, specifically, class size. Focus on form instruction, in Long (1991) and Long and Robinson's (1998) conception, seems optimally suited to classrooms that are small enough to enable instructors to verbally address their students' problematic forms, presumably via classroom discussion, Q/A sessions, and impromptu and planned public speaking events. As far as writing is concerned, such a classroom would need to allow teachers to frequently evaluate students' writing, presumably in the form of essays, in-class writing tasks, and journals/diaries. Likewise, small classes would be needed for students to have significant amounts of peer interaction both orally and in written form. In many settings, however, classes are large, and individual attention and student-student interaction is not possible (Poole, 2005).

Quite in par with Poole (2005) and others, we cogently argue that in addition to curricular problems, many English language teachers lack a high level of L2 oral proficiency and do not have opportunities for developing it. However, Long (1991) and Long and Robinson's (1998) conception of focus on form instruction mandates teachers to have native-like or near native-like competence fluency, more specifically, in oral situations where they would need to be able to spontaneously recognize students' form-based errors and provide them with the correct feedback. Butler (2004), for example, reports that elementary school EFL teachers in Japan had low self-ratings of their own L2 proficiency, particularly in the area of oral grammar. Similarly, Yu (2001) illustrates that similar levels of low-proficiency are prevalent among Chinese EFL teachers who feel that their only option is the grammar-translation method: "Quite a number of teachers know only some basic English grammar and vocabulary. For them the grammar-translation method is the most acceptable because they can basically teach English in Chinese" (p. 197). Teaching English through the native language is commonplace in many settings not because of any objections against using English, but simply because of low L2 proficiency on the part of teachers.

Last but not least, focus on form instruction is not viable in some countries due to cultural variables. Focus on form is highly individualistic in that errors are frequently, although not exclusively, addressed on an individual basis. Hofstede (1986) suggests that individualistic societies tend to produce more individualistic teaching approaches; however, collectivist societies, which tend to focus more on the general good of all students, may find focus on form at odds with their cultural values. Put it succinctly, successful focus on form instruction would need to take place in a cultural atmosphere that allows students to actively participate in daily activities. Thus, administrators, teachers, parents, and students would need to feel some degree of comfort with letting students be active participants—and sometimes leaders—in the content and manner in which they study.

VI. THE RECONCILIATION NOT POLARIZATION OF FOCUS ON FORM & FOCUS ON FORMS

It sounds quite indispensable to conceive that the dichotomy conceptualized and encapsulated by Long (1991) is much theoretical in nature. Put cogently, a focus on form is appreciated as being compatible with currently-accepted theories of SLA, while a focus on forms is stigmatized as being incompatible with them. Sheen (2003) depreciates this polarization contending that this stigmatization results purely from theorizing on the nature of SLA, and not on the rigorous and reliable long-term trialing of these options in the classroom settings. Sheen further argues that the myth that a focus on form is more conducive to learning than its counterpart is attaining more credibility due to its great embrace by applied linguists. Sheen (2003) justifies his position by asserting that further evidence of the unjustified bolstering of the claims of a focus on form at the expense of the other is provided in Norris and Ortega's (2000) metaanalysis. It is, however, surprising that in their study, Norris and Ortega excluded all pre-1980 comparative studies. Speciously, they concluded that "...a focus on form and focus on forms are equally effective" (p. 501). Hadn't they excluded those studies, the pendulum would have swung in favor of focus on forms.

In a nutshell, we highly recommend teachers and researchers to have a complementary-compensatory approach towards FoF and FoFs. Both approaches sound viable in some special settings as argued before.

VII. CONCLUSION

The present article reviewed the most important FFI dichotomies, offering some methodological procedures for teachers and demystifying some of the misconceptions which have long confused teachers and researchers. We also concluded that there should have been a call for an integration of meaning-focused and form-focused instruction as a complementary-compensatory approach in the EFL/ESL classrooms in order to promote both learners' fluency and

accuracy. Teachers and researchers should not stigmatize a focus on forms approach since it has proven to be equally effective in fostering language abilities. However, we strongly suggest that future research does need to take place in more diverse cultural and socioeconomic circumstances in order to determine whether or not focus on form instruction is appropriate for different groups of learners, not solely focusing on well-funded schools, adequately supplied with teaching and learning materials, and generally free of classroom discipline problems. If research on focus on form instruction does not take into consideration the realities of classrooms, then it will not bear little relevance to large number of teachers and learners. In the interim, however, teachers, teacher trainers, and administrators should continue to read the literature on focus on form instruction; yet, they should not decide on its merits solely on the basis of what professional journals say, but rather should give equal attention to their perceptions of their local instructional needs and realities.

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On Evaluation of the Theoretical Soundness of Critical Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of texts, which views language as a form of social practice. As a new trend of discourse analysis, CDA has been more recently announced internationally. This paper elaborates on the theoretical framework of CDA and highlights the evaluation of the theoretical soundness of it from two aspects --- usefulness and criticism.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis (CDA), theoretical soundness, ideology

I. INTRODUCTION

On 16 January 2006, Iran suspended CNN's accreditation after an employee of this news service misquoted President Mahmud Ahmadinejad. The whole story was that during its simultaneous translation of a presidential news conference on 14 January, CNN quoted Ahmadinejad as saying: "The use of nuclear weapons is Iran's right." What Ahmadinejad actually said was: "The use of nuclear energy and technology is Iran's right." The Iranian authorities accused the broadcaster of deliberately mistranslating Ahmadinejad's statement. Hence, the Culture Ministry of Iran announced that no CNN staffers would be allowed into the country until further notice. This event illustrates what the theory of critical discourse analysis (henceforth CDA) advocates well: everybody may hold a political attitude to language in use and thereby reveal ideology, power and dominance hidden in language.

Critical discourse analysis, a new trend of discourse analysis, has established itself internationally over the past twenty years or so. The distinctiveness of the theory lies not so much in the analytic techniques it employs as in its attempt to locate discourse within a particular conception of society, and its adoption of a thoroughly "critical" attitude towards that society. CDA assumes that in producing knowledge of society critical research reveals what is obscured by ideology, such ideology being seen as pervasive and as playing an essential role in preserving the status quo and that by acting on the basis of critical theory we can change the world for the better. Moreover, the change produced will be fundamental in character, such as to eradicate oppression and emancipate all human beings. But it's a pity that CDA was introduced into China very late--- no related papers appeared until 1995--- and even up to now relatively few language scholars know about it. Thereby, the paper firstly intends to make an general introduction to CDA. However, the chief purpose of it is to evaluate the theoretical soundness of this theory.

II. THEORY OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Critical discourse analysis mainly analyses social interactions in a way which focuses upon their linguistic elements, and which sets out to show up their generally hidden determinants in the system of social relationships, as well as hidden effects they may have upon that system (Fairclough, 1989). Though announced more recently, the theory has attracted a great deal of interest internationally, "Critical discourse analysis ... has established itself internationally over the past twenty years or so as a field of cross-disciplinary teaching and research which has been widely drawn upon in the social sciences and humanities (for example, in sociology, geography, history and media studies), and has inspired critical language teaching at various levels and in various domains"(Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999, p. 1).

CDA is defined as an interdisciplinary approach to the study of texts, which views "language as a form of social practice" (Fairclough, 1989, p. 20). Fairclough and Wodak (1997) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows: (1) CDA addresses social problems. (2) Power relations are discursive. (3) Discourse constitutes society and culture. (4) Discourse does ideological work. (5) Discourse is historical. (6) The link between text and society is mediated. (7) Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory. (8) Discourse is a form of social action.

CDA theorists have woken up to the fact that the approach requires true multidisciplinary, and an account of intricate relationships between text, talk, social cognition, power, society and culture. And they are open about their goals: exposing hegemony, demonstrating "hidden" ideological processes, and equipping people in critical language awareness, the educational application of critical discourse analysis (Tyrahit-Drake, 1999). Hence they commit themselves to solving the persistent problems of oppression, injustice and inequality that demand urgent attention, such as discrimination, sexism, superiority – inferiority distinction, etc. Correspondingly CDA sets its critical targets to the power elites that enact, sustain, legitimate, condone or ignore social inequality and injustice (van Dijk, 1993).

The major issues which the approach of CDA deals with center on the relations between discourse, society, ideology

and power:

(1) Discourse and Society

In the viewpoint of CDA, there is an internal and dialectical relationship between language and society, not an external one. Firstly, language is a part of society. On the one hand, linguistic phenomena are social phenomena of a special sort. In this sense, whenever people speak or listen or write or read, they do so in ways which are determined socially and have social effects. On the other hand, social phenomena are (in part) linguistic phenomena, which implies that the language activity that goes on in social contexts (as all language activity does) is not merely a reflection or expression of social processes and practices, it is a part of those processes and practices.

(2) Discourse and Ideology

In the article *Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis*, Teun A. van Dijk (1993) claims that social cognition is the necessary theoretical (and empirical) “interface” between discourse and society as well as power and dominance, and that neglect of social cognition has been one of the major theoretical shortcomings of most work in discourse analysis. Socially shared representations of societal arrangements, groups and relations, as well as mental operations such as interpretation, thinking and arguing, inferencing and learning, among others, together define what we understand by social cognition. On the part of van Dijk, discourse, communication and (other) forms of action and interaction are monitored by social cognition. The same is true for understanding of social events or of social institutions and power relations.

Ideologies are the fundamental social cognitions that reflect the basic aims, interests and values of groups (van Dijk, 1993). For CDA, ideology refers to social forms and processes within which, and by means of which, symbolic forms circulate in the social world, and is seen as an important means of establishing and maintaining unequal power relations (Wodak, 2002).

(3) Discourse and Power

Power, control and dominance are the main issues CDA pays great importance to. Power involves control, namely by (members of) one group over (those of) other groups. Such control may pertain to action and cognition, that is, a powerful group may limit the freedom of action of others, but also influence their minds (van Dijk, 1993). It's viewed that modern and often more effective power is mostly cognitive and enacted by persuasion, dissimulation or manipulation, among other strategic ways to change the mind of others in one's own interests which is essentially a function of text and talk. Hence, CDA also needs to focus on the discursive strategies that legitimate control, or otherwise “naturalize” the social order, and especially relations of inequality.

In an overview of the principles of critical discourse analysis, Van Dijk (1993) distinguishes three aspects of language power: “reproduction” which is the process by which elites exert their dominance through language; “resistance”, which is the way the less powerful attempt to oppose the attempts by elites to dominate them; and “joint-production”, which is when dominated groups are persuaded that dominance is “natural”, or in some way legitimate.

III. EVALUATION OF THE CDA THEORY

A. *Usefulness of CDA*

From the principles mentioned above, the CDA theory does function in practice to some extent. But to what extent the theory is useful and feasible? The question needs to be discussed from these aspects: the original intention of CDA, applied registers and analytical tools. Different from the mainstream linguistics which puts focus on language proper, CDA sets language in use as its subject for investigation, so it advocates that the production of discourse is the result of the producer's intentionality, namely ideology. It cannot be denied that when a producer uses a language, he/she has to make some choices, the process of which involves the producer's intentionality, preference and habit, etc. CDA theorists have realized the importance of intentionality in discourse and have given it unprecedented emphasis.

This aspect is found to be more illustrative for some applied registers of the CDA theory, esp. that the usefulness and feasibility of CDA is clear in political discourse, news reports covering politics, sexism, racism, diplomacy and public discourse and the like. Taiwan's case is very illustrative. In the presidential election, both the pan-blue and pan-green camps find fault with each other and thus are careful in their choice of words to cover or blur their true intention so as to advance their advantage in election. Moreover, Chen Shuibian's speeches show the point that his intention always remains the same no matter what and how he says, that is, remaining in power through advocating the independence of Taiwan. In such sense, the theory of CDA provides people a new mode of thinking, which helps not merely to get information from the literal meaning, but read between the lines.

As far as the analytical tools of CDA are concerned, CDA provides lists of formal linguistic features which are likely to be ideologically significant, and such features are cited in analyses. It can be understood that linguistic devices do serve to the expression of the producer's ideology rhetorically with some perceived and the others hidden. In fact, for politicians' part, the deeper their ideology is hidden, the more successful their discourses are. Thus, the power elites always try to use various linguistic devices to cover their intentionality so as to transfer their ideologies to the public unconsciously and realize their aims which is the so-called language hegemony.

For its positive part, CDA helps people to detect what the advantaged have to say but perhaps they are not willing to say out, so that when interpreting such discourses, people need to read between the lines to get the implication, which also means a sign for the judgement of the producer's attitude. Therefore, one of the theoretical significances of CDA is

to put forward critical approaches in education, aiming at fostering people's critical language awareness (CLA) in communication.

B. *Criticism on CDA*

Firstly, the theory itself sounds self-contradictory and subjective to some extent. The idea that the relation between form and content is not arbitrary makes CDA practitioners insist that there are relations between language, power and ideology, and between how the world is represented in texts and how people think about the world so that the recipient should analyze the discourse critically to finally reveal the hidden ideology and hegemony in language. If so, CDA theory itself is the product of the ideologies of CDA theorists, i.e. the theory itself is rather subjective than objective, because analysts know perfect well at the outset just what political position they're going to find. Facts have testified that the textual interpretations of CDA are politically rather than linguistically motivated and that analysts find what they expect to find, whether absences or presences (M. Stubbs, 1997).

Secondly, the theory is overambitious of the task that it sets itself. It aims to achieve a very great deal more than other kinds of discourse analysis. Not only does it claim to offer an understanding of discursive processes, but also of society as a whole, of what is wrong with it, and of how it can and should be changed (M. Hammersley, 1997). However, the problem is that, take conversations between father and son as an example, even though the son realizes the domination and hegemony in his father's words, what should and would he do, to resist or to break his father's domination? Opposed to what CDA expects, overplay of communicative intentionality would lead to fussiness and oversensitivity and thus increases the burden of verbal communication, and runs the risk of violating the economic principle for language use. In this sense, CDA is not practical and feasible.

Thirdly, CDA is more ideologically or socially sound but not so much in linguistics; it's based on a bias in judgment rather than objective observation as well as on a philosophy of fight and mentality of deep distrust. CDA practitioners take it for granted that the producer of a discourse always tries to reinforce his position or ideology through discourse both in implicit and explicit ways. It reminds us of the period of the cultural revolution when Chinese people were cautioned never to forget class struggle and were told that whatever arise should be evaluated in terms of class struggle. We Chinese have long had such understanding; but the westerners think they are independent individuals who can have their own way of thinking and doing things, and often wary of erosion of their individuality, which could hardly be maintained if CDA advocates' way of cognition were adopted. Similarly, the way of expression criticized by CDA practitioners is perhaps the result of democratic movement, which has made the advantaged have more careful consideration in expression instead of in arbitrary or dictating manners. In addition, what is often taken for granted by every practitioner of discourse analysis is that in verbal communication participant has his or her own interest and habits to use words and has own interest to guard or promote. Everyone speaks to enhance not against his or her own benefits or right, it is a universal natural tendency rather than an ideological strategy. Nevertheless, like politics and economy, ideology is inevitable in any contemporary social phenomenon and no one would like to say something against his own interest even if it is a confession, so social advantage is always present in discourse. As a matter of fact, it would be very difficult and elaborate for one to entirely free himself from the influence of ideology; nor is it necessary.

Finally, we find that, apart from political discourse, public discourses and media news about sensitive topics, CDA theory does not work everywhere. In mass communication, CDA is nearly useless to news reports about science and technology, for language of science and technology always strives to be clear and objective. Though such analysis works in verbal advertisements, what's the practical use of critical discourse analysis? The audience would be disappointed and mock the advertiser if an ad were not attractive, for everybody knows that the purpose of advertisement is to attract consumer's eye to the product on sale and to allure consumer to buy with various verbal and visual means. In daily communication, neither is CDA meaningful. An example has been given in the second point. It's clear that the range of application of CDA has a strict limitation, hence it's viewed by the author that the notion of CDA should be defined in a more detailed way.

To conclude, in the author's opinion the CDA theory is closely related to registers rather than the attribute of linguistic forms. In particular, the overplay of political awareness greatly restricts its applicability within some registers.

IV. CONCLUSION

Today, in fact, there must scarcely be an area of social research has not witnessed the emergence of a critical perspective. So does the discipline of discourse analysis. The "critical" attitude of CDA distinguishes it from the previous approaches and fills the field with vitality. Nevertheless, the merits and demerits of the theory should be dealt with correctly. The research done in the paper is to examine the theory and make a deeper understanding of it.

The CDA theory, more or less, misunderstands the various functions of linguistic forms as the attribute of linguistic forms. It's testified that CDA is not the natural or mainstream way of thinking. When over applied, it may become a criticism on the fundamental functions of language as a whole, and anyway, freedom of expression and diversity of expression shall be endangered by widespread application of CDA, so is the freedom of interpretation, for only power, ideology is taken into consideration. On the other hand, in a time of cultural and speech hegemony, it's necessary for the common people to develop critical language awareness to guard themselves against suppression in various forms,

including linguistic forms. In such sense, CDA can play an important role to serve such purpose.

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Translation of Idioms: A Hard Task for the Translator

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Abstract—Idioms can be considered as a part of everyday language. They are the essence of any language and the most problematic part to handle with. Not all idioms have direct equivalents in another language, because they are linguistic expressions which are typical for a language and specific to a single culture. It is impossible to define any unique approach in the translating process since so many idioms are culturally specific and thus the pragmatic meaning must be much more prized than the literal meaning. If they are to be translated literally or word for word, they lead to extreme confusion. The present study investigates some important idioms in the book *What You Asked For*, and provides the readers with the procedures and strategies used to translate them. The procedures are proposed by Baker (1992). This paper presents the definition of idioms to see what they are. Then, it classifies the idioms into different categories and in the end, gives some techniques and procedures to translate them.

Index Terms—translation, idioms, classification of idioms, equivalents, culture specific, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is used to transfer meaning from one language to another. A written or spoken SL text will be exchanged by its equivalent written or spoken TL text. In most cases, however, we as translators can not find the proper equivalent of some of the SL items. According to Culler (1976), languages contain concepts which differ radically from those of another, since each language organizes the world differently. When we compare languages we find that different cultures have identified similar social observations and according to their knowledge and experience coin their own phrases. So we can conclude that the disparity among languages are problematic for translators and the more different the concepts of languages are, the more difficult it is to transfer messages from one language to the other. Among the troublesome factors involved in the process of translation is the transference of form, meaning, style, proverbs, idioms, etc. Before going deep into the discussion, there is a need to define idioms to distinguish them from non-idioms.

II. DEFINITION OF IDIOMS

Idioms are linguistic expressions or lexical items representing objects, concepts or phenomena of material life particular to a given culture. They are necessary to any language in order to keep the local and cultural color of that language. In a definition given by Larson idiom is “a string of words whose meaning is different from the meaning conveyed by the individual words” (Larson, 1984, p.20). In another place he states that idiom “carries certain emotive connotations not expressed in the other lexical items” (Larson, 1984, p.142). In Longman dictionary of English idioms (Longman Group Ltd: 1979) idioms are referred to as “a fixed group of words with a special different meaning from the meaning of the separate words”. So the first thing to mention here is that idioms can not be translated literally because their meaning won't be predicted from the usual meaning of their constituents. For example the idiom *it was a pretty kettle of fish* refers to a messy situation and in Farsi is translated as *آش شله قلمکاری بود که نگو*. Here there is nothing to do with the kettle, a utensil in the kitchen, or the fish, an animal living in water. We can see that if this idiom will be translated word by word as *یک کنری قشنگ ماهی بود* it will make no sense to the readers.

In her book, *In Other Words*, Mona Baker (1992) states that idioms are frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form and often carry meanings which can not be deduced from their individual components. So by stating this definition she considers five conditions for idioms which come as follow:

- 1) The order of the words in an idiom cannot be changed. The way the words are put together is fixed and they can not change their place. E.g. “*go to rack and ruin*” not “*go to ruin and rack*”.
- 2) The words in an idiom can not be omitted. We as the users of the language are not permitted to delete some of the words of a particular element. E.g. “*shed crocodile tears*” not “*shed tears*”.
- 3) There are no extra words that might be added to an idiom. E.g. “*have a narrow escape*” not “*have a narrow quick*”

escape".

4) No words in an idiom can be replaced by another word. E.g. "out of sight, out of mind" not "out of sight, out of heart".

5) The grammatical structures of an idiom can not also be changed. We have the idiom of "ring the bell" but we don't have "the bell was ringed".

III. CLASSIFICATION OF IDIOMS

Translating idioms is a very difficult task for a translator especially if he is not aware of the cultural differences of the source and target languages. The main problem for him is recognizing idioms and distinguishing idiomatic from non-idiomatic expressions. In order to help to understand idioms better, there is a classification of them. Idioms can be grouped into five categories of colloquialisms, proverbs, slang, allusions and phrasal verbs. Below is a brief definition of each with some examples.

A. Colloquialism

Colloquialism is an expression not used in formal speech or writing. Colloquialism or colloquial language is considered to be characteristic of or only appropriate for casual, ordinary, familiar, or informal conversation rather than formal speech or writing. They are used in daily conversations. For example in the case a person laughs a lot we say *ش از خنده روده بر شد* (he died of laughter). It is an informal way of saying *زیاد خندید* (laughed a lot). Another example of colloquialism can be the expression of *از دهنم پرید* which is used the time that we say something by accident and not deliberately.

Colloquialism is often used primarily within a limited geographical area. Example of this geographical type of colloquialism is the use of the word *هم ریش* by the people living in Isfahan and the word *هم داماد* by the people living in Yazd (a city near Isfahan). They refer to one item differently. Both of them refer to the husband of one's wife's sister but not in a similar way.

B. Proverbs

Proverb is a simple way of speaking. It is used the time when we want to make our speech more concrete and more understandable. It is popularly used and repeated and expresses facts and truth based on common sense. Wolfgang Mieder is an American scholar working on proverb. He defines proverb as follows:

A proverb is a short, generally known sentence of the folk which contains wisdom, truth, morals, and traditional views in a metaphorical, fixed and memorizable form and which is handed down from generation to generation (Mieder 1985, p.119; also in 1993, p.24).

The reason to use proverbs can be to choose a way of saying a fact gently and smoothly and to make it more reliable and valid. Other times, they are used to carry more weight in a discussion. Another reason can be to give more taste and beauty to our speech. Good speakers try to make use of proverbs to attract their audience.

Examples of proverbs in Farsi can be *خواهی نشوی رسوا هم رنگ جماعت شو* (in Rome do as the Romans do) or the expression *نابرده رنج گنج میسر نمی شود* (no pain, no gain) which refers to the situation of suffering in order to gain the thing we have intended to achieve.

C. Slang

Slang is the use of highly informal words and expressions that are not considered as the standard use of language. It is often used as a way to say words that are not appropriate or somehow taboo. Dumas and Lighter (1978) argue that slang lowers the dignity of formal or serious speech or writing and replace a well-known conventional synonym. Slang is used to add humor and fun to one's speech. An example of slang can be *مردی متحرک* which is the time when somebody is looking extremely ill, or the term *بزگر* which points to something very different from others in the same group. The term *خفن* in Farsi is another slang used mostly by teenagers and refers to something very cool.

D. Allusions

Allusion is a figure of speech that makes a reference to a place, event, literary work, myth, or work of art, either directly or by implication. Abrams (1971) defined allusion as "a brief reference, explicit or indirect, to a person, place or event, or to another literary work or passage".

To give an example of allusion we can refer to the expression of *یاسین به گوش خر خواندن* which implies doing something of no worth or performing an action of no importance. Another example can be *زیره به کرمان بردن* which is an allusion to the city of Kerman and is equivalent to the expression of bring coal to the Newcastle.

E. Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verb is the combination of a verb and a preposition, a verb and an adverb, or a verb with both an adverb and a preposition. A phrasal verb often has a meaning which is different from the original verb.

They are usually used informally in everyday speech as opposed to the more formal verbs. For example the informal use of to go on instead of the word to continue or the use of to hand in rather than to deliver.

When a translator recognizes an idiom and distinguishes it from non-idiomatic expressions, the next step is to select the suitable strategy to translate it. Of course in the beginning of his work, he will face some difficulties and problems. He should investigate which strategy is more appropriate in dealing with the translation of the source idiom into the target language.

Most of the time, a source language idiom has no equivalent in the target language. This can be a very important factor a translator should notice. Different languages express different concepts and realities in a different way which is particular to that language. Therefore, sometimes a same concept or idea is referred to distinctly in two different languages. Of course it does not mean that because the idiom has not its equivalent in the TL it should not be translated. The translator tries to translate it in a way that the sense won't be lost. In translating "to carry coals to Newcastle" the translator has no problem during his process of translation because it has an equivalent in Persian as "زیره به کرمان بردن". The meaning and the sense is the same in both Persian and English languages. It means to offer someone the thing which he has already plenty of.

IV. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES FOR TRANSLATING IDIOMS

The way an idiom is to be translated depends on the context in which it is used. We have different and various translation strategies but the translator should see the use of which kind of these strategies can help the target language readers to better comprehend the meaning of the idioms. When translating a source idiom the translator should be conscious of the sense. He may change some aspects of the idiom to preserve the sense and to transfer it to the TL readers. In the case that the original idiom does not have its equivalent in another language, the translator should not delete that idiom from his text but he should clarify more on it to let the readers understand its meaning better. Fernando and Flavell express that there is "strong unconscious urge in most translators to search hard for an idiom in the receptor language, however inappropriate it may be" (1981, p.82).

The strategies which are used in this article are those proposed by Mona Baker (1992). They are going to be illustrated more by using some examples of idiomatic expressions in both English and Persian as the source and target languages.

A. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning and Form

By using this strategy, the translator tries to find an idiom in the target language which is equivalent to the source language both in terms of meaning as well as lexical items. This strategy is hardly achieved because languages differ radically in the way they identify a single concept. However, it is regarded as the ideal strategy for translating idioms. In the example of.

SL:

Things are not always what they seem
چیزها همیشه آنطور که به نظر می رسند نیستند
I'm all ears
سراپا گوشم
Has the cat got your tongue?
گرچه زیبوتو خورده؟

We keep both the meaning and the form of the source language idiom and have an exact equivalent for it. Here the lexical items are remained the same and the sense is not lost at all.

B. Using an Idiom of Similar Meaning but Dissimilar Form

In this case the meaning of the target idiom is the same as that of the original idiom but the lexical items are different. Here you are provided with some examples.

SL:

Out of sight, out of mind
از دل برود هر آنکه از دیده برفت
While the cats away, the mice will play
آب که سر بالا میره قورباغه ابو عطا می خونه
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush
سیلی نقد به از حلوائی نسیه

In the examples above, in order to represent the same meaning, we make use of different lexical items.

C. Translation by Paraphrase

This strategy is most commonly used in the process of translating idioms in the cases that the translator cannot find any equivalents for the source idiom. Earlier in the article, it was pointed out that when no equivalents exist, it is not a wise act to omit the whole idiom but to present more clarifications on it. Because of the lexical or stylistic differences between the two languages, we will not always have correspondence. We should elaborate more on the source idiom to transfer its meaning to the target language. It is noted here that the given meaning would not be an exact equivalent or semantic equivalent of the source idiom.

SL:

He is a supergrass

طرف آدم خيربر و فضوليه

You mark my words

از من گفتن بود حالا هر کاري دوست داري بکن

First things first

از نان شب واجب تره

Of course by using this strategy we will face the danger of losing the intended effect that the source language wanted to have on its audience. It will also lose the cultural significance. The target readers would not have the chance of getting more familiar with the culture of the source language. Mona Baker defines paraphrasing as "translating a source language idiom by giving its meaning in the target language. By using this strategy the impact of the idiom and its cultural significance will be lost (Baker, 1992, p.74).

D. Translation by Omission

The time that there is no close match between the languages' items or the time that the translator cannot find any equivalents, this strategy is used to completely omit the idiom from the target text. When the idiom is very difficult even for the translator, he tries to eliminate the whole or part of the idiom like the examples below:

SL:

I couldn't make head or tail of his talk

از حرفاش چيزي سر در نياوردم

She has nerves of steel

اعصابش خوبه

She offered a left-handed compliment.

تعارف کرد

It is observed here that the translator has omitted some parts of the idioms and has changed an idiomatic expression into a non-idiomatic sentence. So the significance of the words in the source idiom is not transferred by the way the translator has translated them.

Another strategy which is proposed by Baker (1992) is giving a literal translation of the target idiom. Of course the literal version of the idiom should be acceptable by the target readers and it should be lexically modified. In the case of not finding a proper equivalent, giving a literal translation is not always an easy task to do. Because the more literal a text is translated, the more confusion it brings to the readers. According to Newmark literal translation is translating an idiom by giving a word-for-word translation of the source language idiom, which most of the time results in unnatural or wrong rendering of idioms (1988, p.69).

Translating "A rotten apple" literally as سيب گنديده is somehow obscure and won't transfer the sense at all. In order to avoid confusion, the correct way is to translate it as بزرگ وصله ی ناجور or بزگر .

When translating an idiom into the target language the translator should be cautious of the original effects the writer intends to present. He must be very careful not to lose the sense for his target readers. In the case of giving a literal translation, the translator should choose those equivalents which carry the same cultural effects as that of the original.

V. CONCLUSION

Translating idioms are arguably the most complex and problematic task for translators. Gottlieb suggests that "an idiom is difficult to decode correctly for someone who only knows the normal meanings of its constituent elements" (1997, p.260). In another statement proposed by Beekman and Callow, idioms are defined as "the combination of at least two words which cannot be understood literally and which function as a unit semantically" (1997, p.49).

There are some strategies which can be used for the translation of idioms. The translator should choose a proper strategy according to the purpose of the translation but at the same time bears in mind that nothing should be eliminated. Every concept in one particular language has its own correspondent in another language. So omitting a word or an idiom from a text is not a wise action to take.

In order to better translate an idiom, the translator should identify it from those expressions which are not idioms. Then investigates the classification to which that particular idiom belongs and selects the suitable strategy for his translation. During this process, the translator should be careful of the naturalness and readability of his text. He would better try his best to find equivalences to transfer both the form and the meaning and be thoughtful of not deleting the whole or eliminating the part of the idiom there is no correspondence for. Larson (1984) states that "the translator also needs to develop sensitivity to the use of idioms in the receptor language and uses them naturally to make the translation lively and keep the style of the source language. There will often be words in the source language which are not idioms but are best translated with an idiom (Larson, 1984, p.116).

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Brief Analysis on Cross-cultural Communication

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Abstract—It is impossible to completely separate the theoretical study of intercultural and cross-cultural communication. Gudykunst states that before the late 1970s when he began his doctoral studies, there were few, if any, reliable and valid theories for the study of either type of communication. Perhaps then there were only trends in research. As the study of intercultural and cross-cultural theories has matured many new actual theories have been developed, tested., and confirmed or disconfirmed. Still more cross-cultural theories will develop over time which can be tested in a reliable and valid manner.

Index Terms—culture, cross-cultural communication, intercultural communication, principle

I. DEFINING INTERCULTURAL AND CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

The most intercultural communication may be between identical twins, then fraternal twins, followed by brothers and sisters. If the twins meet twins from a different culture and converse and interact, whether unintentionally or purposefully, then intercultural communication occurs as in the presence of another, all behavior is communicative. Most intercultural communication occurs within an interpersonal setting. In this way, both intercultural and interpersonal communication is complementary. When researchers want to compare or contrast how the twins from different cultures interact intercultural, then a cross-cultural communication study occurs. While the definition that cross-cultural communication informs the theoretical study of comparative and contrastive cultures and cultural variables, an alternative definition of cross-cultural communication is communication which takes place between members of whole cultures in contact, or between their cultural spokespersons or representatives. William B. Gudykunst (2003) identifies both the study of intercultural communication and cross-cultural communication as segments of intergroup communication. Academic fields with a special interest in cross-cultural communication research include anthropology, communication, international relations, psychology and sociology.

Intercultural and cross-cultural investigations may include such areas as attitudes, beliefs, cognition, cross-cultural business and training, journalism, language and linguistics, mass media, nonverbal cues, organizational culture, perceptions, stereotypes, thought-patterning and values, Gudykunst and Lee (1977) argue that among the following elements of communication several can be accurately considered cross-culturally as theoretical constructs for current investigation: 1. cultural variability including the spectrum of similarities and differences, plus horizontal versus vertical national cultural dimensions; as identified by scholars such as Geert Hofstede, Michael Harris Bond, Robert Inghart, and Shalom Schwartz; 2. individualism-collectivism with the study of ingroups and outgroups; as well as individualistic versus collectivistic values and 3. self-construals or the ways that people see themselves.

Additionally, Gudykunst and Lee (1977) propose other theoretical dimensions of cultural variability such as low and high context culture, initially introduced by Edward T. Hall in his 1976 book *Beyond Culture*; face-negotiation theory, proposed by Stella Ting-Toomey in 1985, which illustrates how members of cultures manage high or low face and conflicts; the conversational constraints theory, developed by Young Yun Kim in 1993 as goal or task oriented and coordinated conversations in relationships; the expectancy violations theory, proposed by J. K. Burgoon in 1978, by which guidelines are delineated for appropriately expected behavior in communicative situations; the anxiety/uncertainty management theory (AIM), developed by Gudykunst in 1995, which focuses on effective interpersonal and intergroup communication as it incorporates how communicators manage anxiety and uncertainty processes; and the communication accommodation theory (CAT) which Gudykunst also includes in theoretical intercultural communication studies, occurring between people of different ingroups and outgroups by assessing their language, nonverbal behavior, and paralanguage in communicative situations.

II. PRINCIPLES OR CRITERIA GUIDING CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION RESEARCHERS

Stephen McDowell (1997) stipulates that a field of inquiry is not just a series of substantive topics, but a set of core problems, concepts, theories, and methods and an ongoing discussion among practitioners.

Various principles or criteria guide researchers in studying intercultural and cross-cultural communication. Among these are the cultural principles identified by Michael H. Prosser in his 1978 book, *The Cultural Dialogue*, of similarities and differences, the role of conflict and conflict resolution, communicative cultural control and power, the impact of technology and especially information technology, cultural stability and cultural change, cultural imperialism and cultural dependency or interdependency. Steve J. Kulich (2007) recommends a nine multi-level analysis of culture model for future cross-cultural research: 1. culture as propagated mythic ideals, 2. as mainstream promotion or mass

trends, 3. as model-citizen norms, 4. as expected behavior mechanics, 5. as integrated meshworks, 6. as mediated metaphors, 7. as mindless personal responses to familiarity, 8. as personal matrix options, and 9. as personalized meaning. In the context of social science research, Kulich proposes that an integrated grid can be developed in the cross-cultural study of culture and communication and they can be studied at the cultural, subcultural, co-cultural, contextual, and individual levels of culture. An integrated grid could include historically transmitted socialization, socially constructed perceptions within the context of cultural groups and personally, and reflective and relative senses of meaning.

Gudykunst and Lee (1977) offer five approaches to incorporate culture into communication theories: Culture can be viewed as 1. a part of the communication process in theories or 2. as creating culture. 3. Theories designed in one culture can be generalized to other cultures. 4. can be generated to explain communication between people from different cultures. 5. or to explain how communication varies across cultures. For cross-cultural theory construction and analysis, they believe that in addition to standard social science methods such as logical consistency, explanatory power, and parsimony, the following should also be added: including more than one dimension of cultural variability, linking dimensions of cultural variability directly with the cultural norms and rules that influence the communication behavior being explained, and avoiding oversimplifying the process or inappropriately coupling the way that the cultural variables influence cultural norms and rules or the reverse.

III. ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES OF EFFECTIVE CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

An early and longitudinal example of major cross-cultural research efforts include Charles E. Osgood's Cross-Cultural Universals of Affective Meaning Project to develop near cultural and language universal theories in approximately fifty cultures. In this multinational study, 100 teenaged boys in each culture were chosen to assess 100 terms for their understanding of goodness or badness, power or lack of power, and swiftness or slowness through a seven point semantic differential scale. This study tested and confirmed the hypotheses that regardless of language or culture, human beings use the same qualifying and descriptive framework in allocating affective meanings of concepts which involve attitudes, feelings, stereotypes and values.

Desmond Morris' (1979) study of middle-aged male usage of nonverbal gesture cues in twenty-five European cultures, described in his book *Gestures*, hypothesized and confirmed that middle-aged men living closer to the Mediterranean Sea, and already strongly fixed in their own national culture behaviors, would utilize far more exaggerated and bolder gestures than would those middle-aged men living in the northern European or Scandinavian countries. Also, the hypothesis that the former group would have more gestures with sexual implications than the northern European or Scandinavian cultures was generally confirmed. Later, in his 1994 book, *Bodytalk: A World Guide to Gestures*, more cross-cultural nonverbal studies were significantly explored in a much wider geographical range.

In the 1974 bicultural research conference in Japan, it was hypothesized that Japanese participants would be more task-oriented and the Americans would be more process-oriented. Perhaps, not surprisingly, it was found that the younger Japanese and American participants were more process-oriented, while the older Japanese and Americans were more task-oriented.

One of the most important cross-cultural studies of national attitudes and values has been Dutch sociologist Geert Hofstede's (1980) analysis of 116,000 responses to his earlier IBM questionnaire, first reported in his 1980 book *Culture's Consequences* and later modified in a second edition in 2001. Based on this study, he (1980) initially proposed the development of four national cultural dimensions, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity, with a fifth dimension incorporated by Michael Harris Bond, in 1987, called Confucian dynamism or later short-term versus long-term orientation. Uncertainty avoidance specifies the level to which members of a national culture avoid or accept uncertainty; power distance is the extent to which less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept unequal distributions of power. Masculinity versus femininity, more recently described as aggressiveness versus nurturing, emphasizes how a national culture manages its gender issues. Individualism versus collectivism, initially proposed by cross-cultural psychologist Harry C. Triandis (1995), focuses on whether members of a national culture are more oriented to individual versus collective or communitarian values. The Chinese Culture Connection in 1987 proposed that Hofstede's western bias needs to be supplemented by a Chinese methodological bias of Confucianism. This cultural variability dimension has three aspects: status relationships, integration or harmony with others, and moral discipline.

IV. ILLUSTRATIVE PROBLEMS IN WESTERN VERSUS NON-WESTERN CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION RESEARCH

Many early cross-cultural studies focused on comparisons between Americans/ Japanese, Americans/Europeans, or between American/Soviet cultural patterns. More recently considerable research has emphasized bipolar cultural aspects between the Americans/Chinese or Chinese and other Westerners. Bond(2008) recommends that while these bicultural studies are useful, including those by cross-cultural psychologists, they are primarily descriptive as they use Western research methods to deal with indigenous cultural patterns. He urges cross-cultural researchers to move toward more pan-cultural studies, as Hofstede's studies have done, and that for serious reliability, at least ten cultural groups are

needed when using standard social science statistics.

Hwang Kwang-Kuo (2009) also argues that the development of social scientific cross-cultural research in the indigenous Asian setting is problematic because western social science methods are not always appropriate to study indigenous Asian cultural factors. He (2009) believes that western social science theories, or the scientific micro-world versus the indigenous Asian life-world for intellectuals in non-Western countries has serious limitations as the philosophy of science for constructing a scientific microworld is essentially a product of alien cultures which is inconsistent with practical Asian cultural traditions. Thus, a cross-cultural communication researcher must construct a tentative theory to solve scientific problems caused by 1.inconsistencies between western theories and the observed phenomena or results of experiments in more traditional Asian societies, 2.contradictions within a system or a theory, and 3.conflicts between the two types of theories. For example, formal justice in western scientific cross-cultural studies includes such basic elements as authority in an unequal relationship but does not practically consider the notion of Confucian respect for the superior in determining what justice is. Referring to cross-cultural communication studies for Chinese scholars as illustrative, GUAN Shije (1995) of Peking University notes several problems for China, and by implication for other Asian cultures: 1. More dialectical research is conducted than empirical studies, 2. Too much research is conducted in individual disciplines rather than on an interdisciplinary basis, 3. More general introductions are provided than on specific topics with Chinese characteristics, 4. More Sin0-US research is done than comparing China with other countries, 5. More international studies than domestic cross-cultural research of different Chinese communities in the mainland, Hong Kong, Taiwan and in the Chinese diaspora are conducted, He argues that this Chinese unitariness of research methodology has been a bottleneck in restraining further in-depth cross-cultural Chinese and Asian communication research.

V. SUMMARY

It is impossible to completely separate the theoretical study of intercultural and cross-cultural communication. Gudykunst (2003) states that before the late 1970s when he began his doctoral studies, there were few, if any, reliable and valid theories for the study of either type of communication. Perhaps then there were only trends in research. As the study of intercultural and cross-cultural theories has matured many new actual theories have been developed, tested, and confirmed or disconfirmed. Still more cross-cultural theories will develop over time which can be tested in a reliable and valid manner. New social science statistical measurements can help researchers hypothesize and test these theories, adding to the mature development of cross-cultural theoretical constructs.

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Attributional Patterns with Respect to Major and Attendance in Private Language Schools: A Case of EFL Context

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Abstract—This study examined the attributions of high school students for their success and failure in learning a foreign language. To this end, the Attribution Theory for Foreign Language Learners Questionnaire was administered to 708 EFL learners studying in high schools in Mashhad, and villages around Mashhad, a city in the north-east of Iran. The aims of the study were to find out the factors to which students majoring in Humanities, Sciences, and Math ascribe their successes and failures and to see whether attendance in private language classes makes any difference in attributional patterns. To analyze the data, Multiple Independent t-test and One-way ANOVA were employed. Findings suggest that different majors attribute differently. Likewise, significant differences emerged in attributions regarding attendance in private language classes. Findings provide some suggestions for teachers and educators.

Index Terms—Attribution Theory, ATFL factors, major, high schools

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been a growing tendency towards learning English as a foreign language among Iranians, especially young people. The desire comes from several factors such as increasing access to the Internet, satellite TV, films and music which are mostly in English. Furthermore, migration to foreign countries, especially for academic purposes has been growing rapidly. More importantly, in order to be accepted in MA and PhD courses and to get some jobs, one needs to have good language proficiency. Another reason which has influenced the rising fashion in learning English is the social prestige that it carries with it which is perhaps alluring for some, especially youngsters. Thus, students are seemingly motivated to acquire English in Iran.

However, in spite of the seemingly good sources of motivation, EFL learners' failures in learning language is still common either in private language institutes, or in English classes at schools in Iran, but definitely to a more alarming degree. Given the fact that English learning has become increasingly important for achieving academic and business purposes, EFL researchers need to explore the causes of successes and failures of language learners. The starting point can be investigating the explanations learners themselves provide for their language outcomes. Although what one perceives as the cause does not necessarily mean what is 'really' the cause, attributions are more powerful than the truth in influencing one's future behavior. One of the psychological frameworks which trace learners' problems in acquiring a second or foreign language is that of attribution theory. Through the kinds of explanations learners provide for their perceived successes and failures in their language outcomes, attribution theory can determine if they make healthy attributions or not. Healthy attributions can be empowered and unhealthy ones can be retrained by the kind of feedback teachers provide to students.

In addition to giving appropriate comments on students' explanations for their language achievements, one can pinpoint the reasons that affect learners' attributions to empower (if they have positive effect) or change (if they have negative impact) the influential factors. For example, if learners attribute their failures to lack of parent support, the first step is to change this kind of endorsement, since it is an external factor over which the learners have little control. As Weiner (1985) argues, in the case of failures, it is better to make an internal, unstable and controllable ascription. If individuals make an internal attribution like effort, they feel more responsible for their outcomes. If they make an unstable and changeable attribution, it seems to be promising for them to change it. Second, a large body of research (Sirvani, 2007; Domina, 2005; Sheldon & Epstein, 2005) has documented the role of parent engagement in students' academic achievement. Thus in parent-teachers associations, the role of family support in learners' language achievement can be highlighted.

In this study, the researchers aimed at finding out to what high school students attribute their successes and failures with regard to students' majors, i.e., Humanities, Sciences, and Math. We hypothesize that there might be differences in attribution patterns of different majors. The claim comes from Williams, Burden, Poulet, and Maun (2004) who argue that attributions are socially constructive in nature and individuals from the same background tend to make similar attributions. In doing so, we hope to realize primarily whether the groups make healthy attributions, or they need any attribution retraining. Then, we go one step further, and try to locate the problematic areas and make some suggestions to educators, particularly language teachers.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Attribution theory of Weiner is originated in the work of Heider (1958). He believed that people act on the basis of their beliefs. Attribution theory mainly concerned with the reasons people attribute to their perceived successes and failures in academic and other achievement-related situations (Weiner, 1986). The importance of realizing the causes of outcomes is that they provide an understanding of why individuals behave in a particular way and how they are expected to behave in future (Weiner, 1979).

Individuals' attributions can have impact on their later motivation (Jarvis, 2005; Williams, et al., 2004; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002; Dornyei, 2001); their affective states (Weiner, 2000; Oxford & Shearin 1994; Crooks & Schmitt, 1991; Graham & Folkey, 1990), and also the degree of effort they will invest in their future efforts.

In academic achievement studies the four most cited causes are ability, effort, task difficulty and luck (Weiner, 1986). Weiner's causal structure has three dimensions, namely locus of cause, stability of cause and controllability of cause. By locus of cause he meant if it is internal or external. For example, ability is an internal cause. The second dimension of his causal structure is stability of the cause. For instance, if intelligence is perceived to be fixed, it is a stable cause. However, if intelligence is considered to be increasing on the basis of learner's experience, it is an unstable cause. The last dimension of Weiner's causal structure is controllability. For example, luck is an uncontrollable factor, while effort is a controllable cause.

The most adaptive type of causal inference comes from effort. When people attribute success or failure to the amount of effort exerted on an activity, they are usually more motivated to make great efforts on later situations, because it is an internal, unstable, and controllable factor (Jarvis, 2005).

Attribution theory is also important in the area of language learning, because as Dornyei (2005) stated failure is common in learning a language and learners do not usually achieve the desired level of proficiency. Yet, very few studies have been carried out in the EFL, ESL domain. Pishghadam and Modarresi (2008) conducted their research in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. Their findings revealed that university students mostly attributed their successes and failures in language learning to intrinsic motivation and language policy. Likewise, Pishghadam and Zabihi (2011) in their quantitative study of Iranian EFL learners found that effort attribution was significantly related to language achievement. Moreover, they suggested that learners with higher scores made more stable and personal attributions. As for the relation between age and attributions, the research findings by Hasankhah and Vahabi (2010) showed that attributions for successes and failures differed among different age groups of English learners, namely children, teens and adults. Their study also showed that effort was the most cited reason for failure in language learning among all participants.

In a similar vein, Hsieh and Schallert (2008) observed that undergraduate Spanish, German, and French students who perceived themselves as unsuccessful gave their lack of effort as a reason for their failure. Hsieh and Schallert stated that students seemed to make healthy attributions. Similarly, Williams et al. (2004) explored attributions among high school students of both sexes, different age groups, and language studied (German, Spanish, and French). The results of their study illustrated clear variations among different language groups; all students tended to cite internal reasons more than twice as many as external ones. However, they showed that males more than females ascribed their success to internal causes, while girls attributed their failure to internal reasons. Having reviewed the literature, the researchers realized that the study of attributions among high school students in EFL contexts deserve more investigation. Therefore, the present research aims at finding the answers to the following research questions:

1. Does major play any role in the attribution patterns of high school students in Iranian EFL context?
2. Is there any significant difference between the attribution patterns of high school students in Iranian EFL context, based on learning language in language institutes?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

708 Iranian students who were in the last year of high school were the participants. They were studying Humanities (N=225), Sciences (N=266) and Math (N=217) in Mashhad, and some villages around it, a city in the northeast of Iran. Participants were 312 females and 396 males with the age ranging from 18-19. According to the program requirements these students have to study English 4 hours a week. 44.2% of all students reported that they attended language institutes. 55.1% reported that they had not attended language institutes and 4.1% did not answer the question.

B. Measure

Students completed a questionnaire including demographic information. The Attribution Theory for Foreign Language Learners Questionnaire (ATFLL) was designed and validated by Pishghadam and Modarresi (2008) and comprises 30 items measuring four constructs, namely, *Emotions*, *Self-image*, *Intrinsic motivation*, and *Language policy* that are scored on a Likert scale of 5-points. Subscales' scores can range from 1 to 5, with higher values representing attributions that are more positive regarding participants' Emotions, Self-image, Intrinsic motivation, and Language policy towards their language achievements. The alpha reliability was .83. In this study the reliability of the whole items (i.e. 30 items) estimated by Cronbach Alpha was .76.

C. Procedure

The data collection started in fall, 2010 and finished in winter, 2011. In order to be administered in high schools, the questionnaire needed to be appraised by the Central Education Organization in Mashhad. Then, the researchers received official approval from the organization which is in charge of supervising research-related issues in all schools and organizations administered by the Ministry of Education. After that students completed the measures during scheduled classes. Students were asked not to record their names. They were briefly told about the aim of the study and instructed on how to complete the questionnaire. The completion of the measure took about 10 to 15 minutes.

After collecting the data, it was entered into and processed with SPSS 16.0 program. The fundamental statistics in the current study were Independent Sample t-test, and One-way ANOVA. To examine the degree to which the participants' attributions vary regarding their major, One-way ANOVA was used. To locate where the differences were, Scheffe Post Hoc test was employed. Independent Samples t-test was utilized to determine the differences of attributional patterns between those who participated in private language classes and those who did not.

IV. RESULT

The findings in Table 1a indicate that there are significant differences among three groups regarding emotions ($F = 10.616$, $P < .05$). Also, according to Table 1.b which shows the results of Scheffe test, students of Math (mean: 2.7235) more than students of Sciences (mean: 2.5886) attributed their language learning achievement to emotions, though the difference is not statistically different. Furthermore, students of Humanities (mean: 2.3788) less than the other two groups, received the lowest ranking in attributing their successes or failures in language learning to emotions.

Math>Science>Humanities

TABLE I.A
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR EMOTIONS

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.401	2	6.700	10.616	.000
Within Groups	444.965	705	.631		
Total	458.366	707			

TABLE I.B
RESULTS OF SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR EMOTIONS

major	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Humanities	225	2.3788	
Sciences	266		2.5886
Math	217		2.7235

As Table 2.a shows, there are significant differences among the three groups with regard to self-image ($F = 12.131$, $P < .05$). Given the differences, Scheffe Post Hoc test was employed to locate the differences among means. Scheffe Post Hoc test (table 3.b) revealed that Math students (mean: 3.6711) received the highest ranking in ascribing their language learning outcome to self-image. Sciences students (mean: 3.4023) received the second ranking and Humanities students (mean: 3.3471) was rated as the lowest in attributing their success and failures to self-image.

Math>Science>Humanities

TABLE II.A
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR SELF-IMAGE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.394	2	6.697	12.131	.000
Within Groups	389.188	705	.552		
Total	402.582	707			

TABLE II.B
RESULTS OF SCHEFFE POST HOC TEST FOR SELF-IMAGE

major	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Humanities	225	3.3471	
Sciences	266	3.4023	
Math	217		3.6711

As the results of Table 3 show, there is no significant difference ($F = .557, P > .05$) among three groups with regard to intrinsic motivation.

TABLE III.
RESULT OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.505	2	.252	.557	.573
Within Groups	319.386	705	.453		
Total	319.891	707			

The result of one One-way ANOVA (see table 4) shows that findings is not statistically significant for language policy ($F=1.550, p > .05$).

TABLE IV.
RESULT OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR LANGUAGE POLICY

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.912	2	.956	1.550	.213
Within Groups	434.802	705	.617		
Total	436.714	707			

Furthermore, to examine if there is any significant difference, in attribution patterns, between those students who study English in language institutes and those who do not, t-test was run. As Table 5 demonstrates, participating in language classes plays statistically significant role in attributing learners' success and failures to emotions ($t=7.582, p<.05$), self-image ($t=5.414, p<.05$), and language policy ($t=-3.596, p<.05$); however, it does not have any influence on learners' intrinsic motivation attribution ($t=-.005, p>.05$).

TABLE V.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR LANGUAGE CLASS ATTENDANCE

Variables	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
emotions	7.582	476	.000	.48017	.06333
self-image	5.414	526	.000	.31821	.05877
intrinsic motivation	-.005	676	.996	-.00026	.05275
language policy	-3.596	564	.000	-.21925	.06096

V. DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the present research was to identify the attributional pattern of high school students from different majors in learning a foreign language. Then, we were to investigate the variations in attribution patterns of high school students who learn English in language institutes and those who do not.

With regard to the participants' major, considerable differences emerged. This finding is compatible with that of Pishghadam and Modarresi (2008) who reported that university students from different majors attributed their successes and failures to different factors. As far as emotions and self-image factors are concerned, students of Math ranked highest in ascribing their successes and failures in language learning to these two factors. Both emotions and self-image are external, unstable and uncontrollable factors over which learners have control. Thus it does not seem to be an unhealthy attribution.

If Math students attribute their language outcomes to negative or positive emotions and self-image, by changing (in the case of negative ones) or by enforcing (in the case of positive ones), they can expect better performance in English in future. There is a plethora of research showing that positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning much more effective and enjoyable. As Oxford (1996) stated, one of the domains of great influence on language learning success or failure is the emotional side of the learners. Likewise, positive self-image can have desirable impact on academic achievement. According to Dornyei (2005), students with positive view of themselves might perform better in school. Furthermore, there is a linkage between self-image and self-esteem. Many scholars (Heyde, 1979; Watkins, Biggs & Regmi, 1991; Brodkey & Shore; Gardner & Lambert 1972, cited in Brown 2000) have demonstrated that positive self-esteem affects language performance.

However, a closer look at the data reveals that they do not seem to have developed negative emotions and self-image. This can be due to several factors. Students of Math are usually labeled as the best ones at schools, because generally they get better grades; they observe class rules and regulations; and they meet school standards and teachers' expectations. That is why, school officials and teachers like them, respect them and encourage them especially in front of other students. In class, there is a warm and encouraging relationship between the teacher and students, regardless of the subject matter being taught.

Moreover, as demographic information obtained from participants shows, 63% of Math students participate in language classes in private language institutes where there is a friendly relationship between teachers and students. In addition, teaching materials in language classes is based on humanistic approaches to language teaching (Khazaefar, Pishghadam & Motakef, 2008). Humanistic psychology recognizes language learning as a process that includes more than just the language itself. It considers learners' feelings, emotions, and social experiences as integral to educational process (Williams & Burden, 1997). Thus, welcoming and encouraging atmosphere, both at schools and language classes, goes hand in hand to create more positive emotions and self-image towards their language outcomes.

On the other hand, students of Humanities ranked lowest in attributing their successes and failures in language learning to emotions and self-image. This can be explained by the fact that unlike Math and Sciences students, students whose average is low are guided, by school counselors, to choose Humanities. Because of their low school average and their liveliness which is often misinterpreted by teachers and school officials as being problematic, they are often labeled as lazy and troublemakers. For the same reasons, these students are sometimes degraded, humiliated and embarrassed. Lack of social support and social acceptance by the teachers and school officials may affect students' self-efficacy, anxiety status and their self-image (Weiss, 1974). What is more, teachers, including language teachers, are usually strict about misbehaviors and learners' errors which may lead to emotionless and stressful environment. Research shows that if learners feel anxious, they may attribute it to personal difficulty with the task which may lead to reduced self-efficacy (Jarvis, 2005), while positive emotions are related to self-efficacy and achievement (Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002).

Regarding the relationship between attribution patterns and private language class attendance, the findings were significant for three ATFL factors i.e., emotions, self-image, and language policy. Results of descriptive statistics illustrate that those students who learn language in language institutes scored higher in attributing their success and failures to emotions and self-image. As Khazaefar, Pishghadam and Motakef (2008) suggested the texts used in the language institutes have employed new findings in the field of language learning which address learners' needs and interests, and the reading materials value emotional aspect of language learners. Besides, there is a very close, positive, emotional and interactive relationship between language learners and teachers. Likewise, language ability they have acquired in language classes perhaps contributed these students viewing themselves as more capable ones. However, this group of students ascribed their language outcomes less to language policy factor, compared to the ones who reported they learn English just at schools. This seems logical, since private language classes provide opportunity for them to compare language materials, class activates and climate with those of schools.

In contrast, students who reported they did not attend language classes ascribed their successes and failures more to language policy. Language policy is an external, unchangeable factor over which learners have no control. Thus if students attribute their failures to language policy, it may lead to disappointment and underachievement. However, any kind of feedback to students' attributions should be given cautiously since attributions are situation specific.

In sum, the attributional pattern of high school students from different majors seems to be rather alarming for educators. From what we found, we can conclude that the educational system in Iran seems to conform to the

transmission model of education in which transmitting pieces of knowledge is more important than students as whole persons whose cognition as well as emotions and feelings are engaged in learning. In transmission model of education, there are some criteria set by the system. The criteria dictate teachers to cover thick books to the end of the academic year, regardless of students' interests or capabilities. The best teachers are the ones whose students get the best grades in their exams, and especially in the university entrance examination, so teachers have to teach to the test. This system needs students who are obedient and conforms to school standards. Math students usually obtain the best grades in school not questioning norms and standards. For the same reason, they are labeled as sharp and intelligent and favor teachers' and school officials' respect. On the other hand, students of Humanities generally rank lowest in their school scores. At schools, they frequently resist school norms and standards. That is why, there is a tendency to call them as lazy and label them as deviations and abnormal. For this reason, they are deprived of warm atmosphere in class and emotional and respectful behavior, what they need most because of their emotional nature. Needless to say, one can find interpersonal, intrapersonal, social and emotional intelligence more, among Humanities students than among the other two groups. Math students are bestowed with logical-mathematical intelligence. Nevertheless, the way teachers behave students shows that there is a tendency towards valuing IQ at the expense of EQ.

Williams and Burden (1997) argued that learning which engages feelings as well as cognition is more probable to be permanent and persistent. Other scholars such as Goleman (1995, cited in Brown, 2000) put EQ at the center of intellectual functioning. He placed emotions at the highest level of hierarchy of human abilities. Having high IQ in traditional sense can make one successful in acquiring high test score. But having high EQ is far more important than any other factor in learning a language (Brown, 2000).

In terms of emotions, EFL lecturers and teachers should be aware that their actions, behaviors and speech have great influence on shaping students' emotions towards language learning. So, they are recommended to utilize strategies that reduce students' stress and anxiety, and make them feel relaxed and confident in class. EFL students should not be discouraged by temporal failure. Any types of discriminations against learners by instructors are advised to be avoided. The instructors and teachers are recommended to discourage negative competition among students while collaborative and cooperative learning should be encouraged so that students enjoy an alive, warm and friendly atmosphere where students' strengths are boosted and their weaknesses are removed by the kind and intimate help of their instructors and peers. In fact, EFL lecturers and teachers are suggested to establish a supportive and encouraging environment for language learning.

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China English and Dissemination of the Chinese Culture into the English World—A Case Study of the English Versions of *Liaozhaizhiyi* by Contemporary Translators*

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Abstract—China English refers to the English expressions with Chinese characteristics. It is acceptable for the people in the English-speaking countries as it can meet the requirement of English development and the need of cross-cultural communication between China and the English-speaking countries. It is of significance for the dissemination of the Chinese culture into the English world. Both contemporary western and Chinese translators of *Liaozhaizhiyi* take advantage of China English to spread the real Chinese culture into the English world.

Index Terms—China English, *Liaozhaizhiyi*, dissemination of the Chinese culture into the English world

I. CHINA ENGLISH AND CHINGLISH

China English refers to the English expressions with Chinese characteristics. It is based on international Standard English and uses transliteration or literal translation to introduce Chinese unique things into the English world. The following expressions are typical examples of China English: jiaozi (饺子), Daoism (道), wushu (武术), weiqi (围棋), “four modernizations” (四个现代化), “two civilizations”, One country, Two systems (一国两制), three Represents(三个代表), eight honors, eight shames(八荣八耻).

As an English variety, China English can be accepted by the people in the English-speaking countries. In some cases, it is even more preferred by the English readers. For example, “福娃”, the mascots of 2008 Olympic games, was firstly translated as “Friendlies”, a typical standard English expression. However, “Friendlies” brought about much criticism since its birth. Liao and Qu (2006) made an investigation among scholars in Australia, U.S.A., Canada and England and found that the acceptability of “Friendlies” was in doubt. Somebody thought “it is, of course, wrong to use the word Friendlies”; somebody maintained that “Friendlies” did not “convey a very clear impression of what is actually meant”; other people even stated: “I have to admit that several foreigners I know have laughed at the name “Friendlies”. One year after its birth, “Friendlies” was replaced by “Fuwa”, which is a typical China English and is widely accepted now by the people all over the world.

China English is different from chinglish which is unidiomatic and unacceptable English expressions caused by the negative influence of Chinese in translation. In C-E translation, if the translator makes a mechanical translation of the Chinese original expressions or follows mechanically the grammatical structure of the Chinese original, chinglish will arise inevitably. Chinglish in C-E translation mainly includes unnecessary modifier, unnecessary repetition and dangling structure. “New innovations have aroused attention from the world” is a typical example of unnecessary modifier because the meaning of the modifier “new” is included in the modified “innovations”; “We must practice economy and reduce unnecessary expenditures” is a typical example of unnecessary repetition because “practice economy” and “reduce unnecessary expenditures” have the same meaning; “Using either military or peaceful means, most of the remaining enemy forces were put out of action” is a typical example of dangling structure because the logical subject of subordinate clause is not consistent with the subject of the main clause.

II. ACCEPTABILITY OF CHINA ENGLISH: LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL MOTIVATION

China English is acceptable for the people in the English-speaking countries as it can meet the requirement of English development and the need of cross-cultural communication between China and the English-speaking countries.

As we know, language is in constant development. There are many factors which promote the development of language, among which influence from foreign languages is an important one. Any language can not be free from

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influence from other languages and foreign elements are necessary for it to develop. Take modern Chinese as an example. The development of modern Chinese is deeply influenced by English. Modern Chinese absorbed many elements in English during its development. Nowadays, there are many Chinese expressions which are borrowed directly from English. For examples, “掉鳄鱼眼泪” is from “to shed crocodile’s tears”; “巧克力” is from “chocolate”, and so on.

English is a language most widely used in the world. It keeps developing by absorbing foreign elements from other languages. In fact, the development of the English language can not be dependent from the contribution from many other languages. The Chinese language also plays an important role for the development of the English language. English borrowed a lot of expressions from Chinese via the “bridge” of China English to express the unique things in China. Investigation shows that in the *Oxford English Dictionary*, there are more than 1000 English expressions originated from Chinese, covering Chinese biology, geography, art, philosophy, economics, ethics, occupations, dynasty, clothes, entertainment, association, medicine, wushu, etc. to sum up, China English can enrich English and is of significance for its development.

Cross-cultural communication includes cultural import and cultural export, which are mainly done by translation. The ideal cross-cultural communication is characterized by a balance between cultural import and cultural export. However, the cross-cultural communication between China and western countries is out of balance. We do much better in cultural import than in cultural export, which is far from the ideal cross-cultural communication. During the long course of Chinese history, the Chinese people created splendid culture, which is an important part of world cultures and should be introduced to the people of other countries so that it can make a contribution to the world cultures and people of other countries can experience and enjoy it. Therefore, when we try to import western culture into China, we should also do our best to export Chinese culture into the western world through translation, for which China English is an effective way to describe and introduce the uniqueness of the Chinese culture to the westerners.

III. CHINA ENGLISH AND DISSEMINATION OF CHINESE CULTURE INTO THE ENGLISH WORLD

China English boasts its advantages in translating and introducing the Chinese culture into the English world. Firstly, it is unique in its form and thus can impress deeply the English readers; secondly, it can express the accurate meaning of the Chinese original and thus convey accurately the Chinese culture to the English readers. Today, China is experiencing rapid social and economic development. It will cast greater and greater influence upon international affairs. As a result, more and more westerners are interested in China and the Chinese culture, for which the “China fever” all around the world is a solid proof. Therefore, it is now the best time to use China English to introduce China and the Chinese culture to the western world. In the following paragraphs, the author will take some typical examples from the English version of *Liaozhaizhiyi* to illustrate the important role China English for dissemination of the Chinese culture to the English world.

Liaozhaizhiyi, a wenyuan short story collection by Pu Songling with fancy and complex plots, concise style and orderly narration, is regarded as the wenyuan short story masterpiece in the Chinese history of literature. It is not only well-known in China, but also loved by the people of other countries in the world through translation. Among its versions of nearly 20 different languages, the English versions of *Liaozhaizhiyi* boast the greatest quantity and have the greatest influence. From 1842, when Karl Friedrich August Gutzlaff introduced and translated *Liaozhaizhiyi* into the English world for the first time, to 2008, when Sidney L. Sondergard published the latest English version of *Liaozhaizhiyi*, many translators from different countries and with different professions took part in the translation of *Liaozhaizhiyi* into English and gave birth to nearly 20 whole-book versions and 100 single-story versions. *Liaozhaizhiyi* has already fulfilled its canonization in the English world.

The English translation of *Liaozhaizhiyi* mainly underwent two periods. During the first period (from 1840s to 1940s) when many western sinologists threw themselves into the English translation of *Liaozhaizhiyi*, the western culture was in a strong position while the Chinese culture a weak position. Most of the western scholars regarded the western culture as the center of the world cultures and rejected other cultures. Under the influences of “western cultural centralism” and their colonizing or missionizing translation purposes, western sinologists often manipulated the original in the English translation of *Liaozhaizhiyi*. The second period (from 1950s to now), when many contemporary western sinologists and Chinese scholars and translators participated in the English translation of *Liaozhaizhiyi*, witnessed the rapid globalization and the rising of China. During this period, the western scholars gradually freed themselves from shackles of “western cultural centralism” and began to advocate coexistence of diverse cultures and embrace other cultures. And the Chinese scholars and translators attempted to strengthen China’s cultural “soft power” in the world and enrich the world cultures by translating the Chinese culture into other countries. Therefore, the western sinologists respected more and more the “foreign” culture in the original when they translated *Liaozhaizhiyi* into the English world. And the Chinese scholars and translators adhered to the principle of “seeking harmony without uniformity” and tried every means to present real Chinese culture before the English readers when they translated *Liaozhaizhiyi* into the English world so that the Chinese culture could coexist harmoniously with other cultures.

Denis C. Mair, Victor H. Mair, John Minford and Sidney L. Sondergard are representative contemporary western sinologists who translated *Liaozhaizhiyi* into English. Denis C. Mair and Victor H. Mair, two famous contemporary American sinologists, published in 1989 *Strange Tales from Make-do Studio* which comprises 51 stories from

Liaozhaizhiyi and is widely enjoyed by the English readers. John Minford, a contemporary British sinologist good at Chinese literature and well-known for his English translation of *Hongloumeng* (*The Story of A Stone*) with David Hawks, published *Strange Tales from a Chinese Studio* which includes 104 stories from *Liaozhaizhiyi* in 2006. Sidney L. Sondergard, a contemporary American sinologist shifting his academic interest from the British renaissance literature to the Chinese literature trying to translate all stories of *Liaozhaizhiyi* into English, published *Strange Tales from Liaozhai* (Vol.1,2) in 2008. The representative contemporary Chinese translators of *Liaozhaizhiyi* include Yang Xianyi et al., Lu Yunzhong et al. and so on. Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang, a Chinese couple famous for their translation of a great quantity of Chinese classics into English, published *Selected Tales of Liaozhai* which includes 17 stories from *Liaozhaizhiyi* and is the first English book-version of *Liaozhaizhiyi* published in China. Lun Yunzhong, Chen Tifang, Yang Liyi and Yang Zhihong, four senior English scholars and experienced translators, published in 1982 *Strange Tales of Liaozhai* which includes 50 stories from *Liaozhaizhiyi*.

Both contemporary western and Chinese translators of *Liaozhaizhiyi* wanted to spread the real Chinese culture into the English world by translation. Therefore, they took advantage of China English, the best “bridge” for cross-cultural communication between the Chinese and western cultures, to reproduce the Chinese culture in the English versions of *Liaozhaizhiyi*. China English in their versions is mainly shown in their translation of the culturally-loaded expressions in *Liaozhaizhiyi*. Firstly, they translated the culturally-loaded words in *Liaozhaizhiyi* with transliteration. For example, “秀才”, “举人” and “进士” are three culturally-loaded expressions which appear most frequently in *Liaozhaizhiyi*. These contemporary translators translated them into “xiucaï”, “juren” and “jinshi” respectively, which are typical China English. They also took into consideration their readability for the English readers and added necessary notes after each version: Xiucaï (The lowest degree conferred on successful candidates under the old civil service examination system); Juren (A successful candidate in the provincial examination under the former civil service examination system); Jinshi (A successful candidate in the metropolitan (held in the capital) civil service examination). As a result, the versions can present the real Chinese culture before the English readers. However, the early translators of *Liaozhaizhiyi* usually translated them into “bachelor’s degree”, “master’s degree”, “doctor’s degree”, which eliminated the foreignness of the Chinese culture. Similarly, contemporary translators translate “尺” into “chi” instead of “foot”, “衙门” into “yamen” instead of “police”, “琴瑟” into “Qin and Se” instead of “lute and zither”, etc. Secondly, they translated the culturally-loaded expressions in *Liaozhaizhiyi* with literal translation. For example, John Minford translated “断袖之癖” as “Cut Sleeve persuasion” and explained it with necessary note; Denis C. Mair and Victor H. Mair translated “衙官屈、宋” into “you are good enough to lord it over famous poets of antiquity like Qu Yuan and Song Yu”; Sidney L. Sondergard translated “相如之贫” into “as poor as Sima Xiangru”. However, the early translators translated “衙官屈、宋” into “talented scholar”, “相如之贫” translated “extremely poor”, which reduced the strangeness of the Chinese culture to zero.

IV. CONCLUSION

With time going on, China English will be accepted by more and more people in the English-speaking countries because it can meet the requirement of English development and the need of cross-cultural communication between China and English-speaking countries. It will play a more and more important role in the cross-cultural communication between the Chinese and western cultures. Therefore, we should make a full use of China English to translate and introduce the Chinese culture into the western world so that the Chinese culture can coexist harmoniously with other cultures in the world.

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Gender-oriented Use of Vocabulary Strategies: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—In the recent decades there has been an increasing interest in vocabulary learning strategies given that they are found to facilitate second or foreign language vocabulary learning. Many people from different angles have focused on this aspect of language and done various studies regarding it. In the current paper, these strategies are studied and at last, by doing a survey and running a T-test, the study tried to examine if there is any difference in the Iranian male and female use of these strategies or not. Besides, it determined the most frequently-used and also the least frequently-used vocabulary learning strategies which language learners employ to learn new vocabulary items are ascertained. The study observed a significant difference in the male and female language learners' use of the strategies. It became also apparent that “*connecting a word to its synonyms and antonyms*” and “*using physical actions*” were the strategies which language learners most often use to find the meaning of new vocabulary items and “*imagining word form*” and “*imagining word meaning*” were the least frequently-used vocabulary learning strategies. Consideration of these strategies can be helpful in selecting the most effective strategies for vocabulary learning and as a result, reaching a higher degree of proficiency in this area of language.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning strategies, gender differences

I. INTRODUCTION

It is a truism and has also been repeatedly mentioned by different researchers that assessing vocabulary is necessary. They support this claim by arguing that words are the basic building blocks of language and it is the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed (Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2000). Considering the crucial role of vocabulary learning in second or foreign language learning contexts, one can make aware of the importance of vocabulary teaching as well. In the past, vocabulary teaching and learning were often given little priority in second language programs, but recently there has been a renewed interest in the nature of vocabulary and its role in learning and teaching (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Furthermore, some studies have shown lexical problems of language learners indicating that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication. In fact, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Allen, 1983). Therefore, there is an increased interest in vocabulary as a component of every language.

Over the past few decades, researchers and language teachers noticed that some learners seem to be successful in second or foreign language learning regardless of teaching methods and techniques. Therefore, a considerable number of researchers have shifted their focus from teaching methods or techniques to language learning strategy use. "Strategy", from the ancient Greek term *strategia*, refers to generalship or the art of war. In a more specific sense, strategy entails the optimal management of troops, ships or aircraft in a planned campaign. "Tactics" is different but related to strategies, which are tools to achieve the success of strategies. Moreover, the two expressions share some basic concepts: planning, competition, conscious manipulation and movement toward a goal. In nonmilitary settings, the concept of strategy has been applied to the non-adversarial situations, where it has come to mean a plan, step or an action is taken for achieving a specific objective (Oxford, 1990). Oxford (1990) stated that strategies are particularly important for language learning "because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" (p. 1). Because of its significance, learning strategies have been extensively employed in the educational field. In defining the language learning strategy, "different researchers use different terms and different concepts" (Oxford & Crookall, 1989, p.414); therefore, a great number of researchers have formulated their own definitions which will be discussed in the followings.

Language learning strategies are also referred to as specific actions or techniques that learners use to assist their progress in developing second or foreign language skills (Oxford, 1990). Language learning strategies are believed to play a vital role in learning a second language, as they may assist learners in mastering the forms and functions required for reception and production in the second language and thus affect achievement (Bialystok, 1979). Many researchers have suggested that the conscious use of language learning strategies makes good language learners (Naiman, Frohlich & Todesco, 1975; Wenden, 1985). Researchers believe that strategies of successful language learners can provide a basis for aiding language learners (Rubin, 1975; Reiss, 1983). Therefore, if language teachers know more about

effective strategies that successful learners use, they may be able to teach these effective strategies to less proficient learners to enhance these learners' language skills.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

One area of language which has been focused on sufficiently in language learning and teaching is vocabulary. The significance of this area of language is so much that some believed, in the past, that if somebody masters the vocabulary aspect of a language, he/she has undergone over the half of the way of language learning process. I don't agree on this claim completely. Because nowadays it is a truism that language has many aspects to be learned in order to be able to say that somebody has mastered the language. Despite all these statements, accepting this fact that vocabulary is among the most important aspects of language is inevitable. Regarding vocabulary aspect of language it should be reminded that this aspect of language has its own sub-sections like word frequency, vocabulary learning strategies and so on and so forth. The latter subsection which was mentioned above, that is, vocabulary learning strategies is the purpose of the present study. By vocabulary learning strategies it means the techniques, strategies and the approaches which language learners consciously employ to facilitate the learning of new vocabulary items. There are various types of these strategies used by different learners. Learners usually use one or more strategies for special reasons. For example, some learners use the "connecting new words to their experience" strategy because they have a high working memory. Or some others may use the "dictionary use" strategy because of their low working memory.

Regarding this topic, that is, vocabulary learning strategies, there have been done various researches and as a result, many findings have been obtained. These different studies have focused on this topic from different angles. These studies, whether practical or theoretical ones, have their own weaknesses and strengths. Among these different studies, the following ones are mentioned; because they are more related to the purpose which is to be achieved in the present study. According to researchers, vocabulary learning strategies facilitate acquisition of new lexis in the second or foreign languages as they aid in discovering the meaning of a new word and in consolidating a word once it has been encountered (Cohen, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). This finding is one of the findings which are usually obtained from most related studies.

Of course, many attempts have been made to develop taxonomy of vocabulary strategies mostly as part of a piece of research into learners' strategy use. Among these attempts, Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy can be mentioned as an example, which organized around Oxford's (1990) language learning strategies. This study reflected the different Processes necessary for working out a new word's meaning and usage, and for consolidating it in memory for future use. This list contained fifty eight strategies which were classified into five groupings, i.e., determination, social, memory, cognitive and meta cognitive strategies.

Some other researches regarding these strategies, found differences among learners in terms of strategy use for vocabulary. Successful vocabulary learners were found to be active strategy users who are aware of their learning process, where as poor learners are less active in using vocabulary learning strategies and they are not conscious of how they learn new items. (Ahmed, 1989; Sanaoui, 1995). Or in another research done by GU (2005), successful learners select intentionally, monitor consciously and evaluate carefully their strategy use for the fulfillment of their aim. Unsuccessful ones, on the other hand, use learning strategies and behaviors similar to their peers without being conscious and also without any aim (Gu, 1994; Gu, 2005). Regarding these findings, we can refer to this claim that learners need to be able to consciously apply a strategy to a cognitive process to strengthen the link between the strategy and the achievement of vocabulary learning (Macaro, 2005). Likewise, Cohen (1990) indicated that many learners don't develop sufficient mastery of strategy repertoire that will allow them to make progress in language learning on their own. Another point which can be understood from these claims is that, learners need to be given explicit instruction to become more aware of and proficient with the broad range of strategies that can be used through learning process (Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998; Oxford, 1993, 1996; Wenden, 1991).

According to Schmitt (1997, 2000), in deciding which one of vocabulary learning strategies should be recommended to second language learners, we need to consider specific learning context as the effectiveness with which learning strategy can be both taught and used depends on a number of variables, i.e., the students' proficiency level, their motivation and the purpose of learning.

Other research looked at this topic from other angles. For example, Waring (1997) focused on vocabulary learning in semantic sets and showed that presenting new vocabulary items in semantic sets facilitate learning (Waring, 1997; Folse, 2004). In fact, researches done on this topic showed that when similar words were introduced at the same time, it had an interfering effect on learning and that especially synonyms were learned very poorly by the learners (McGeoch and McDonald, 1931). This finding is related to the "interference theory" (Anderson, 1976; Reed, 2004).

All in all, the present study tries to consider the use of vocabulary learning strategies from a new window. That is, it examines first, if there is any significant difference between males and females in their use of the strategies. And second, what are the most and the least frequently-used strategies adopted by them. No need to say that conducting studies like the current one contribute significantly in gaining much more effective knowledge on better learning, teaching, and use of the strategies.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Altogether 110 language learners, 50 male and 60 female, were randomly selected to take part in the study. They aged from 17 to 23 and all were taking high intermediate courses in two of language institutes in Shahrekord, Iran. The sampling procedure employed by the author was convenient approach meaning that he picked out the learners who were available to him. Finally, the main reason for deciding to do the study on the high-intermediate language learners was that in this level of proficiency the practice on vocabulary is much more than what is in elementary and low-intermediate levels.

B. Materials

In order to find out about the vocabulary learning strategies used by the participants, a frequently used vocabulary learning strategies adapted from Schmitt (2000) was used. This questionnaire was devised in three parts. In the first part different characteristics of participants were included and the participants were required to fill in the choice which is suitable for them. The second part contained about sixteen different kinds of vocabulary learning strategies and the participants were to select maximally three of them which they use most often while learning new vocabulary items. In the third and the final part of the card a space was provided for the participants so that, if participants used a strategy which was not mentioned in the card they could write it down in the provided part and also elaborated on it. The sample of this card is available at the end of the paper in the section of appendix.

C. Data Analysis

Before everything, the author gave a short speech regarding the topic of vocabulary learning strategies and their different types. He also talked about their application in the process of learning new vocabulary items. Then, some talk was made regarding the purpose of the paper and also about the way they should take part in the study as the participants. Having ensured that they got completely aware of their task, the questionnaire was distributed among them and they were required to fill them in and hand in the cards to the author within half an hour.

Having gathered the required data, in order to analyze them, SPSS version 16 in general and an independent t-test in particular was run to see if there is any significant difference among the male and females with regard to their use of vocabulary strategies. The author also made a frequency of the strategies named by them so that it became possible to determine the most and also the least frequency-used strategies.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having analyzed the data, now the main results of the study are presented in this section of the paper. Table 1 presents the preliminary descriptive information of the participants' responses. As it is evident from the table the mean of the responses (16.23) is to a large extent larger than the reported SD (10.67) meaning that there is some degree of consistency among the participants' use of vocabulary learning strategies. To gain more exact results and in order to see whether there is a significant difference between the male and female learners in terms of their use of vocabulary strategies, Table 2 can be a great help.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE

No	Min	Max	Mean	SD
110	1	4	16.23	10.67

Table 2 reveals that there is a significant difference between the male and female learners in using the vocabulary learning strategies ($P = .01 < .05$).

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF GENDER-ORIENTED STRATEGIY USE

Variable	No	Mean	SD	S.E. of mean	DF	2-tail sig.
Gender*Voc.strategy	110	26.23	10.67	3.570	33	0.01

Then in order to pinpoint the most and the least frequently-used strategies adopted by language learners, the frequency of the strategies were taken into account. The following results were gained. The three strategies which were selected by the students more than the other strategies were: "connecting the word with its synonyms and antonyms", "using physical action when studying new words" and "studying the word with a pictorial representation of its meaning". Among these three frequently-used strategies, the first one was selected by forty eight percent of the students and so according to the students' responses it is the most frequently-used vocabulary learning strategy. After that twenty three of the students asserted that they use the second strategy that is "using physical actions while studying new words". It means that they do some physical actions (like shaking hand) in order to make a connection between the meaning of that word and the action. In this way, whenever they encounter that word, unintentionally they remember the action and as a result, the meaning of that word. The third frequently-used strategy which the participants of this study selected was "studying the word with a pictorial representation of its meaning". Thirteen of the students selected it. This vocabulary learning strategy is in this way that when a new word is read a picture which is somehow related to its

meaning is shaped in the learner's mind and in this way that meaning can be easily learned. As to the least frequently-used vocabulary strategies, "Imaging word form" and "imaging word meaning" methods were chosen to be used in very rare situations. With regard to these findings, it should be pointed out that they were not congruent with the findings of other studies conducted in other contexts like the study done by Atay and Ozbulgan (2007). In their study, "connecting the new word to a previous personal experience" and "use of semantic maps" were the strategies most commonly used by the participants of that study.

To be more detailed on the participants' responses, other than the three frequently used strategies which were mentioned above, some other strategies were also selected by some of the students. Among them, the followings can be mentioned: "grouping the words", "saying the word aloud when studying", "associating the word with its coordinates" and "connecting the word to a previous personal experience". These strategies were selected by some of the responses. The interesting point is that two of the strategies weren't selected by any of the students. These two strategies were: "peg method" and "loci method". After the study, some of the students said that they even hadn't heard those strategies. In the mean time, five of the students wrote down, in the provided space in the questionnaire, that they used other strategies not mentioned in the card. These strategies were: "imaging word's meaning" and "imaging word form". These two ones were again somehow strange to the author. They were in this way that, according to their description, while learning a new vocabulary item, they try to imagine its meaning and also its form to better understanding the meaning of that word.

V. CONCLUSION

This study tried to examine first of all, if there is any significant difference between the male and female language learners in terms of their adoption of vocabulary learning strategies. And second, the study made an attempt to ascertain the most and also the least frequently-used of them. To do so, a study was done on two groups of students and they were asked to select three of the strategies that they employ to learn the meaning of new vocabulary items. As it was mentioned in the previous section, "connecting the word with its synonyms and antonyms", "using physical action when studying new words" and "studying the word with a pictorial representation of its meaning" turned out to be used more than other strategies. As to the least frequently-used vocabulary strategies, "Imaging word form" and "imaging word meaning" methods were chosen to be used not so often.

In the end, it should be mentioned that although the number of the participants in this study was not so big to make a definite conclusion, it should be remembered that this study was just a representative of many other studies which have been done regarding the same topic. Therefore, in order to reach a definite conclusion the findings of these studies should be gathered and then by comparing and analyzing them, finding the most and the least frequently-used strategies will be possible.

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A Study on the Application of Input Theory to Reading Instruction in Vocational College

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Abstract—Mainly based on the theories of reading, Krashen's Input Hypothesis and other theories related to input theory, the author made a research on the influence of different input on reading ability. A teaching experiment was taken by the author to find out whether increasing comprehensible input can improve the reading ability of students in vocational college. The overall analysis shows that increasing the reading input can really improve the students' reading ability.

Index Terms—comprehensible input, reading ability, students in vocational college

Reading, as one of the basic and principle means of language acquisition, especially for English acquisition in China, has received extensive and constant attention by linguists, researchers and teachers of English. Thus, reading ability is the focus of the works to English teachers. The research into second language acquisition has arisen increasing attention since 1970. Just as Vanpattern (1996) pointed out that input is the most important concept in the process of acquiring a second language, a lot of linguists and researchers have attempted researches on input, of which the most valuable theory is Krashen's Input Hypothesis, and we can gain a great deal of enlightenments from it in second language acquisition. This paper is a research on the application of Input Theory to English reading instruction in vocational college.

It is generally acknowledged that the purpose of English teaching is to develop the ability of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating. The view is widely accepted that reading ability is the most important one among the five abilities. By reading, one can increase vocabulary, enrich language knowledge, diversify experience and broaden view sight, moreover, the students' reading ability will make necessary foundation for the further study. So, reading is not only the main English learning purposes but also an effective means of learning English for all the second language learners. It can be said that improving the reading ability of the students is the key to improve English teaching quality. In the vocational English syllabus, we can see clearly that English is a compulsory subject for vocational students, and the teaching objective focus on raising the comprehensive ability in English, students should have the ability of understanding and translating related business information in English. All of this is inseparable from the reading comprehension ability.

With the development of internationalization and commercialization in modern times, students in vocational college are facing much more challenges in the requirement of an integrated ability that includes reading. (Han Baocheng, 2002) But the traditional teaching method in vocational college is not applicable to the new environment. Furthermore, Reading makes a large proportion in Practical English Test for Colleges Level A and Level B which the college students are required to pass. While Reading comprehension is precisely the weak point of many students, teachers in vocational colleges always impact English grammar knowledge instead of cultivate students ability in reading. It's the teacher not the student who centered in class, and the students are always in the passive accepting learning situation. Moreover, the learning materials are rather dull and the difficulty of them are not adapted for students. All of these limit the development of students' English reading ability.

As is known to all, an efficient reader reads fast and gets more information, while a inefficient one reads slowly and gets less information. That's due to the difference of the competence of reading comprehension and reading speed. the reading speed can be increased by the improvement of reading comprehension. Thus it is important for teachers to improve the ability of reading comprehension. As it says "the ability of reading, is actually referring to the ability of reading comprehension." (Hu Chundong & Dai Zhongxin, 1996, P.48)

There are two processes in reading: word recognition and comprehension. The former one refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension refers to the process which makes sense of the words, sentences and contexts. Readers understand the written text by making use of vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, background knowledge. So the process of comprehension is basically the connecting of old knowledge to new knowledge. In the process the reader's prior experience and the cues for the writer are used to infer the meaning of the written text. Rumelhart (1977) has a widely accepted view on reading definition: reading comprehension is the result of neither a bottom-up nor top-down process, but rather the product of interaction between two.

Since input plays an important role in language learning, the following questions come next: "What are the standards or high quality input?", "What kind of input is most helpful to the language learner?" Krashen (1982) gave a relatively

clear illustration for the features of optimal input: Comprehensibility, Interestingness and relativity, Non- grammatical sequence and Sufficiency. Actually the quantity of input is the main concern of the optimal Input in this hypothesis, since the big difference between foreign language which is learning in the second language learning environment and in the mother tongue environment lies in the amount of input that is available to the learner. Only given enough input, learners can actively intake the knowledge of language, and then gradually build the capacity of language in order to express their ideas. Much of the input research has verified the effectiveness of comprehensible input in large quantity, just like Krashen has said, “the more comprehensible input, the greater second language proficiency.”, “lack of comprehensible input delays language acquisition.” Krashen (1985)

It has been proved that input has crucial relevance to reading comprehension. But research about how input affect the reading ability of vocational students is rarely little. Students in vocational college have their specialty from other college students, they have lower ability on reading comprehension and lower motivation of learning, so the study on their reading ability and the comprehensible input will be of universal significance for teachers in vocational college. The study on the relationship between the comprehensible input and the improving of reading ability is a fundamental and theoretical research work for teachers, finding out whether comprehensible input can improve reading ability for vocational students will provide scientific basis for making educational policy. Taking into account the special nature of vocational students, the research also aims to find what are the most suitable materials for them, and whether such most suitable materials can improve their reading ability by the greatest extent.

Students in vocational college have their specialty from other college students, they have lower ability on reading comprehension and lower motivation of learning, so the study on their reading ability and the comprehensible input will be of universal significance for teachers in vocational college. The study on the relationship between the comprehensible input and the improving of reading ability is a fundamental and theoretical research work for teachers, finding out whether comprehensible input can improve reading ability for vocational students will provide scientific basis for making educational policy. So the author conducted a research to find out whether the students' reading ability can be improved by increasing comprehensible input.

The study took 70 non-English majors from two classes who all entered Dezhou Vocational College in September, 2009 as the subjects. Class One is the control class and Class Two is the experimental class. Test is an effective method by which teachers usually use as a measure of results of teaching and learning. A pre-test was conducted at the very beginning of the first term in 2010 in order to test whether the reading ability of students participated in the teaching experiment were at the same level. The test lasted an hour and all of the test papers were distributed and recovered by the author. It include 4 reading comprehension. of which 2 were from Practical English Test for Colleges Level A and 2 were from Level B.

TABLE 1:
ANALYSIS OF PRETEST SCORES OF THE TWO CLASSES

Group	N	Mean	Sd	df	Mean Difference	t-value	Sig
Class1	35	8.02	2.409	67.443	0.01	0.201	0.989
Class2	35	8.01	2.478				

As is shown in table 4.1 the average score of Class one (8.02) is a little higher than that of Class Two (8.01), The mean difference between Class One and Class Two is 0.01, the t-value is 0.201, the level of significance is 0.989($p>0.05$), The statistics and analysis above indicate that there is no significant difference from the students in the two classes on their reading comprehensible ability. That is, the students in the two classes (one control class and one experimental class) are at the same level in their reading comprehension ability before the experiment.

We know the students in the two classes have the similar English education background. In addition, they were all taught by the author in reading class through the period of experiment.

The students in class two are required to read a passage from the course book for PETS (level 3) everyday from Monday to Friday each week. They are required to read one passage and then do the reading comprehension questions in the passages, The topics of the passages which they read include technology, economics, education, literature, environmental, culture etc. The words in each passage were about 600 to 800, which are a little more than the words in the passages from textbook used in class. New words and expressions in each passage were marked and provided explanations to help the students understand the passage better. To make sure all the students can complete the reading task every day, the teacher checked them in every class. The time for check was about five minutes and was given by the teacher (author) in the form of asking the students to retell the general idea of the passage assigned or asking some questions related to the passage. Most of the students could accomplish the assignment of reading five passages a week. The experiment lasted from February, 2010 to July 2010. At the end of the term, the students in the two classes took a posttest on reading comprehension, the scores of the two classes were collected and then were put into computer and were analyzed by SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), the results are in the following table:

TABLE 2:
ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF THE TWO CLASSES

Group	N	Mean	Sd	df	Mean Difference	t-value	Sig
Class1	35	8.22	2.407	68.721	-1.10	-2.531	0.021
Class2	35	9.03	2.372				

We can learn from the table above that the average score of Class One in the posttest is 8.22, while that of Class Two is 9.03 in the posttest, and their t-value is -1.781 and the level of significance is 0.034 ($p < 0.05$), this indicates that there is significant difference between the two class. It can be said that the reading comprehension ability of students in Class Two (experimental class one) has been improved after the teaching experiment.

It is obvious that the ability of reading comprehension of the experimental class has improved more than that of the control class after being provided additional reading material (input) as the everyday assignment. This results show that the students' reading comprehension ability can be improved by increasing the quantity of reading material. Increasing the amount of reading is indeed helpful to improve the reading ability of students.

Krashen emphasized the importance of the quantity of input repeatedly. Learners can receive lots of language knowledge by a large number of input and then consolidate the knowledge to master it in the end. Lack of reading will hinder the progress of ability of reading comprehension. In teaching practice, teachers should try to increase the amount of reading material to students, maximize the amount of reading, that will improve the reading speed in order to improve students' ability of reading comprehension and then improve English study. Allow for the limitation of time that students can use in English learning, teachers should help students grasp appropriate way of reading, improve their reading speed, encourage them to develop reading habit. Once the reading habit develops, students can use the limited time rationally to read actively.

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The Difference between Formative Assessment through Multiple Choice Questions and True False Questions in Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Grammar Learning

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Abstract—Assessment is a prominent topic including everything from large scale tests to district benchmark or interim tests to everyday classroom tests. In order to discover what seems to be an overuse of testing, educators should frame their views of testing as assessment and that assessment is getting information rather than making learners stressed. The more we know about the students, the clearer the picture we have about achievement or where gaps may occur. This study attempts to find the difference between using multiple choice type of quizzes and true/false type of quizzes as means of formative assessment in teaching intermediate adult students. What we exactly tried to do was checking that whether learners can improve their knowledge of grammar and have better results in their achievement test based on different exam types they take during the term and in the class. The findings showed that there was no significant difference between the learners exposed to multiple-choice exams and those who were given true/false tests. The type of exam which was used for final exam was even a multiple choice one but this did not lead to a significantly better performance for the ones who had the same exam type during the instructional sessions.

Index Terms—formative assessment, summative assessment, interim tests, achievement test

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the successful schools engage students in all aspects of their learning. There are many strategies to accomplish this. One of these strategies could student-led conferences. As a teacher or administrator, how is it possible to ensure that the information shared in a student-led conference provides a suitable picture of the students' strengths and weaknesses? One possible way to do so is to balance both summative and formative classroom assessment practices and information gathering about student learning.

Formative assessment is a way of checking the learners regularly. This way, students will have better results during the course and both the teachers and the students can improve or even correct themselves according to the results they get out of the exams. There are various ways of doing formative assessment, such as: summaries, presentations, debriefing, quizzes, journal entries, observations,....etc.

Quizzes assess students for some actual information, related concepts and discrete skill. There is usually a single best answer and not more for each question. Some quiz examples are: multiple choice, true/false, short answer, paper and pencil.

The terms "formative" and "summative" do not seem to be difficult, however the definitions have become confusing over the past few years. This is true for formative assessment particularly. In a balanced assessment system, both summative and formative assessments are inseparable parts of information gathering. Depending too much on one or the other and the reality of student achievement in your classroom results in ambiguity.

Summative Assessments are given periodically, mostly as achievement tests, to determine at a particular point in time what students know and what they do not know. Many associate summative assessments only with standardized tests, yet they are also used at and are an important part of district and classrooms and schools programs. Summative assessment at the district and classroom level is a kind of measure which is generally used as a means of the grading process.

The key is to think of summative assessment as a means to judge the students' learning at a particular time, the learning that is related to content standards. Although the information gained from this type of assessment could be significant, it can only help to evaluate certain aspects of the learning process. Since they are not very regular in time

and occur after instruction every few weeks, months, or once a year, summative assessments are tools to help evaluate the efficiency of programs, school improvement goals, effectiveness of curriculum, or student placement in some specific programs. Summative assessments happen too far down the learning path to provide the people in charge with some needed information at the classroom level and to make instructional adjustments and changes during the learning process. It takes formative assessment to accomplish this goal.

Formative Assessment is part of the instructional process. When incorporated into classroom practice, it provides the needed information to adjust learning and teaching while they are happening. In this sense, formative assessment can inform both students and teachers about student understanding at a point when these kinds of timely adjustments can be made. These adjustments help to ensure students achieve those pre-determined standards-based learning goals within a set time frame. Although formative assessment strategies appear in a variety of forms, there are some clearly different ways to distinguish them from summative assessment.

One distinction is to think of formative assessment as “revision” or better to say “practice.” We should not hold students accountable in “grade book fashion” for skills or concepts they have just been introduced to or what they are learning. We must let them practice. Formative assessment helps teachers decide about or even predetermine next steps during the learning process as the instruction approaches the summative assessment (which could be of any format) of student learning.

Once before, I read somewhere that when you are going to have a driving test in order to get your driving license, it’s not a good idea to pass every step by getting a particular grade on that. If it is so, then the one who is practicing would face some problems that may result in ‘stress’ which is one of the most bothering parts of every test.

Another sharp distinction made here is that formative assessment involves student. If students are not involved or engaged in the assessment process, formative assessment is not implemented effectively. Students need to be involved both as self-assessors or self evaluators and as resources to other students. There are various kinds of strategies that teachers can make use of to engage students. In fact, research shows that the involvement in and ownership of their own work can easily increase students’ motivation to learn something and this great. This does not mean that there is no need of teacher involvement. To the contrary, teachers are very significant and necessary in identifying learning goals; designing assessment tasks and setting clear criteria for success that provide evidence of student learning.

One of the key components of involving students in self- assessment is providing them with descriptive feedback as they are learning. In fact, research shows descriptive feedback is one of the most significant instructional strategies that very easily move students forward in the process of their learning. Descriptive feedback provides students with an understanding of what they are doing efficiently, links to classroom learning, and gives some specific input on how to reach the next step in the learning progression. In other words, descriptive feedback is not a score, a level, or “good job !” A prominent body of research indicates that such insufficient feedback does not lead to improved student learning.

There are many classroom instructional strategies that are part of the successful teaching. When teachers use vocal instructional practice for the purpose of gathering information on student learning, they are using this gathered information in a formative way. This way, formative assessment is pedagogy and clearly cannot be far from instruction. It is what most of the good teachers always try to do.

The distinction lies in what the teachers actually do with the information they gather. It’s not just the matter of collecting information/data on student learning; it’s what teachers have to do with the information they gather.

As we have seen, assessment in English is a challenging work. The issues that are at the center of our attention when talking of summative assessment are very similar to those that we have when we think about formative assessment. What makes English hard to assess also makes progression complex to define. Yet here we are not going to define any concept and what we merely try to do is showing some differences between applying different kinds of strategies.

This study attempts to find whether different test formats that we use to formatively assess our students have any significant influence on their marks in final exam, so the following research question is the main one for this research:

Does the format of the test through which the students are formatively assessed during the class have any significant influence on the result of the scores they receive in the final exam?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is considerable research evidence that show effective feedback leads to better learning. Black and Wiliam (1998) have done over 250 studies of feedback carried out since 1988, including nearly all educational sectors. The studies focused on real teaching occasions, and the selection included teacher-made assessments and peer and self assessments. While the bulk of Black and Wiliam’s data came from the school sector, their review and that of others (e.g. Hattie, 1987; Crooks, 1988), provides enough convincing evidence of the value of feedback in promoting learning. Moreover, there is a large body of complementary research studies demonstrating the influence of self and peer feedback on students learning (e.g. Boud, 1995; Boud et al., 1999). Nonetheless, while the work of Black and others has had significant effects on teaching practices in schools (Black et al., 2003) it has so far had much less influence on higher education.

One of the most influential articles underpinning Black and Wiliam review, and works of other researchers (e.g. Yorke, 2003), is that of Sadler (1989). Sadler found three necessary conditions for students to benefit from feedback in academic tasks. He mentioned that the student must know:

1. what good performance is (i.e. the student must possess a concept of the goal or standard being aimed for);
2. how current performance relates to good performance (for this, the student must be able to compare current and good performance);
3. how to act to close the gap between current and good performance.

From this analysis Sadler made an important observation: for students to be able to compare actual performance with the standard one (as suggested by 2), and take action to close the gap (3), then they must already possess some of the same evaluative skills as their teacher (Sadler, 1989). For some writers, this observation has led to the conclusion that, as well as improving the quality of feedback messages, teachers should also put much more effort on strengthening the skills of self-assessment in their students (Boud, 2000; Yorke, 2003). Sadler's argument, that students are already generating their own feedback, also could help account for the common finding that students still make significant progress in their learning even when the external or extrinsic feedback they receive is quite poor.

In spite of the appeal of self-regulation as a construct, it is significant to recognize some basic assumptions underlying its use. While it is assumed that students had better self regulate internal states and behaviors as well as some important aspects of the environment, it does not mean that the students can always have full control on what they are doing. The tasks set by teachers, marking regimes and other course requirements are not under students' control, even though students still have latitude to self-regulate within such constraints. Students often learn in implicit or unintentional ways without explicit regulation as well.

There is much empirical evidence, mainly published in the USA, showing that learners who seem to be more self-regulated are more effective learners: they are more persistent, resourceful, confident and higher achievers (Pintrich, 1995; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). In addition, when students are more self-regulated, they think that they have much more control over their own learning and this really helpful for them. (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2004). Also, researches show that any student, even those 'at risk', can easily learn to become more self-regulating (Pintrich & Zusho, 2002). The development of self-regulation in students can be facilitated by structuring learning environments in ways that make learning processes explicit, through meta-cognitive training, self monitoring and by providing opportunities to practice self-regulation (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Pintrich, 1995). The contribution of this article is to identify how formative assessment can affect the students learning and see whether different ways and techniques of formative assessment have different influence on their achievement test.

If we assume that the purpose of a test is to make sure whether or to what extent the learner knows the language, obviously, the basic need to prepare valid tests of language proficiency will be a theoretical question of what it means to know a language. Corder (1975) believed that our ability to do a good job of measuring the learner's knowledge of the language depends upon the learner's knowledge of the language depends on the adequacy of our theory about the language, our understanding of what is meant by knowledge of language.

While the positive role of formative assessment has now apparently been widely accepted in mainstream education circles there has been, according to Black (2000), an absence of an appropriate and coherent program of research to support both the practical and theoretical development of the formative assessment process. For instance, a review of research into formative techniques found that key work in this area showed just little overlap—'it seems that most researchers are not studying much of the literature that could inform their work' (Black, 2000, p. 409). In fact, this difficulty is made of different notions about what the term 'formative assessment' actually means.

One possible result of this changing position of formative and summative techniques is that, on the one hand, we can have a system of high stakes summative national testing that is very unique among European countries; and on the other hand, a 'crisis account' of low standards and students being failed which is not pleasant for teachers or administrators (Gorard, 2001). This might lead a person to consider that the current testing system has proven unsuccessful in some respects, and that, ironically, the assessment method that could have produced the continuous improvement in student performance apparently recommended or better to say demanded by some governments might more properly be formative, rather than summative.

Those who believe in assessment reforms, today focus on the need for a closer substantive connection between assessment and meaningful instruction. They are somehow overreacting against documented distortions in recent decades where teachers in the contexts of high-stakes accountability testing have shaped instructional activities again to conform to both the format and content of external standardized tests, thereby reducing the complexity and demands of the curriculum recommended by governments and at the same time lowering the credibility of test scores gained from the exams. In describing present-day practice, for example, Graue (1993) suggests that both the assessment and instruction are "conceived as curiously separate concepts," a kind of separation that Graue relates to technical measurement concerns.

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

The participants in this study were 28 Iranian adult students who were studying English at the intermediate level at one of the English institutes called Kalam. These students were all males and were chosen from among 34 based on the scores they gained in a homogeneity test given to them. Those 28 students were then divided into two groups both exposed to 10 same instructional sessions with different test formats during the sessions in order to find its influence on

the final exam. The students in group one were given a multiple choice test every two sessions to assess their learning and the students in group two were given a true/false test with the same intention. Finally, they all were given a test of multiple choice to see whether the format of the tests in the classroom can make a significant difference between two groups or not.

B. Instrumentation

As it was mentioned before, the participants of this study were 28 male students who had been previously participated in a placement test held by the institute and since they were all put in the same class of instruction, they were regarded to be homogeneous, so there was no exam of homogeneity for them. The tests used here were 5 multiple choice and 5 true/false teacher made quizzes which the students were supposed to take during the instructional sessions as means of formative assessment. A standardized multiple choice test was used as the posttest of this study for both groups and the scores were compared using an independent t-test.

C. Procedure

This study was done based on a comparison between two groups: group 1 and group 2. All the 28 students were exposed to 10 same instructional sessions. The first group which was consisted of 14 students received the instruction and after two sessions they were given a quiz of multiple choice related to the lesson they were taught in the 2 previous sessions. This trend repeated for the rest of the course, meaning that the students received 10 sessions of instruction and therefore 5 quizzes.

The second group had exactly the same situation but instead of multiple choice types of questions they were given true/false ones. The participants weren't aware of this experiment and they were present in all the instructional sessions. The quizzes were all teacher-made and had content validity; they consisted of only 10 related questions to the content of the taught lessons and were used as means of revision and finding the problematic areas but not as something to make them scared or stressed.

IV. RESULTS

Finally, after providing the students with 10 sessions of instruction and 5 related quizzes, the final test was given to the students in order to see whether their performance differ according to the types of tests they have taken based on the taught lessons or not.

After having the students participated in the same final exam, it was revealed that the type of quizzes through which the students were formatively assessed had no significant influence on their level of learning due to the scores they received in the exam. By comparing their final scores through an independent t-test the following result were gained.

TABLE 1.
GROUP STATISTICS

	Testformat	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
testscore	mc	14	17.7321	1.15386	.30838
	Tf	14	16.3036	1.51967	.40615

As it is seen in table 1, the means of both group1 and group 2 are not very much different from each other, but we know that observing the means merely is not sufficient to evaluate the groups' performances. So, the means of the groups were also compared through an independent t-test. The table below (table 2) provided us with more information of participants' performances.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Testscore	Equal variances assumed	1.074	.310	2.801	26	.009	1.42857	.50996
	Equal variances not assumed			2.801	24.250	.010	1.42857	.50996

As the table shows, the difference between these two groups is not significant, so the test formats through which the students were formatively assessed could not be very influential on the scores they gained in their final exam.

Actually, the participants with which we worked were not randomly chosen, and they were only a group of students who had registered to study English at an institute. Besides, they were all males, so the results of this study shouldn't be easily generalized to a very much bigger population which has different conditions.

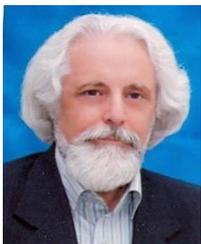
V. CONCLUSION

Assessment is an important part of every educational system. Nowadays, students need to be assessed in a way that they are completely free of stress. Teachers or other people in charge, have to provide the learners with some periodical tests in order to find their progression, but more significant than that is the way they make them ready to be successful in such exams. The trainers need to give them some tests or quizzes as means of formative assessment from time to time and let them know about their weaknesses and improve them. If not, although it'll be assumed that the desired learning has taken place, the learnt lessons will be soon forgotten. In addition to that, formative assessment can be very helpful and the revision will lead to better marks at the time of the final exam.

As mentioned before, there was more emphasis put on the issue of formative assessment and there has been some important distinctions made between summative and formative assessments over the past few decades.

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On the Multimedia Teaching in College English Listening*

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Abstract—With the reform of college English teaching, multimedia-aided listening teaching has become the focus. This paper puts forth the current situation and requirement of college English teaching, gives a brief introduction of constructivism theory of learning, analyses the advantages of multimedia teaching, and proposes some teaching tips with the aid of multimedia in listening class to meet the demands of new curriculum requirement.

Index Terms—multimedia, constructivism, listening class, motivation

I. THE REFORM OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING AND THE INTRODUCTION OF MULTIMEDIA

After the entry of WTO, the Ministry of Education launched a project named “Teaching Quality and Teaching Construction of Higher Education”, among which the curriculum requirement for college English teaching released in Sept.26, 2007 is one of the top priorities. This latest curriculum states that the requirement of English teaching for college stage should be divided into three levels, that is, general requirement, high requirement and higher requirement respectively. The design of the curriculum should take the requirement of the cultivation of listening and speaking into adequate consideration and distribute enough credit and time to it. Sufficient advanced information technology should be fully employed. More computer-based or Internet-based curricula should be developed and utilized to provide better environment and condition for language acquisition of students. This pattern is a new integrated way to help Chinese college students to meet the above new requirement. It emphasizes autonomous learning ability and individualized teaching to bring computer’s advantages into full play. With that, students can combine their personal features and teachers’ guidance to improve their comprehensive ability, thus, achieve the best effect of study.

In 2005, the CET (College English Test) was reformed. The biggest change was in listening part which makes up 35% of the whole test, but it only originally accounted for 20% in the past. Thus, the teaching idea must be changed accordingly, and the teaching method must be adjusted. The focus should be placed on practical use and the training of listening must be emphasized. The introduction and use of multimedia technology for the English class has crucial practical value and profound meaning.

No matter whether it is computer-based curriculum or traditional-classroom-based curriculum, it should involve great distinguishing features and full consideration for students with high English proficiency and relatively low proficiency as well. It should not only set a solid base for students, but train their practical use of English, particularly in speaking and listening.

When computer-based curriculum is mentioned, it is easily acknowledged that the computer is the synonym of multimedia with various Internet resources. To be exact, multimedia is media and content that uses a combination of different content forms. The term is used in contrast to media which only use traditional forms of printed or hand-produced material. Multimedia includes a combination of text, audio, still images, animation, video, and interactivity content forms.

II. CONSTRUCTIVISM THEORY OF LEARNING

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own “rules” and “mental models,” which we use to make sense of our experiences. Learning, therefore, is simply the process of adjusting our mental models to accommodate new experiences. Constructivism, a further development of behaviorism and cognitive theory, provides great theoretical supports for application of multimedia in English teaching. Constructivism is a view of learning based on the belief that knowledge is not a thing that can be simply given by the teacher at the front of the classroom to students in their desks. Rather, knowledge is constructed by learners through an active, mental process of development. Social constructivism views each learner as a unique individual with unique needs and backgrounds. The learner is also seen as complex and multidimensional. Social constructivism not only acknowledges the uniqueness and

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complexity of the learner, but actually encourages, utilizes and rewards it as an integral part of the learning process. Furthermore, it is argued that the responsibility of learning should reside increasingly with the learner. Social constructivism thus emphasizes the importance of the learner being actively involved in the learning process, unlike previous educational viewpoints where the responsibility rested with the instructor to teach and where the learner played a passive, receptive role. Von Glasersfeld emphasizes that learners construct their own understanding and that they do not simply mirror and reflect what they read. Knowledge is thus a product of humans and is socially and culturally constructed.

With this theory, instructors have to adapt to the role of facilitators and not teachers. So this requires teaching process should be student-oriented. The development of multi-media materialized this theory. With multi-media, students can absorb information extensively; their interest and motivation can be promoted dramatically; and the teaching target can be achieved fully.

III. THE ADVANTAGES OF MULTIMEDIA TEACHING

Listening in English teaching has always been important and difficult. The traditional “trilogy” of English teaching, namely, listening-correcting-listening, has been behind the pace of modern teaching to mobilize enthusiasm of students, and it can only achieve a rigid response. Listening can be optimized by multimedia teaching.

A. *The Application of Multimedia can Stimulate Students' Interest and Improve Their Language Sense*

Interest is the best teacher. To arouse students' interest, multimedia is a good instrument. Cognitive psychology maintains that the learning of English should combine language and image, and multimedia can integrate vision, text, picture and audio actively, to stimulate the nerve cell of brain of students and promote their abstract thinking and thinking in terms of images. The application of multimedia can help make a better learning atmosphere. Overwhelmed in a multimedia environment, students can avoid the embarrassment when fail to answer teacher's questions. They can actively get involved in the material prepared for their language acquisition. The information flow is huge, and their language sense can be sharpened and improved. Thus, with this interactive, virtual atmosphere, students can get knowledge in a pleasant environment and apply them easily, which can help their full development.

B. *The Application of Multimedia can Help Cultivate the Intercultural Communication*

Learning a language is tightly connected with its culture. Language is the carrier of the culture, and culture is the reflection of the language. Therefore, to learn English well need the integration of English and the culture of English-speaking countries. With multimedia, students can have more chances to be exposed to English culture directly or indirectly, which cannot be achieved from traditional class.

C. *The Application of Multimedia can Strengthen Students' Comprehension and Understanding*

Learning is a process, in which all senses are involved. Sight and hearing accounts for 94% of the comprehension of learning materials, among which sight makes up 83%, and hearing 11%. When hearing and sight combine, the effect is strikingly improved. The application of multimedia motivates the senses, especially sight and hearing, which effectively strengthen students' comprehension and understanding.

D. *The Application of Multimedia can Improve Teaching Quality*

The communicative approach of educational psychology states that there are two key factors that determine the English learning, learning motivation and attitude. Active learning motivation and attitude can help learners acquire the target language proficiency. The stronger learning motivation is, the more active leaning becomes, and the better learning effect, vice versa. The application of multimedia arouses the motivation of learners, and can promote their learning from the internal cause.

IV. TEACHING METHOD WITH MULTIMEDIA

A. *Sufficient Preparation before Class*

Multimedia listening class does not mean the teacher just use the mouse to show some movie clips or listening materials to students. This new instrument brings more challenges to teachers. According to every teaching unit, the teacher should select suitable material before class. The material should be new, comprehensive, to the point of the book, and should also arouse students' interest. They can be current news, classic movie clips, nice songs, etc. All these should have some connection with the teaching theme of the respective class.

B. *Play and Check*

Some students regard listening class as a relatively easy class, if the teachers only focus on playing video or listening material and then simply check the answers. The students feel no pressure, as long as they are not challenged. Then some students begin to neglect the listening class, which is a huge loss for them and also is the result of teachers' wrong teaching method. In the class, teacher can divide students into several groups, and each group is assigned a task. When they are shown the material, every member is involved in with some certain tasks. With this method, they can watch or

listening more effectively. When students fail to finish their tasks, it means the material is difficult for them. Then the teacher can replay it and explain some key words, slangs or long sentences. If students can easily answer the questions, the teacher can raise some deeper questions for them to discuss to improve their oral English. Easy material can boost students' confidence, and give them a sense of achievement. While the difficult ones can challenge their ability, and give them more space to improve to a higher level.

C. *Effective After-class Assignments*

The improvement of listening skill cannot be achieved through a listening class once every week or every two weeks in some colleges. The main task should be left after class. Teacher should assign some homework for students to listen and practice after class. The assignment should be specific and easy to check. Then the students can have a clear idea on what to listen and how to listen. For some students with higher demand and desire, the teacher can guide them in a broad direction. The development of network technology provides students with great resources which fully reflect the main idea of extensiveness in reading. Under the teacher's guidance, students, according to their own preferences, read freely and gradually form a cultural awareness of English, thereby to learn English and foreign culture well, which also embodies the idea of students-centered.

V. CONCLUSION

Besides the benefits from application of multimedia, there are still some negative effects of multimedia in English teaching. Without a standard and effective courseware design, the teaching content and arrangement will be ambiguous; Students are easily distracted. Because there exist a lot of pictures, sound and cartoon which cause over-stimulation and partial use of senses, thus, students can easily be distracted from teaching content and lose their concentration.

What teachers and educators should do is to improve professional quality and to cultivate themselves with modern educational theories so that they can make full and proper use of multimedia to aid English teaching and avoid the negative influence of the use of multimedia.

The good use of the multimedia teaching method is an important way to optimize the English teaching results. While handling classes, teachers should use the teaching method of the multimedia actively to improve the teaching quality of English. But it can't be abused. Teachers must choose and use the audio-visual education program media rationally according to the contents of the text, so that they can achieve the goal of optimizing English teaching.

Multimedia teaching makes full use of its advantages to convey information, enhance the interaction between students and teachers, and combine listening, watching and speaking effectively to make a comprehensive teaching pattern which offers positive instrument for modern English teaching. This pattern makes up the disadvantages of traditional English class, and boosts the listening and speaking skill of students and ultimately achieves the better teaching target.

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The Effect of Font Size on Reading Comprehension Skills: Scanning for Key Words and Reading for General Idea

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Abstract—The present study tries to investigate the effect of font size on recognition of the key textual words, to determine if the students can find the answers to some multiple choice and true/false questions easier in a text typed with a larger or smaller font size. Forty male and female students were selected through the placement test in an institute. Their reading comprehension ability with the focus on scanning for the key words and understanding general idea was measured using two reading texts with different font sizes (fonts 10 and 16) but the same level of difficulty estimated by Fog index of readability. To minimize the ordering effect, counter balanced test design was applied during the test administration. Pearson Product Correlation did not show a significant relationship between the scores of the two font sizes.

Index Terms—font size, key textual word, scanning, readability

I. INTRODUCTION

All over the world reading materials and textbooks are among the most common, reliable and authentic sources of input in EFL classes. Reading is critical to full participation in modern society. It presents a major challenge for daily living. Reading requires processing of both the visual information from the page and the linguistic information that resides in the mind of readers. Consequently the way the information in the text is presented to the vision of the students, including font size and type, might have an effect on their scanning in general and on their speed in particular.

There are many studies on the effect of reading font size, font type and line width on reading speed and accuracy in readers with some kind of impairment (e.g. Gibson & Levin, 1975, Legge et al, 1985a,1985b, 1997,2001, Atkinson, 1993, Cornelissen et al, 1997, Demb, 1998, Eden, 2008, Everatt, 2008, Geiger et al, 1988,1994); The print size and font type; however, is less documented in the case of normal readers (e.g. Akutsu, et al, 1991, Bernard, Chaparro, Mills & Halcomb, 2002, Bernard, Chaparro, Mills & Halcomb, 2003). These latter studies, however, have investigated the effect of font size when presented through the screen of a computer or mobile rather than printed reading text. The next section will elaborate the aforementioned studies in detail.

There are many researches on Accuracy of L1 Reading Comprehension and Reading Speed in the case of L1 readers especially those with a visual impairment or dyslexia. What is an issue of agreement in most of these studies (e.g. Gibson & Levin, 1975, Legge et al, 1989) is that comprehension breaks down at low reading rates often less than 100 words per minute and it is fostered if the reading speed increases, of course to a critical point.

In people with central vision, i.e. when the visual field is normal, reading speed increases with print size up to a critical print size beyond which reading speed remains at a plateau level, termed the maximum reading speed (Legge *et al*, 1985a, 1985b, Chung, 1991, Mansfield et al, 1994, 1996). For extremely large print, reading speed declines. However, reading is slower in people with peripheral visual field i.e. people with a disorder in the macular region of retina. (Tielsch *et al*, 1995). By print size the above researchers refer to the angular substance of the print on the retina not the physical print size on the page which is the focus in the present study. On the contrary, there are other researches in which font size has been defined on the basis of the actual font size and type on the screens or papers but not in normal readers (e.g. Gary et al, 2009, O'Brien et al, 2005).

Gary et al (2009) studying patients with sight problems tried to evaluate the effects of print size, font type and line width on reading speed to help provide recommendations to designers for creating more accessible print materials. 43 patients with acuity 6/30 or better (median age = 72) read texts presented randomly in four sizes (10, 12, 14 and 16 points), for each of four fonts (Times New Roman, Helvetica, Tiresias PC font and Foundry Form Sans) at a standard line width (70 characters). A subset of fonts was tested at additional line widths (35 and 90). Significant main effects were found for print size. None was found for line width and font type. Larger print sizes were read faster than smaller

print sizes. The results in this study suggested that font type has little effect on reading speed, once the size of the print is taken into account. What they concluded was that specialized fonts, designed according to preferences of readers with sight problems, did not necessarily lead to enhanced reading performance.

Print size is believed to play a crucial role in reading speed for dyslexic readers (O'Brien et al, 2005). They predicted that dyslexic readers require larger critical print size to attain their maximum reading speeds. He measured reading speed across 12 print sizes for a group of dyslexic readers in grade 2 to 4 (aged 7 to 10 years) and compared the reading rates as a function of print size for groups of children with and without dyslexia. Their finding is also confirmed by other researchers (e.g Solomon & Pelli, 1994, Legge, Ahn, Klitz & Luebker, 1997, Legge, Mansfield & Chung, 2001). Solomon and Pelli (1994, p. 396) assert: "It is possible that larger print size facilitates dyslexic reading by increasing the visibility of spatial frequencies critical for letter recognition.

There are other researches in the literature which have issued font size and its effect on reading text when presented on screens (e.g. Bernard et al, 2001, 2002 & 2003). Most these studies ended up with a range of sizes as favorable ones not the best font size, following the similar performance of all groups on some font sizes and explaining the neutral effect of reading font size on speed and accuracy. Contrary to such researches, there are others stating the font size influences on on-screen reading. Dyson (2004, p. 381), for instance, reported "fonts at the 10 point size were read significantly more slowly than font at the 12 point size, but there was a speed- accuracy trade-off removing differences between sizes. Fonts that were read faster were generally read less accurately".

The findings in the literature on print/ font size and the effect on reading posed the following challenging questions, which struck the researchers' mind to plan the present study:

1. Many researches have confirmed the positive effect of font size and its effect on reading speed, in other words the smaller the font size, the faster the reader, though there are some contrary findings. The question raised in the researchers' mind is if reading comprehension as getting a general understanding from the text is influenced by reading speed.

2. Having reviewed the questions, many readers are used to scan the text in order to find a related key textual word similar to what they have already seen in the questions. The question here is if font size can help students with finding or recognizing of the related key word in the reading text in order to read more carefully and answer the question with a focus on details. In other words, font size might help the reader to locate the answer in the text more easily.

The first question deals with the effect of print size on reading comprehension defined as getting the main idea or a general understanding of the text. The second question, however, specifically deals with identifying the detailed information in the text. Following the above questions the researchers conducted a study with a focus on font size defined as the physical font size on the printed paper and reading comprehension as the ability of the readers to generally and specifically understand the text and answer a set of multiple choice and true/false questions. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to answer the following questions:

Is there any relationship between font size and EFL learners' ability to perform a reading comprehension test?

Based on the above questions the following hypothesis emerged:

Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the performance of EFL learners' on reading comprehension questions (detailed questions and understanding the general idea) over two font sizes.

II. METHOD

A. Subjects

An oral and a written placement test was administered to all the applicants registering in Nasl-e Farda Private language Institute, based on the content of the four volume New Interchanges Third Edition (instructed in 12 terms, 12 levels). 40 male and female applicants, aged 17-28, who were assigned to the second volume of New Interchange, level 4, were selected for the present study.

B. Instruments

Two reading texts, printed with font 10 and font 16, were selected from New Interchange 1, second edition, and analyzed based on fog index of readability, length of the text characters, and mean characters in each line. A sample text had also been selected out of the Interchange 1, third edition and analyzed with a fog index of 12.71. This had been done to make the researchers certain about the equal level of difficulty of the two reading texts with the difficulty level of reading texts in the participants' course book. In other words, the researchers were assured that the two main reading texts employed in this study were appropriate representative of the reading texts the participants encounter in their term.

The sample text, titled as "Cell phone Etiquette" was randomly selected from among the 16 reading texts in New Interchange 1. The text with the font 16 (titled as Joan Chen), was selected with a length, including spaces, of 1383 characters (mean = 59.8 in each line) and totally 262 words (mean 11.6 word in each line). The second text with the font 10 (titled as John Travolta), was selected with a length, including spaces, of 1487 characters (mean = 63.83 characters in each line) and 267 words (mean 12.83 word in each line). The font 16 text had a fog index of 12.68 and the other text, font 10, a fog index of 12.96.

To make sure that the topic of the two main texts doesn't make any differences on the performance of the participants, both were selected with the genre of biography of famous movie stars in America.

A short definition was provided for the new unknown words to participants, given in front of the text lines. The reason for controlling this variable was to be ascertained that students' unfamiliarity with a specific word did not influence their performance on reading comprehension questions. The above information is briefly summarized in the following table:

TABLE 1:
TEXT FEATURES

	Title	Mean characters in each line	Length of the text characters	Fog index of readability
Sample text	Cell phone Etiquette			12.71
Text with font 10	Joan Chen	63.83	1487	12.96
Text with font 16	John Travolta	59.8	1383	12.68

C. Procedure

After the selection of two reading texts, questions were devised in two types: true/ false questions (10 items for each text) and multiple choice questions (5 items for each text). The questions were not presented in sequence and the order of their answers' appearance in the text. The reason was to see if font size determined students' capability of identifying the location of specific information and consequently finding the answer to the detailed questions. Texts were rendered in Times-Roman font, a proportionally spaced font, on A4 papers.

Questions were made by the researchers and checked by two of the colleagues with at least 5 years experience of teaching reading comprehension courses at the university to EFL learners. The consensus was obtained that around 25% of the questions in each text measured general idea of the paragraphs and the rest of the questions, about 10 items in each text, measured the participants' ability to locate key words, detailed information in the text.

The participants' reading comprehension ability, specifically their recognition of the answers in the text and understanding the general idea, was measured by administering both reading texts, with different font sizes but the same level of difficulty, on all the participants. The timing on each test was equally controlled and 10 minutes.

To minimize the ordering effect, counter balanced test design was applied during the test administration.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive data analysis including mean and standard deviation was estimated on the scored gained through the administration of both reading texts with font 10 and 16. As Table 2 shows, there was not a significant difference among the performance of the participants on the two texts with different font sizes.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
font 10	8.1667	1.91741	40
font 16	8.6111	2.06195	40

Pearson Correlation was also estimated between two sets of scores on the scores of the two text sizes which showed .64. The following Table shows the result:

TABLE 3:
PEARSON CORRELATION

		font 10	font 16
font 10	Pearson Correlation	1	.642
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004
	N	40	40
font 16	Pearson Correlation	.642	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	
	N	40	40

IV. DISCUSSION

Pearson Product correlation ($r=0.64$) shows that the two sets of scores are positively correlated meaning that when an individual scores high on a reading test with a font size 10, her score on the other reading test with font size 16 is high too. This means that the hypothesis in this study is rejected and font size makes no difference on students' performance of reading comprehension tests.

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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - 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.

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